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# Gender

Topic Guide



## ABOUT THIS GUIDE

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

The guide was written by Ann Kangas, Huma Haider and Erika Fraser. It was commissioned and funded by the Australian Government (DFAT). It was updated in 2014 by Evie Browne with funding from the UK Government's Department for International Development (DFID).

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## ABOUT THE GSDRC

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# UNDERSTANDING GENDER

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- What is gender and why does it matter?
- Gender relations and status in the household
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## INTRODUCTION

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

## WHAT IS GENDER AND WHY DOES IT MATTER?

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

Compared with men, women control fewer political and economic resources, including land, employment and traditional positions of authority. Acknowledging and incorporating these gender inequalities into programmes and analyses is therefore extremely important, both from a human rights perspective and to maximise impact and socioeconomic development. The WDR highlights the importance of directly targeting the persistent constraints and obstacles to women's equality (especially in areas of economic empowerment, educational gaps, household/societal voice, and violence against women) in order to enhance productivity and improve longer-term development outcomes. Gender equality is also important for sustainable peace, and there is a growing body of empirical evidence suggesting that a higher level of gender inequality is associated with higher risks of internal conflict.

**World Bank. (2012). 'Overview' in World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development, World Bank, Washington.**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4299>

This report examines how greater gender equality can enhance productivity, improve development outcomes for the next generation, and make institutions more representative. Markets, institutions, and households play a role in reducing inequality, and globalisation can provide important opportunities. Domestic actors need to focus on reducing female mortality, narrowing education and earnings disparities, increasing women's voice, and limiting gender inequality across generations. The international community needs to ensure consistent support, improve the availability of gender-disaggregated data, and extend partnerships beyond governments and development agencies.

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

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

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

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

In 2000, states confirmed their commitment to reducing gender inequalities through the United Nations Millennium Declaration. This was articulated specifically in Millennium Development Goal (MDG) 3 which called for the promotion of gender equality and women's empowerment. Three indicators were chosen to represent this goal: i) the ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education; ii) the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector; and iii) the proportion of seats held by women in national parliament. Gender equality is also essential in order to achieve the other seven MDGs. In the post-2015 process to decide what goals, if any,

should follow the MDGs, gender has remained a core concern. Some advocates have called for a standalone goal on gender, while others have promoted gender targets within each goal.

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

**Cornwall, A. (2007). 'Revisiting the "Gender Agenda"', IDS Bulletin, vol. 38, no. 2, pp.69-78**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4262>

This article examines how the term 'gender' found its way into development and explores the consequences of the transposition of an activist analytical category onto the world of aid. It points out the simplifications and slogans that have accompanied its 'mainstreaming' and challenges the assumptions on which these ideas have come to depend. It argues for a renewed focus on analysing and transforming unequal and unjust power relations.

**OECD. (2013). Gender equality and women's rights in the post-2015 agenda: A foundation for sustainable development. OECD And Post-2015 Reflections. Element 3, Paper 1.**

[http://www.wikigender.org/images/4/43/POST-2015\\_Gender.pdf](http://www.wikigender.org/images/4/43/POST-2015_Gender.pdf)

This policy paper puts forward the OECD's position on gender in the post-2015 goals. It recommends that the new goals contain a strong standalone goal on gender equality and women's empowerment, as well as integrating gender-specific targets and indicators in the other goals. It states that making girls and women visible in development agendas encourages governments and donors to take action. It suggests that the post-2015 framework needs to take a holistic approach: 1) addressing girls' completion of a quality education, 2) women's economic empowerment, 3) universal access to sexual and reproductive health and rights, 4) ending violence against women and girls, 5) women's voice, leadership and influence, 6) women's participation in peace and security, 7) women's contributions to environmental sustainability.

**UN Women. (2013). A Transformative Stand-Alone Goal On Achieving Gender Equality, Women's Rights And Women's Empowerment. In the context of the Post-2015 Development framework and Sustainable Development Goals. UN Women.**

<http://www.unwomen.org/~media/Headquarters/Attachments/Sections/Library/Publications/2013/7/post-2015%20-%20case%20for%20standalone%20gender%20goal%20pdf.pdf>

UN Women's position paper on the post-2015 goals on gender equality and women's rights suggests that a transformative approach is needed. It calls for action to address structural impediments for women's empowerment, such as violence against women, unpaid care work, limited control over assets and property, and unequal participation in private and public decision-making. The paper suggests integrating gender equality concerns throughout other goals, and a standalone goal covering three core areas, with associated targets and indicators for each:

- Freedom from violence for women and girls
- Gender equality in the distribution of capabilities

- Gender equality in decision-making power

See more information on the [Beijing Platform for Action](#).

See more information on the [MDGs](#).

### ***Data on gender***

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

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

For further discussion and resources on gender data, see the '[Monitoring and evaluation](#)' chapter of this guide.

## **GENDER RELATIONS AND STATUS IN THE HOUSEHOLD**

Gender relations are upheld by both informal and formal institutions. Informal institutions are usually referred to as 'long-lasting codes of conduct, norms, traditions [...] that contribute to gender inequality in all spheres of life' (Branisa et al 2009, cited in Jones et al 2010, p.10). Formal institutions (economic, political, legal and social) include political systems and labour markets. These two spheres interact with local cultures to determine gender outcomes.

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

**Jones, N. et al (2010). 'Stemming Girls' Chronic Poverty: Catalysing Development Change by Building Just Social Institutions', Chronic Poverty Research Centre**

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

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

***Gender relations through the lifecycle***

Gender dynamics and relations change throughout the course of the lifecycle. Status in the household is often determined by age, marriage, number of children, disability, economic resources and educational level attained. Girls, including adolescent girls, often have the lowest status in the household, especially in societies where families need to pay dowry and where the daughters are sent to live with the husband's family upon marriage. Recent research has identified adolescent girls as particularly vulnerable and susceptible to gender-based discrimination including sexual violence, forced and early marriage, dropping out of school and risk of death during childbirth. Early marriage and early pregnancy can have negative effects on girls' health, and may inhibit their ability to take advantage of educational and job opportunities.

Daughters-in-law and unmarried women are also considered to have low status in some cultures as they are seen as outsiders or burdens on the family. Widows and married women who have been abandoned by their husbands may also face stigma and lack of status.

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

For further discussion and resources on sexual and gender-based violence, see this guide's chapter on 'Gender-based violence'.

***Household roles***

Household status determines the roles of different family members. Men are often assumed to be the head of the household and responsible for providing financially for the family, while women and girls are responsible for household chores, such as caring for children, cleaning, fetching water and cooking. While women are now increasingly able to take up paid employment, this often does not lead to a reduction in their domestic responsibilities, leading to the 'double burden' of women's

domestic and productive roles. The time required to perform domestic chores also limits women's access to paid employment and their participation in civil society and politics.

While investing in boys' education is often viewed as a long-term strategy, the pressure on men to earn money can in some instances lead to boys being taken out of school to help support the family financially. Girls, on the other hand, are more likely to be taken out of school because the family is unable to afford their school fees and/or relies on girls to help with domestic chores and childcare.

Although it is often assumed that households are headed by males, this is not always the case. In situations of conflict, displacement, labour migration or abandonment, female-headed households may be more common. These are often among the poorest and most vulnerable households.

**Kabeer, N. (2007). 'Marriage, Motherhood and Masculinity in the Global Economy: Reconfigurations of Personal and Economic Life', IDS Working Paper 290, Institute of Development Studies, Brighton**

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

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

**Esplen, E. (2009). 'Gender and Care: Overview Report', BRIDGE Cutting Edge Pack.**

[http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/reports/cep\\_care\\_or.pdf](http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/reports/cep_care_or.pdf)

This article examines the core issues around care – why it is important, how it conflicts with women's rights, and addressing the main challenges. It suggests that care work should be recognised as important, and that it should not be the sole responsibility of women. It provides examples of programmes that have expanded women's choices and opportunities. It also reviews policies which can increase the value accorded to care work.

### ***Control over resources and decision-making***

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

between husband and wife, which intensify already existing gender inequalities, cultural factors that devalue women's unpaid work, lower levels of education and economic dependence.

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

**Apusigah, A. (2009). 'The Gendered Politics of Farm Household Production and the Shaping of Women's Livelihoods in Northern Ghana' in *Feminist Africa*, No 12, pp 51-68.**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4265>

How does the gendered politics of farm household production affect women's livelihoods? This study focuses on livelihoods-based interests in farm land and non-violent conflict situations in northern Ghana. It argues that the social positioning of women and whether they work on the land or not are important determinants of their livelihood possibilities.

**Doss, C. (2013). *Intrahousehold bargaining and resource allocation in developing countries. The World Bank Research Observer*, 28(1), 52-78.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/wbro/lkt001>

This article provides an overview of the quantitative literature on intra-household resource allocation, and summarises the main observations and insights relevant to policy-makers. It reviews theoretical models from the last thirty years, and examines different forms of bargaining – between spouses, between parents and children, and between other household members. It reviews the possibility of showing causation rather than correlation, and which outcomes of women's bargaining are reasonably well-established. It concludes women's bargaining power affects household decisions, although it is hard to prove causality.

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

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

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

**Chow, E.N., Segal, M.T., & Lin, T. (2011). Analyzing Gender, Intersectionality, and Multiple Inequalities: Global, Transnational and Local Contexts. Volume 15 of Advances in gender research. Emerald Group Publishing.**

<http://www.emeraldinsight.com/books.htm?issn=1529-2126&volume=15>

This book collates papers from a 2009 conference on "Gender and Social Transformation: Global, Transnational, and Local Realities and Perspectives". It contextualises experiences of intersectionality and inequality, social exclusion and powerlessness. It situates these experiences theoretically and provides connecting overviews on how those facing intersectional challenges are the most vulnerable.

**Hankivsky, O. (2012). Women's health, men's health, and gender and health: implications of intersectionality. Social science & medicine, 74(11), 1712-1720.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2011.11.029>

This paper examines the specific intersectionality of gender with equitable access to health. It examines the difficulties of understanding the different factors which influence access to health. It states that gender and/or sex are usually the primary dimensions used to understand health experiences, but this simplifies and undermines the complexities of access. Using an intersectional analysis transforms the understanding of access to healthcare. Gender is not always the most salient or meaningful category, and it may be more beneficial to use an intersectional approach. This should allow a deeper and more nuanced analysis and policy prescriptions.

**Watson, C., Hamilton Harding, J. & Harper, C. (2013). Adolescent girls, capabilities and gender justice: Review of the literature for East Africa, South Asia and South-East Asia. London: ODI.**

<http://www.odi.org.uk/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/8280.pdf>

This Background Note synthesises the results of three extensive gender literature reviews exploring the extent to which gender justice for adolescent girls is shaped by formal and informal laws, norms, attitudes and practices that limit them in the attainment and exercise of their capabilities. It describes the political, social, economic and cultural context in which girls live, and describes the intersectional poverty of being both young and a girl.

## **MASCULINITIES**

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

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

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

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

It is becoming increasingly acknowledged that there is a need to better understand how the gendered identities of boys and men are formed and how they can be better mobilised as a force for gender equality. For example, Australia's National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security (2012-2018) highlights the importance of male champions in ensuring the security of women and girls. Men and boys can be powerful advocates for gender equality, helping to reduce and prevent violence against women and ensure that women's needs are taken into account and included as crucial elements in peace negotiations and at international fora.

**Van der Gaag, N. (2011). 'Because I Am a Girl: The State of the World's Girls 2011: So, What About Boys?', Because I Am A Girl Series, Plan International**

<http://plan-international.org/about-plan/resources/publications/campaigns/because-i-am-a-girl-so-what-about-boys/>

This annual report on the state of the world's girls addresses boys and men. It argues that they should be involved in addressing gender inequality, both as power-holders and as a group suffering from negative gender stereotypes. It emphasises the role of fathers, families and schools in shaping gender relations. Fathers can set an example for their families by sharing household responsibilities, expressing emotions, and treating his sons, daughters and wife equally. In schools, both pre-school and secondary schooling for boys have positive effects on gender equality, through learning positive behaviour, and decreasing violence against women and girls.

**Cornwall, A., Erdström, J. and Greig, A. (2011). 'Men and Development: Politicizing Masculinities', Zed Books, London**

<http://www.zedbooks.co.uk/paperback/men-and-development>

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

**Hilker, L. M. and Fraser, E. M. (2009). 'Youth Exclusion, Violence, Conflict and Fragile States', Report prepared for DFID, Social Development Direct, London**

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

What is the evidence on the links between youth exclusion, violence, conflict and fragile states? The paper highlights factors which can contribute to youth violence, and makes recommendations for DFID's work on youth exclusion and violence. There is statistical evidence of a link between high relative youth populations and an increased risk of armed conflict. However, statistical relationships have their limitations. They cannot be used as a sole predictor of conflict in specific areas and reveal little about the causal processes. It is also important that youth are not generally viewed as a security 'threat'. A key factor driving youth involvement in violence is the structural exclusion and lack of opportunities faced by many young people. These block the transition to adulthood and can lead to frustration, disillusionment and, in some cases, participation in violence.

**Australian Government. (2012). 'Australian National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security, 2012-2018', Australian Government Office for Women, Canberra**

<http://www.dss.gov.au/our-responsibilities/women/publications-articles/government-international/australian-national-action-plan-on-women-peace-and-security-2012-2018>

The NAP consolidates and builds on the existing programme of work to integrate a gender perspective into peace and security efforts, protect women and girls' human rights, particularly in relation to gender-based violence, and promote their participation in conflict prevention, management and resolution.

**Barker, G., Contreras, J. M., Heilman, B., Singh, A. K., Verma, R. K., & Nascimento, M. (2011). Evolving men: initial results from the International Men and Gender Equality Survey (IMAGES). Washington, DC: International Center for Research on Women (ICRW) and Rio de Janeiro: Instituto Promundo.**

[http://www.engagingmen.net/files/resources/2011/xiano/Evolving-Men-Initial-Results-from-the-International-Men-and-Gender-Equality-Survey-IMAGES\\_0.pdf](http://www.engagingmen.net/files/resources/2011/xiano/Evolving-Men-Initial-Results-from-the-International-Men-and-Gender-Equality-Survey-IMAGES_0.pdf)

From 2009 to 2010, household surveys were administered to more than 8,000 men and 3,500 women ages 18 to 59 in Brazil, Chile, Croatia, India, Mexico and Rwanda. The key findings are that there is general trend for younger, more educated men and men with gender-equitable role models show more gender-equitable behaviour. Most men were not in delivery room for the birth of their last child, but nearly half do some daily caregiving. 25 to 40 per cent of men reported physical intimate partner violence. Between 16 percent and 56 percent of men say they have paid for sex at least once.

**Farre, L. (2013). The role of men in the economic and social development of women: implications for gender equality. Washington D.C.: The Worldbank .**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=5324>

How does male behaviour affect female outcomes in the promotion of gender equality? This survey first summarizes recent studies on the distribution of power within the family and identifies several factors that have altered the bargaining position of men and women over the last decades. It then reviews empirical work on the contribution of men, as fathers and husbands, to the health and socioeconomic outcomes of women in both developed and developing countries. Finally, it discusses

a set of economic policies that have intentionally or unintentionally affected men's attitudes and behaviours. The main implication is that policies meant to achieve gender equality should focus on men rather than exclusively target women.

For further resources, see the [Masculinity](#) section of Eldis.

## **GENDER ANALYSIS AND MAINSTREAMING**

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

### **AusAID. (2011). 'AusAID's Promoting Opportunities for All: Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment', AusAID, Canberra**

<http://www.ausaid.gov.au/aidissues/Documents/thematic-strategies/gender-equality-strategy.pdf>

This paper lays out the Australian government's strategy for opportunities for all. It develops four pillars:

- Pillar 1: Advancing equal access to gender-responsive health and education services
- Pillar 2: Increasing women's voice in decision-making, leadership and peace-building
- Pillar 3: Empowering women economically and improving their livelihood security
- Pillar 4: Ending violence against women and girls at home, in their communities and in disaster and conflict situations

Pillar 1 has had the most investment and success. There are persistent challenges in the other pillars.

### **DFID. (2011). A New Strategic Vision for Girls and Women: Stopping Poverty Before it Starts. Department for International Development.**

[https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/67582/strategic-vision-girls-women.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/67582/strategic-vision-girls-women.pdf)

This is DFID's strategic vision paper from the coalition government. It takes a different direction from the previous Gender Equality Action Plan (GEAP) for 2007-2010. Its four pillars for action are:

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

It draws on empowerment theory about widening girls' and women's access to choices. A variety of programmatic approaches are recommended.

**UNIFEM. (2010). 'Making the MDGs Work Better for Women: Implementing Gender-Responsive National Development Plans and Programmes', UNIFEM, New York**

<http://www.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2010/1/making-the-mdgs-work-better-for-women>

This policy report from the UN draws on good practice from the last ten years in strategies for accelerating progress towards the MDGs. It recognises that many donors and governments have expressed strong commitment to gender equality, but find it challenging to turn this into action. The paper outlines some lessons on how this can be achieved.

### ***Gender analysis and assessments***

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

A number of tools have been developed to assess gender equality progress within organisations and programmes. These include: i) participatory gender audits, which aim to promote organisational learning on how to practically and effectively mainstream gender; ii) project toolkits such as checklists which are lists of questions to help programme staff remember gender differences and potential gendered impacts; and iii) scorecards which contain concrete performance indicators to assess progress. Most development organisations have developed their own gender analysis tools to suit their needs.

### ***Gender mainstreaming***

Gender mainstreaming is the process of ensuring that gender is considered at all times, both within agencies (institutionally) and programmes (operationally). As these are closely interlinked, gender mainstreaming must be implemented both institutionally and operationally to be successful. A donor agency unable to recognise the challenges faced by its own female staff, for example, would struggle to understand the gender impacts of its programmes.

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

However, progress with gender mainstreaming remains inconsistent, and often suffers from insufficient commitment (usually from senior management), insufficient resource allocation and insufficient understanding of gender issues by staff at all levels. For example, an evaluation of gender mainstreaming in UNHABITAT found that while the agency has sought to mainstream gender

into core areas of its work, these efforts are not uniform in strength across the agency. In addition, a key challenge of gender mainstreaming is the possibility that if gender is a concern to all staff (rather than a specific gender unit), there may be a tendency for no one to actually draw attention to gender issues and to take action. To counteract this problem, gender experts now recommend a twin-track approach using both mainstreaming and gender-focused units.

**Thomas, V. and Beck, T. (2010). 'Changing the Way UNHCR Does Business? An Evaluation of the Age, Gender and Diversity Mainstreaming Strategy, 2004-2009' UNHCR, Geneva**

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

The evaluation concludes that despite some good progress UNHCR still has difficulties in achieving its strategic goals, and in successfully mainstreaming age, gender and diversity at all operational levels. The strategy signalled a significant shift in direction, and as such, needs a long timeframe to implement. It shifted away from a legal understanding of protection for refugees, to one which includes social and economic aspects. It has rigorous accountability, but does not have a clear vision of what the organisation should look like.

**USAID. (2010). 'Guide on How to Integrate Disability into Gender Assessments and Analyses'**

[http://www.fsnnetwork.org/sites/default/files/guide\\_how\\_integrate\\_disability\\_gender\\_assessments\\_2010.pdf](http://www.fsnnetwork.org/sites/default/files/guide_how_integrate_disability_gender_assessments_2010.pdf)

**Earle, L. and Mikkelsen, B. (2011). 'Evaluation of Gender Mainstreaming in UN-HABITAT', UN-HABITAT, Nairobi**

[http://huairou.org/sites/default/files/Evaluation\\_of\\_Gender\\_mainstreaming\\_in\\_UN-HABITAT.pdf](http://huairou.org/sites/default/files/Evaluation_of_Gender_mainstreaming_in_UN-HABITAT.pdf)

This evaluation assesses UN-HABITAT's efforts to mainstream gender, finding that it has maintained good efforts in mainstreaming, but with uneven application across contexts. It has several staff members and units responsible for gender mainstreaming. It has produced a number of research documents on men's and women's different shelter needs, and has provided capacity building on gender to local government institutions. It has also supported women's legal rights to property and land ownership.

**Special Issue: Beyond Gender Mainstreaming, Gender & Development, vol. 20, no. 3. (2012).**

[http://www.tandfonline.com/toc/cgde20/20/3#.Uv4nc2J\\_vuw](http://www.tandfonline.com/toc/cgde20/20/3#.Uv4nc2J_vuw)

This special issue contains 14 articles on gender mainstreaming at the current time. It ranges from micro level programme analysis to macro policy issues, and looks at how we can move forward from persistent problems with mainstreaming. Despite gender's prominence in most agencies and policies, most actors still remain focused on economic development goals, rather than transformative human development goals.

**Risby, L. A., & Todd, D. (2012). Mainstreaming gender equality: A road to results or a road to nowhere?. Operations Evaluation Department, African Development Bank Group.**

[http://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Evaluation-Reports/Mainstreaming%20Gender%20Equality%20-%20An%20Evaluation%20Synthesis\\_www.pdf](http://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Evaluation-Reports/Mainstreaming%20Gender%20Equality%20-%20An%20Evaluation%20Synthesis_www.pdf)

This paper synthesises gender mainstreaming experiences from bilateral and multilateral donor agencies to highlight trends, commonalities, challenges and good practices. This synthesis looks at 26 thematic and country evaluations undertaken between 1990 and 2010. The main finding is that

gender mainstreaming has not been widely carried out, and there is poor data on whether changes in gender equality have been achieved.

### ***Further resources***

**Mcloughlin, C., 2010, 'Child Marriage', GSDRC Helpdesk Research Report, GSDRC, Birmingham**  
<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Helpdesk&id=575>

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

- Gender mainstreaming on Eldis
- Women Living Under Muslim Laws
- The *Because I am a Girl* series by Plan International
- The World Bank website section on [gender tools](#).

# LEGAL FRAMEWORK FOR WOMEN'S RIGHTS AND ACCESS TO JUSTICE

Contents:

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

## INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

**Banda, F. (2008). 'Laws that Discriminate against Women' Report commissioned by Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR).**

[http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/laws\\_that\\_discriminate\\_against\\_women.pdf](http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/laws_that_discriminate_against_women.pdf)

## INTERNATIONAL LEGAL FRAMEWORKS

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

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

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

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

The full text of CEDAW can be found at:

<http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CEDAW.aspx> and the Optional Protocol is at: <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/OPCEDAW.aspx>

### **Byrnes, A., & Freeman, M. (2012). 'The Impact of the CEDAW Convention: Paths to Equality'. A Study for the World Bank.**

<http://law.bepress.com/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1339&context=unswwps-flrps12>

What is the impact of CEDAW? There is evidence that it has contributed to women's rights equality in many countries. The paper provides a close examination of Fiji; Maldives; Lao People's Democratic Republic; Rwanda; Kenya; Ecuador; Venezuela; Serbia; Bangladesh; Kyrgyzstan; Morocco; and Singapore. The report concludes that change has been slow. Domestic NGOs have played a crucial role in reforms and pressuring governments.

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

**Pasqual, L. (2009). 'Time for Action: Implementing CEDAW in Southeast Asia', UNIFEM, Bangkok**  
[http://cedaw-seasia.org/resource\\_documents.html#time4action](http://cedaw-seasia.org/resource_documents.html#time4action)

This book provides a number of case studies from Southeast Asia, including both government and civil society actors. It shows how CEDAW has been used to advocate for stronger legal frameworks; to sensitise the justice system to protect the rights of women; and to guide local development and budget allocation processes.

**Sisters in Islam. (2011). 'CEDAW and Muslim Family Laws: In Search of Common Ground', Musawah, Selangor, Malaysia**

<http://musawah.org/cedaw-and-muslim-family-laws-search-common-ground-0>

This report documents the trends identified in the Musawah research project, which examined justifications of state failure to implement CEDAW with regard to family laws and practices that discriminate against Muslim women. The research reviewed documents for 44 Muslim majority and minority countries that reported to the CEDAW Committee from 2005-2010.

### ***UN Security Council Resolution 1325***

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

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

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

The full text of the SCR 1325, 1820, 1888 and 1889 can be found [here](#).

**United Nations. (2010). 'Ten-year Impact Study on Implementation of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 (2000) on Women, Peace and Security in Peacekeeping', Final Report to the United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations, Department of Field Support**

[http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/10year\\_impact\\_study\\_1325.pdf](http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/documents/10year_impact_study_1325.pdf)

This impact study covers 12 UN peacekeeping operations in 11 countries. There has been little success in including more women in peace negotiations, but there has been a significant increase in women's political participation. There has only been modest success in including women in disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration programmes. Uniformed female peacekeepers have had a positive effect, but there are still few of them. Legal and judicial reforms have made progress but it is unclear how much real impact this has. Sexual and gender-based violence still continues with impunity, although there is greater awareness and better legal structures in place. Female IDPs continue to feel unsafe and to be under-represented in camp management structures. Staff still lack solid gender understanding, and rely on their few gender specialists to manage their programmes.

**Special Issue: A Systematic Understanding of Gender, Peace, and Security—Implementing UNSCR 1325. International Interactions, Empirical and Theoretical Research in International Relations, Volume 39, Issue 4. (2013).**

[http://www.tandfonline.com/toc/gini20/39/4#.Uv5KNmJ\\_vuw](http://www.tandfonline.com/toc/gini20/39/4#.Uv5KNmJ_vuw)

This special issue examines different facets of the implementation of UNSCR 1325. The articles offer insight into how to improve our understanding through research. It appears that the resolution has been only patchily implemented, and that gender mainstreaming could be improved.

## **OTHER RELEVANT INTERNATIONAL INSTRUMENTS**

- Convention of the Rights of the Child (CRC) (1989)  
The CRC outlines specific protection for girls and boys under the age of 18. It is used more widely to ensure the protection of the girl child, who is more likely to have her rights violated through harmful traditional practices such as female genital mutilation/cutting (FGM/C) and early marriage. See [more information on the CRC](#).
- International Labour Organization (ILO) conventions  
There are a number of ILO conventions which are particularly relevant to women's employment, including:
  - [C100 Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951](#)
  - [C111 Discrimination \(Employment and Occupation\) Convention, 1958](#)
  - [C183 Maternity Protection Convention, 2000](#)
  - [Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 \(No. 105\)](#)
  - [Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 \(No. 182\)](#)
  - [The Domestic Workers Convention \(No. 189\) and Recommendation \(No. 201\), 2011](#)
- Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children  
This Protocol supplements the [United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime](#).

- International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) (1966)  
The ICCPR is a multilateral treaty adopted by the United Nations General Assembly. It commits states parties to the Covenant to respect the various civil and political rights of individuals, such as the right to life; freedom of religion, speech and assembly; and rights to due process and a fair trial. Article 2 requires that the rights are recognised without distinction of any kind, such as sex. Article 3 requires that men and women have equal right to the enjoyment of the rights set forth in the Covenant. See [more on the ICCPR](#).
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESR) (1966)  
The ICESR is a multilateral treaty also adopted by the United Nations General Assembly. It commits states parties to the Covenant to respect the various economic, social and cultural rights of individuals, including labour rights; the right to health; the right to education; and the right to an adequate standard of living. It contains the same provisions in Article 2 and 3 as the ICCPR with respect to non-discrimination based on sex and equal enjoyment of rights by men and women. See [more on the ICESCR](#).
- Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power (1985)  
See the full text of the Declaration.

### ***Regional Agreements and Conventions***

#### Africa

- African Union - Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa
- African (Banjul) Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights
- Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (ECA)

#### Americas

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

#### Asia and the Pacific

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

#### Middle East

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

## *Case studies and good practice*

**Forster, C. And Jivan, V. (2009). 'Gender Equality Laws: Global Good Practice and a Review of Five Southeast Asian Countries', Bangkok: UNIFEM**

[http://cedaw-seasia.org/docs/Aw\\_GEL\\_incover050609Feb10.pdf](http://cedaw-seasia.org/docs/Aw_GEL_incover050609Feb10.pdf)

This paper published by UNIFEM provides a comprehensive overview of gender equality law in practice. It reflects CEDAW good practice principles set by nation states and aims to assist actors, public and private, government and non government, in both the development of new gender equality laws and the implementation of existing gender equality laws.

For further discussion, see the OHCHR's [women's rights and gender site](#).

## **ACCESS TO JUSTICE**

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

**UN Women. (2011). 'Progress of the World's Women: In Pursuit of Justice', UN Women, New York**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4307>

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

**UNDP Regional Centre for Asia Pacific. (2010). 'Advancing Legal Rights' in UNDP 2010 Asia-Pacific Human Development Report: Power, Voice and Rights: A Turning Point for Gender Equality in Asia and the Pacific, Colombo, pp.111-142**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3842>

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

**Gaanderse, M. and Valasek, K. (2011). 'The Security Sector and Gender in West Africa: A survey of police, defence, justice and penal services in ECOWAS states,' DCAF, Geneva**

[http://www.dcaf.ch/content/download/47645/710292/file/00\\_Complete\\_West%20Africa\\_gender\\_survey.pdf](http://www.dcaf.ch/content/download/47645/710292/file/00_Complete_West%20Africa_gender_survey.pdf)

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

For more information on general access to justice issues, see the '[Access to justice](#)' section in the [Justice topic guide](#).

### ***Gender and traditional justice***

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

**Swaine, A. (2003). 'Traditional Justice and Gender Based Violence', Research Report, International Rescue Committee, New York**

[http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract\\_id=1440231](http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1440231)

**Danish Institute for Human Rights. (2012). *Informal Justice Systems: Charting a Course for Human Rights-Based Engagement*. UNDP, UNICEF and UN Women.**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4339>

How can engagement with informal justice systems build greater respect and protection for human rights? This major study examines the value of informal justice systems in offering flexible structures and processes, cost-effectiveness and outreach to grassroots communities. It considers the weaknesses and strengths of different kinds of IJS for development programming, and suggests that development partners be alert to engagement with IJS that reinforces societal or structural discrimination. The report is based on a literature review, six in-depth country case studies and desk studies of 12 countries.

**Chopra, T., & Isser, D. (2012). *Access to Justice and Legal Pluralism in Fragile States: The Case of Women's Rights*. *Hague Journal of the Rule of Law*, 4(2).**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S187640451200019X>

This paper outlines the two main approaches to women's legal rights: The first assumes that informal systems are inherently inconsistent with women's rights and therefore the formal system must be the primary forum for adjudicating disputes involving women. The second approach seeks to engage with informal systems with the aim of transforming them to comply with international standards, while retaining the positive features of accessibility, familiarity and effectiveness. The

paper argues that both approaches are flawed, and that an alternative approach is to embrace processes of social change as the means for instituting legal change.

**Hellum, A. (2013). Gender, Human Rights and Legal Pluralities: Experiences from Southern and Eastern Africa. In Sieder, R. and McNeish, J.A., *Gender Justice and Legal Pluralities: Latin American and African Perspectives*. Routledge.**

<http://www.routledge.com/books/details/9780415526067/>

This chapter analyses case studies from South Africa, Tanzania and Zimbabwe to describe how legal actors, women's rights organisations and individuals navigate the plural legal terrain. From a history of colonialism, these states have protected their rights to self-determination in their legal systems. This includes informal and traditional justice systems, which sometimes clash with equality principles. Successful interventions engage with both the visible and the hidden power structures. Successful strategies centre around bridging the gap between local justice and human rights principles, and which can develop locally appropriate middle grounds.

**Manganaro, L. L., & Poland, A. L. (2012). For Better or Worse? Gender and Perceptions of Formal and Informal Justice Systems in Afghanistan. *Women & Criminal Justice*, 22(1), 2-29.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/08974454.2012.636287>

This article uses survey data from a national probability sample of 6,406 Afghan adults to explore gender differences in the perceptions of formal and informal justice systems. It finds that women have more confidence in the formal system than their male counterparts, whereas the opposite is true for the informal system. The informal system has strong popular support, but it appears that women would benefit from further expansion of the formal system.

The **World Bank's Justice for the Poor programme** has produced a range of findings on gender and traditional justice:

<http://go.worldbank.org/ZRKELPETD0#Gender>

For further discussion on issues of gender and justice, see the 'transitional justice' section in the chapter on 'Gender, Statebuilding and Peacebuilding' of this guide; and the [Human rights, gender and social exclusion](#) section of the Topic Guide on Justice.

# GENDER AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

Contents:

- Introduction
- Health services
- Education
- Social protection

## INTRODUCTION

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

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

**Corner, L. and Repucci, S. (2009). 'A User's Guide to Measuring Gender-Sensitive Basic Service Delivery', United Nations Development Programme and United Nations Development Fund for Women, Oslo**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3810>

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

**Transparency International. (2010). 'Corruption and Gender in Service Delivery: The Unequal Impacts', TI Working Paper 02/2010, Transparency International**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4283>

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

**World Bank. (2012). 'Education and health: Where do gender differences really matter?', Chapter 3 in World Development Report 2012: Gender, Equality and Development, World Bank, Washington**

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

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

**Ndikumana, L. (2013). Impact of sectoral allocation of foreign aid on gender equity and human development. WIDER Working Paper, 66.**

[http://works.bepress.com/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1032&context=leonce\\_ndikumana](http://works.bepress.com/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1032&context=leonce_ndikumana)

What role can foreign aid play in improving access to basic services, and in improving gender equality? The paper combines OECD-DAC spending allocations with country-level data. It finds that human development outcomes are largely dependent on pre-existing levels. In gender equality, aid appears to be effective in reducing maternal mortality as well as the gender gap in youth literacy, but its effects are at best mixed for other indicators. The results suggest that more funding to health and education has generally positive effects but specifically helps reduce gender inequality.

### ***Services and accountability***

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

**UNIFEM. (2009). 'Services', Chapter 3 in Who Answers to Women? Gender and Accountability, Progress of the World's Women 2008/2009, UNIFEM, New York**

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

This chapter examines gender biases in the way services are resourced and designed, and shows how women's physical and social access to services is often constrained. Practical ways of improving

accountability in service delivery include: gender-sensitive mandates that bring gender equality into the remit of every public service; incentives to reward responsive performance; sanctions for neglect of women's needs; performance measurements and monitoring to ensure that outputs benefit women.

**MacPherson, E. (2008). 'Invisible Agents: Women in Service Delivery Reform', IDS Bulletin, Vol. 38, No 6, pp. 38-46**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3007>

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

**Holland, J., Ruedin, L., Scott-Villiers, P., & Sheppard, H. (2012). Tackling the Governance of Socially Inclusive Service Delivery. *Public Management Review*, 14(2), 181-196.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2012.657919>

This article draws on case study research in Nepal to examine social accountability processes that work on both sides of the supply–demand divide. It considers their likely contribution to socially inclusive service delivery and to challenging deeper institutional norms that sustain social exclusion. The evidence supports a theory of change which integrates both supply and demand. It also suggests that contextual interventions have a more sustained impact when they tackle the institutions that underpin accountability relations.

For further discussion and resources on service delivery, see the [Service Delivery](#) topic guide.

## HEALTH SERVICES

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

**WHO. (2009). 'Women and Health: Today's Evidence Tomorrow's Agenda', WHO, Geneva**

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

What are women's health needs? What is their contribution to the overall health of societies? This report takes stock of the health of women around the world and draws attention to the consequences and costs of failing to address health issues at appropriate points in women's lives.

Addressing women's health is a necessary and effective approach to strengthening health systems overall – action that will benefit everyone. Consequently, there is an urgent need for more coherent political and institutional leadership, visibility and resources for women's health.

**Bulletin of the World Health Organization (2013). Special theme: women's health beyond reproduction – a new agenda. Bull World Health Organ vol.91 n.9 Geneva Sep. 2013**

[http://www.scielosp.org/scielo.php?script=sci\\_issuetoc&pid=0042-968620130009&lng=en&nrm=iso](http://www.scielosp.org/scielo.php?script=sci_issuetoc&pid=0042-968620130009&lng=en&nrm=iso)

This themed issue looks at women's health and access to healthcare beyond reproductive health issues. The issue provides primary research on specific diseases, ageing, and risk factors, and policy lessons and perspectives. It acknowledges that health systems are generally not responsive to women's needs and women do not have access to a full range of healthcare. It recommends a Universal Health Coverage approach, which is client-responsive and holistic.

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

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

**Barker, G., Ricardo, C. and Nascimento, M. (2007). 'Engaging Men and Boys in Changing Gender-based Inequity in Health: Evidence from Programme Interventions', WHO / Promudo: Geneva.**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4285>

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

**Odimegwu, C., Pallikadavath, S., & Adedini, S. (2013). The cost of being a man: social and health consequences of Igbo masculinity. *Culture, health & sexuality*, 15(2), 219-234.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13691058.2012.747700>

What are men's approaches to health and health care? This mixed-methods study in Nigeria shows that there are social and health costs associated with adherence to masculine ideologies (many sexual partners; non-use of condoms) and a strong association between masculine ideologies and men's health, risk-taking and health-seeking behaviours. Failure to meet ideals of masculinity results in shame, ridicule and street jokes. According to participants, health consequences include a higher

prevalence of and risk for STIs, including HIV, high blood pressure, suicide and substance abuse, low sperm count, early ejaculation, wet dreams and herpes. There seems to be an emerging general shift toward non-traditional gender-role beliefs and practices, especially in the urban areas and among those who have more education. Men under-utilise reproductive health services, which need to respond to masculine ideologies.

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

## EDUCATION

Gender gaps in education have reduced considerably at all levels since the establishment of MDGs 2 and 3 on education and gender equality, and the Dakar World Education Forum (2000), when countries committed to eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005. Gender parity in primary education has been achieved globally – equal numbers of girls and boys are enrolled.

This global statistic masks regional and demographic inequalities, and girls continue to face barriers to schooling. Gender disparities persist in many parts of the world, due to deep-seated inequalities. Getting all girls into school will involve designing strategies to tackle household and community-level barriers, such as the direct costs (school fees, clothing, books etc.) and the indirect costs of schooling (such as loss of potential income). The traditional division of household labour often places girls at a disadvantage in terms of ‘opportunity costs’. Early marriage, the low status of women, and patriarchal norms often reduce the priority given to girls’ education.

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

While progress has been made in closing the gender gap at primary school level, the situation is worse for adolescent girls in secondary school. Gender disparities increase through secondary and tertiary education, with the gap actually widening in Sub-Saharan Africa between 2000 and 2011. Although education for adolescent girls is important for reducing early pregnancies, lowering the risk of HIV/AIDS, and helping girls to meet their learning and developmental needs, relatively few programmes have been specifically designed for adolescent girls. The evidence suggests that adolescent girls require a range of educational opportunities, both formal and non-formal (Lloyd, 2009).

Further research should investigate educational quality and relevance at all levels, particularly aspects that may be beneficial to girls. These include curricular content and promoting opportunities for studying non-traditional subjects at secondary and tertiary level.

**Lloyd, C. (2009). 'New Lessons: The Power of Educating Adolescent Girls', Population Council, New York**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4298>

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

**Dunne, M. (2009). 'Gender as an Entry Point for Addressing Social Exclusion and Multiple Disparities in Education', Technical Paper, UNGEI Global Advisory Committee Technical Meeting, 27 May, New York**

[http://www.ungei.org/spanish/resources/files/Gender\\_as\\_Entry\\_Point\\_to\\_Address\\_Education\\_Disparities.pdf](http://www.ungei.org/spanish/resources/files/Gender_as_Entry_Point_to_Address_Education_Disparities.pdf)

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

**UNESCO. (2014). 2013/4 Education for All Global Monitoring Report: Teaching and learning: Achieving quality for all. UNESCO Publishing.**

<http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0022/002256/225660e.pdf>

The Education for All consortium promotes quality of schooling, and secondary schooling, rather than simple access. It has a set of goals parallel to and overlapping with the MDGs. This annual update shows that in low income countries more girls than boys are out of school, but in middle and high income countries more boys are out of school especially at higher levels of education. The worst-performing countries for gender parity are in Sub-Saharan Africa. It also highlights that there are still very many children not attending school at all.

**Unterhalter E., North, A., Arnot, M., Lloyd, C., Moletsane, L., Murphy-Graham, E., Parkes, J., & Saito, M. (2014). Girls' education and gender equality. Education Rigoorous Literature Review. London: Department for International Development**

[https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/326205/Girls\\_\\_Education\\_Literature\\_Review\\_2014\\_Unterhalter.pdf](https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/326205/Girls__Education_Literature_Review_2014_Unterhalter.pdf)

What is the evidence on the kind of interventions which lead to expansion and improvement in girls' education, and does this deepen gender equality? 169 studies were reviewed. The paper shows that the effectiveness of resource interventions depends on careful targeting of educationally under-resourced families, and thoughtful design of programmes to focus on girls most at risk. The evidence shows that good teachers are highly important. Effective interventions are associated with a 'quality mix', that is, a combination of a number of different approaches to enhancing gender equality. Interventions concerned with shifting gender norms and enhancing inclusion are under researched and under resourced.

## SOCIAL PROTECTION

Women and men are affected by different risks and vulnerabilities. Gender-specific vulnerabilities often intersect with other forms of social exclusion. A gender lens is important when designing and implementing social protection programmes in order to tackle these complex and multiple vulnerabilities, some of which are specific to gender and others exacerbated by gender inequalities. Interventions need to be designed to harness opportunities for positive change – for women and men – and minimise negative consequences. Gender-sensitive social protection programmes are also thought to be more effective in reducing the intergenerational transmission of poverty (Barrientos and Scott, 2008). For example, cash transfers targeted at women are more likely to focus on children's needs – improving children's health, nutritional status and school attendance – although they may also reinforce women's traditional caring roles (Holmes and Jones, 2010).

The evidence to date suggests that gender has been unevenly integrated into social protection approaches. While some programmes are designed explicitly with a primary objective of empowering women, others only include women as a target beneficiary group, and some programmes ignore gender dimensions altogether (Holmes and Jones, 2010).

Although targeting based on sex will help ensure that women receive benefits, it is important that the design and implementation of social protection programmes responds more broadly to different gender-specific risks and vulnerabilities. Such responses might involve improving access to social protection in the labour market and extending social insurance to the informal sector, where women are disproportionately represented. Formalising the informal can help increase the likelihood of reaching poor women. Assisting women in informal social protection, like caring for relatives, by strengthening informal household and community level protection mechanisms is also important. However, this should not increase the burden of work for women. Another strategy is to combine interventions, such as childcare and conditional transfers to benefit women. Gender-specific indicators are also needed to assess programmes' gender differentiated impact (Luttrell and Moser, 2004).

**Sweetman, C. (2011). 'Introduction: Special Issue on Social Protection', Gender and Development, vol. 19, no. 2, pp. 169-177**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4292>

This journal issue examines how social protection has been understood and implemented by the state, NGOs, and community organisations, and the impact of different initiatives on gender equality and women's rights. It highlights the need for more women's participation in the planning of social protection interventions, and for greater focus on transformative programmes that address structural barriers faced by women.

**Holmes, R. and Jones, N. (2010). 'Rethinking Social Protection Using a Gender Lens', ODI Working Paper no. 320, Overseas Development Institute (ODI), London**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4015>

To what extent is social protection programming reinforcing women's traditional roles and responsibilities, or helping to transform gender relations in economic and social spheres? How can

policy and programme design and evaluations better address gender-specific risks and vulnerability? This paper synthesises multi-country research, finding that the integration of gender into social protection approaches has so far been uneven at best. However, all the programmes studied had both intended and unintended effects on women and gender relations. Attention to dynamics within the household can help to maximise positive programme impacts and reduce potentially negative ones. Relatively simple design changes and investment in more strategic implementation practices are needed.

**Barrientos, A. and Scott, J. (2008), 'Social Transfers and Growth: A Review', Working Paper 51, Brooks World Poverty Institute, Manchester**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3838>

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

**Luttrell, C. and Moser, C. (2004). 'Gender and Social Protection', Overseas Development Institute, London**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=1763>

This paper discusses the role of gender issues in social protection policies, programmes and strategies. Vulnerabilities to risk vary significantly by gender and shocks affect men and women differently. These differences need to be taken into account when developing social protection policies and programmes.

**Kabeer, N. (2008). 'Mainstreaming Gender in Social Protection for the Informal Economy', Commonwealth Secretariat, London**

[http://books.google.co.uk/books?id=seSMLolLwY4C&printsec=frontcover&source=gbs\\_ge\\_summary\\_r&cad=0#v=onepage&q&f=false](http://books.google.co.uk/books?id=seSMLolLwY4C&printsec=frontcover&source=gbs_ge_summary_r&cad=0#v=onepage&q&f=false)

This book reviews women's need for social protection, to protect their livelihoods, encourage decent working conditions and enable collective action. Women are over-represented in the informal and precarious sector, and structural inequalities prevent them from overcoming these barriers by themselves. Children also need to be protected from entering the labour market

**Holmes, R. and Jones, N. (2013). *Gender and Social Protection in the Developing World: Beyond Mothers and Safety Nets*. London: Zed Books.**

<http://www.zedbooks.co.uk/node/16758>

This book illustrates the progress made in the social protection sector in incorporating objectives of voice and agency, and also highlights the significant challenges that remain in moving the social protection poverty agenda beyond a focus on income and 'traditional' gender equality goals. Drawing on empirical evidence from poor households and communities in Africa, Asia and Latin America, this book provides insight into the effects of a range of social protection instruments. It

concludes that with relatively simple changes to design and with investment in implementation capacity, social protection can contribute to transforming gender relations at the individual, intrahousehold and community levels.

**Antonopoulos, R. (2013). *From Safety Nets to Economic Empowerment: Is There Space to Promote Gender Equality in the Evolution of Social Protection?* (No. ppb\_128). Levy Economics Institute.**

[http://www.levyinstitute.org/pubs/ppb\\_128.pdf](http://www.levyinstitute.org/pubs/ppb_128.pdf)

How can gender equality be integrated into social protection programming? This paper provides a background and overview of social protection, and describes how strategies are evolving from one-off safety nets or risk prevention, to interventions designed to tackle the causes of vulnerability. A gender-sensitive social protection system views women as active agents rather than passive recipients. The paper particularly reviews Conditional Cash Transfers and Employment Guarantee Programmes.

Further discussion and resources can be found in the GSDRC's [Social Protection](#) guide.

# SEXUAL AND REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH AND RIGHTS

Contents:

- Introduction
- Maternal health
- Gender and HIV/AIDS

## INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

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

Worldwide, more than 140 million women aged 15 to 49 who are married or in a union have an unmet need for family planning (UN, 2013). The unmet need for contraceptives remains particularly high in sub-Saharan Africa, where SRH programmes have developed slowly and failed to reach enough disadvantaged women and adolescent girls, who are more vulnerable to poor health outcomes. Where country policies, budgets and programmes have reflected the ICPD goals, there has been progress (UNFPA, 2008).

**UNFPA. (2008). 'Making Reproductive Rights and Sexual and Reproductive Health A Reality for All', United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA )**

[http://www.unfpa.org/webdav/site/global/shared/documents/publications/2011/SRH\\_Framework.pdf](http://www.unfpa.org/webdav/site/global/shared/documents/publications/2011/SRH_Framework.pdf)

This paper outlines UNFPA's SRH framework and strategic plan 2008-2011. UNFPA will invest in four priority areas: (a) support for the provision of a basic package of SRH services; (b) the integration of HIV prevention, management and care in SRH services; (c) gender sensitive life-skills based SRH education for adolescents and youth; and (d) SRH services in emergencies and humanitarian crises.

## **MATERNAL HEALTH**

Improving maternal health is one of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG5). Globally, maternal mortality has declined by 47 per cent since 1990, to 287,000 deaths in 2010. Eastern Asia, Northern Africa and Southern Asia have reduced maternal mortality by two-thirds (UN, 2013).

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

A large proportion of maternal deaths are preventable with access to antenatal care in pregnancy, skilled care during childbirth, and care and support in the weeks after childbirth. High maternal mortality rates can be attributed to failing health systems, the low status of women, and the systematic violation of their basic human rights (Hawkins and Newman, 2005). In developing regions, antenatal care increased from 63 per cent in 1990 to 81 per cent in 2011, but only half of women receive the recommended amount of health care (UN, 2013).

**Hawkins, K. and Newman, K. (2005). 'Developing a Human Rights-Based Approach to Addressing Maternal Mortality - Desk Review', Department for International Development (DFID) Health Resource Centre, London**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=1548>

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

**United Nations Secretary General. (2010). 'Global Strategy for Women's and Children's Health', The Partnership for Maternal, Newborn and Child Health**

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

The strategy sets out the key areas where action is urgently required, including: support for country-led health plans; integrated delivery of health services and life-saving interventions; stronger health systems, with sufficient skilled health workers at their core; innovative approaches to financing,

product development and the efficient delivery of health services; and improved monitoring and evaluation to ensure the accountability of all actors for results.

**UN. (2011). 'The Millennium Development Goals Report 2011', United Nations, New York**

[http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/pdf/\(2011\\_E\)%20MDG%20Report%202011\\_Book%20LR.pdf](http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/pdf/(2011_E)%20MDG%20Report%202011_Book%20LR.pdf)

This annual report provides updates on progress towards the MDGs. In 2011, most countries showed a decline in maternal mortality rates, but this is one of the goals with least progress. Maternal deaths are concentrated in sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia. Adolescent births declined in the 1990s but progress stalled during the 2000s.

**UN. (2013). The Millennium Development Goals Report 2013. United Nations, New York.**

<http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/pdf/report-2013/mdg-report-2013-english.pdf>

Maternal mortality has declined by nearly half since 1990, but is not close to meeting the MDG target of a reduction of three-quarters. Only half of pregnant women in developing regions receive the recommended minimum of four antenatal care visits. The urban-rural gap in skilled birth attendance still persists. Some 140 million women worldwide who are married or in union say they would like to delay or avoid pregnancy, but are not using contraception. However, 62 per cent of married women in developing regions do use contraception.

**Williamson, N. (2013). State of World Population 2013 – Motherhood in Childhood: Facing the challenge of adolescent pregnancy. Information and External Relations Division of UNFPA.**

<http://www.unfpa.org/webdav/site/global/shared/swp2013/EN-SWOP2013-final.pdf>

This paper proposes that a change in views is needed. Instead of viewing the girl as the problem and changing her behaviour as the solution, governments, communities, families and schools should see poverty, gender inequality, discrimination, lack of access to services, and negative views about girls and women as the real challenges, and the pursuit of social justice, equitable development and the empowerment of girls as the true pathway to fewer adolescent pregnancies. It also suggests that girls aged 14 and younger are the most at risk and neglected, and that they should be the priority.

## **GENDER AND HIV/AIDS**

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

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

based violence in response to being found HIV positive can be a deterrent to testing. Confidentiality of results can be essential.

Transactional sexual relationships, involving exchanges of material gifts or services for sex, have also been linked with an increased risk of HIV infection. Transactional sex typically involves multiple partners and large age differences (usually between older men and younger women or girls). Younger women (and men) generally have lower negotiating power to insist on condom use.

**Crichton, J., Nyamu Musembi, C. and Ngugi, A. (2008). 'Painful Tradeoffs: Intimate-partner Violence and Sexual and Reproductive Health Rights in Kenya', IDS Working Paper no 312, Institute of Development Studies, Brighton**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3200>

This paper explores links between intimate-partner violence and sexual and reproductive health (SRH) rights in Nairobi. Significant gaps exist between formal legal rights and the realities experienced by individuals. Legal reform, improved services for affected women and better coordination among service providers are required.

**UNFPA. (2009). 'Fact Sheet: Poverty and AIDS', UNFPA**

<http://www.unfpa.org/conversations/facts.html>

This brief fact sheet provides an overview of how poverty and HIV/AIDS are linked. It highlights that the burden of care for the sick falls disproportionately on women and girls. Women from disadvantaged groups are more likely to contract HIV.

**Boesten, J. & Poku, N.K. (2013). Gender and HIV/AIDS: Critical Perspectives from the Developing World. Ashgate Publishing, Ltd**

<http://www.ashgate.com/isbn/9780754672692>

This book provides a comprehensive overview of the relationship between gender, inequality and vulnerability to HIV/AIDS. It examines current thinking on the core topics and on interventions. It stresses the complexity of this relationship, and that accounting for gender will increase our understanding. A focus on women might, however, reinforce stigma and blame towards women.

For further resources on Gender and HIV/AIDS, see [Eldis](#).

### ***Further resources***

**Haider, H., 2011, 'Early Marriage and Sexual and Reproductive Health', GSDRC Helpdesk Research Report, Governance and Social Development Resource Centre, Birmingham**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Helpdesk&id=725>

[Ipas](#) and [Guttmacher Institute](#) websites on access to safe abortion and right to choose

[Population Council](#) on adolescent girls and SRHR issues

[AIDS Alliance](#) on HIV and AIDS and gender

Centre for Reproductive Rights

White Ribbon Alliance on safe motherhood

International Women's Health Coalition

Maternal Health Task Force

# GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE

Contents:

- Introduction
- Costs and consequences of GBV
- Female infanticide
- Harmful traditional practices
- Domestic violence
- Sexual violence
- Human trafficking
- Addressing GBV

## INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

Programmatic responses to GBV cannot be considered in isolation from the context of individuals, households, communities or states: GBV is part of a continuum of violence and impacts the civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights of those affected. Approaches to address GBV have

included justice-based approaches, health-based approaches and programmes that aim to change social norms both for women and men. Experience shows that these interventions may be directly followed by increased levels of violence directed at women and girls. This must not be viewed as a failure of the intervention, but may signal that it has targeted the core of the power structure. In this context, male backlash is a reaction of patriarchal attitudes sensing a threat to their existing power.

**Manjoo, R. (2011). 'Report of the Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women, its Causes and Consequences', Human Rights Council, Seventeenth session, 2 May 2011.**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4254>

This report analyses the causes and consequences of multiple forms of discrimination as regards violence against women. It also considers inter-gender and intra-gender differences, arguing that a one-size-fits-all programmatic approach is insufficient for combating gender-based violence. A holistic approach is critical for addressing the interconnections between violence against women, its causes and consequences, and multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination.

**Duncan, B., Sommarin, C., Brandt, N., Aden, A. D., Briones, C., Barragues, A., ... & Ringhofer, L. (2013). Breaking the Silence on Violence Against Indigenous Girls, Adolescents and Young Women: A Call to Action Based on an Overview of Existing Evidence from Africa, Asia Pacific and Latin America. Culture Health and Sexuality, 15(Suppl 3), S351-S364.**

<http://www.unfpa.org/public/cache/offonce/home/publications/pid/14405;jsessionid=A18FE6640BAF044C231CCE23CFBB8355.jahia02>

Which types of violence do indigenous women face? This comprehensive UN report examines the historical, political, economic, social and cultural contexts of indigenous peoples. Indigenous women experience intersectional discrimination, and there is strong evidence that they face a higher prevalence of violence, harmful practices, labour exploitation, and harassment, and are more vulnerable to sexual violence in armed conflicts. The report represents a systematic desk review of quantitative and qualitative sources spanning 2000 to 2013. Kenya, Guatemala and the Philippines are case studies.

**Fulu, E., Warner, X., Miedema, S., Jewkes, R., Roselli, T. and Lang, J. (2013). Why Do Some Men Use Violence Against Women and How Can We Prevent It? Summary Report of Quantitative Findings from the United Nations Multi-country Study on Men and Violence in Asia and the Pacific. Bangkok: UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and UNV.**

<http://www.partners4prevention.org/about-prevention/research/men-and-violence-study>

This paper takes the approach that the elimination of harmful gender norms and practices can only be achieved through the engagement of men and boys. Understanding men's own diverse experiences, within the context of deep-rooted patriarchal systems and structures that enable men to assert power and control over women, will help target the underlying drivers of violence against women and girls to stop violence before it starts. From 2010 to 2013, over 10,000 men were interviewed on men's perpetration and experiences of violence, as well as men's other life experiences. The regional analysis found that overall nearly half of those men reported using physical and/or sexual violence against a female partner, ranging from 26 percent to 80 percent across the sites. Nearly a quarter of men interviewed reported perpetrating rape against a woman or girl, ranging from 10 percent to 62 percent across the sites.

## **COSTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF GBV**

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

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

**ICRW. (n.d). 'Estimating the Costs and Impacts of Intimate Partner Violence in Developing Countries A Methodological Resource Guide', International Centre for Research on Women, Washington DC**

<http://www.icrw.org/files/publications/Estimating-the-Costs-and-Impacts-of-Intimate-Partner-Violence-in-Developing-Countries-A-Methodological-Resource-Guide.pdf>

ICRW conducted a pilot study in 2006 to develop a methodology to estimate costs and impacts of intimate partner violence. The pilot was conducted in Bangladesh, Morocco and Uganda. This guide provides the details of how to perform such a study, as well as a literature review.

## **FEMALE INFANTICIDE**

Female infanticide is an extreme form of GBV, encompassing actions such as aborting female fetuses and killing girl babies. This practice is particularly common in India and China, where millions of girls and women are now 'missing' (ActionAid and IDRC, 2008). Parents in these countries are under pressure to produce male heirs to guard the family line. Families tend to see their girl children as burdens, particularly if dowry is required.

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

**ActionAid and International Development Research Centre (IDRC). (2008). 'Disappearing Daughters', ActionAid, London**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4281>

What is the impact of sex-selective abortion and discrimination against girls on sex ratios in India and what are the solutions? The prevalence of ultrasound technology, coupled with long-term problems of discrimination against girls, means that up to 35 million women are now 'missing' in India.

Further, the number of girls born and surviving compared to boys under the age of six in Northern India is far below normally expected ratios and continues to slide. The Indian government needs to address underlying problems that lead Indian families, regardless of their class or caste standing, to prefer sons to daughters.

**Mahalingam, R., & Wachman, M. (2012). Female Feticide and Infanticide: Implications for Reproductive Justice. In Joan C. Chrisler (Ed.) *Reproductive Justice: A Global Concern*, 251-268.**

<http://www.abc-clio.com/product.aspx?isbn=9780313393396>

This chapter examines son preference and neglect of girls through the lens of reproductive justice (women's rights to make decisions on their reproductive health). It reviews the literature on infanticide, with a focus on India. Then it reviews the implications for reproductive justice and finally looks at possible forms of combating sex-selection. The chapter argues that sex discrimination is a result of a confluence of cultural, ecological and social factors. Communities which idealise beliefs about masculinity and femininity adversely affect women's social mobility and wellbeing, and contribute to the sex trade, kidnapping and trafficking of women.

## **HARMFUL TRADITIONAL PRACTICES**

Harmful traditional practices (HTPs), such as female genital mutilation/cutting, early and forced marriage, polygamy and purdah, are practiced in many communities. These practices are primarily directed at girls and women. HTPs stem from deeply entrenched social, economic and political structures, and are tools used to control the lives of girls and women, limiting their independence and future opportunities. While associated with patriarchal norms, both women and men carry out HTPs. Women's participation in these practices must be viewed within the social convention which dictates that these practices must be followed to be part of the community. Women and girls themselves may therefore opt for, or put their children through, these practices despite knowing the risks. Not doing so would mean a lifetime of stigma and rejection by the community.

HTPs, such as FGM/C and early and forced marriage, have grave consequences for girls who are subjected to them. They are practices to control girls' and women's sexuality. Large age gaps within marriage further contribute to abusive power dynamics and interpersonal violence. The age difference between young women and their male partners is also a significant HIV risk factor, partly due to biological reasons (immature cervixes are thought to increase vulnerability to HIV) and to older partners being more likely to have a longer sexual history, increasing the risk of exposure to sexually transmitted diseases.

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

**Goonsekere, S. (2009). 'Harmful Traditional Practices in Three Countries of South Asia: Culture, Human Rights and Violence against Women', Gender and Development Discussion Paper, no. 21, United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok**

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

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

**Lee-Rife, S., Malhotra, A., Warner, A., & Glinski, A. M. (2012). What works to prevent child marriage: A review of the evidence. *Studies in family planning*, 43(4), 287-303.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1728-4465.2012.00327.x>

This peer-reviewed journal article presents an overview of the types of programmes which work to prevent child marriage. The authors review 23 programmes in low-income countries, providing an assessment of implementation, evaluation, how robust the evaluations are, and the main findings. The evidence suggests that programmes offering incentives and attempting to empower girls can be effective in preventing child marriage and can foster change relatively quickly. It is unclear whether these effects last in the long-term.

**Boyden, J., Pankhurst, A., & Tafere, Y. (2012). Child protection and harmful traditional practices: female early marriage and genital modification in Ethiopia. *Development in Practice*, 22(4), 510-522.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09614524.2012.672957>

This article draws on qualitative data from the longitudinal Young Lives study, from five sites in Ethiopia. It suggests that there has been progress on changing attitudes towards FGM and early marriage, but that they persist in many communities and at the behest of men, women and girls. These practices are socially accepted and provide girls with a safe transition to adulthood and protection from social risks. This suggests that policy-makers need to pay more attention to the socio-cultural and economic context, and to engage with the complexities of change.

**Svanemyr, J., Chandra-Mouli, V., Christiansen, C. S., & Mbizvo, M. (2012). Preventing Child Marriages: First International day of the Girl Child 'My Life, My Right, End Child Marriage'. *Reproductive health*, 9(1), 31.**

<http://www.reproductive-health-journal.com/content/9/1/31/>

What is the current situation of child marriage? This journal article provides a brief overview of child marriage and links to further articles and organisations working on this issue. The highest rates of child marriage are in West Africa, followed by South Asia. It has declined over time, but not to a significant extent. Adolescent pregnancy is particularly dangerous for both mothers and children. Child marriage is exacerbated by poverty.

**Godha, D., Hotchkiss, D. R., & Gage, A. J. (2013). Association Between Child Marriage and Reproductive Health Outcomes and Service Utilization: A Multi-country Study from South**

**Asia. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 52(5), 552-558.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2013.01.021>

How does child marriage affect fertility, fertility control, and maternal health care use outcomes? This peer-reviewed article uses data from the Demographic and Health Surveys for India, Bangladesh, Nepal, and Pakistan. The results suggest that child marriage is significantly associated with a history of rapid repeat childbirth, current modern contraceptive use, female sterilization, not using contraception before first childbirth, pregnancy termination, unintended pregnancy, and inadequate use of maternal health services, although the associations are not always consistent across countries. Furthermore, women who married in early adolescence or childhood show a higher propensity toward most of the negative outcomes, compared with women who married in middle adolescence. Child marriage leads to poor fertility control and low uptake of maternal health services.

**Berg, R. C., & Denison, E. (2012). Interventions to Reduce the Prevalence of Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting in African Countries. *Campbell Systematic Reviews*, 9, 155.**

<http://www.3ieimpact.org/en/evidence/systematic-reviews/details/73/>

This systematic review provides a comprehensive overview of the effectiveness of interventions to reduce FGM/C. It reviews eight studies. The studies provide only weak evidence on what works, as the studies' validity was questionable. The authors draw tentative conclusions that the main factors that supported FGM/C were tradition, religion, and reduction of women's sexual desire. The main factors that hindered FGM/C were medical complications and prevention of sexual satisfaction. All of the interventions were based on a theory that dissemination of information improves cognitions about FGM/C, but the interventions' success was contingent upon a range of contextual factors.

## **DOMESTIC VIOLENCE**

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

Legislation and services to address domestic violence have often been neglected by policymakers. Following obligations stemming from CEDAW, many countries now have laws in place which criminalise domestic violence against women and children. However, it is difficult to uphold the law in contexts where reporting rates are low. Further, in the face of a number of pressing development issues such as poverty and unemployment, domestic violence is often not considered a priority.

Many individuals may also not be aware that there are laws explicitly criminalising domestic violence. Civil society monitoring and awareness raising is thus crucial to ensure that domestic violence laws are upheld, legislation is made more effective and the government is held to account.

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

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4278>

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

**World Health Organization. (2013). *Global and Regional Estimates of Violence Against Women: Prevalence and Health Effects of Intimate Partner Violence and Non-partner Sexual Violence*. World Health Organization.**

<http://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/85239>

WHO takes a public health approach to violence against women. This report provides the first global systematic review on the global prevalence of intimate partner violence and sexual violence. 35 per cent of women worldwide have experienced either or both forms of violence, mostly IPV. This violence has significant repercussions on women's health, for example low birth weight babies, abortions, depression, and increased risk of HIV. The report recommends approaches which empower women and address structural gender inequalities, as well as services for victims of violence.

## SEXUAL VIOLENCE

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

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

**Dartnall, E., & Jewkes, R. (2013). Sexual Violence Against Women: The Scope of the Problem. *Best Practice & Research Clinical Obstetrics & Gynaecology*,27(1), 3-13.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bpobgyn.2012.08.002>

What is the state of the evidence on global sexual violence against women?. The focus is on prevalence estimates on rape and sexual abuse, from peacetime or post-conflict settings. The paper also outlines some of the challenges of researching sexual violence, particularly under-reporting due to stigma and shame. Rapes mostly occur within intimate relationships and often co-occur with other forms of violence. Sexual violence is prevalent across all societies and social strata. Measuring prevalence is important, but there are many difficulties with doing so, including under-reporting, different definitions, and cultural beliefs, making it difficult to devise appropriate responses.

For further discussion and resources on sexual violence in situations of violent conflict, see the chapter on '[Gender in Fragile and Conflict-Affected Environments](#)'.

## **HUMAN TRAFFICKING**

Trafficking in persons is defined by the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons as 'the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation'. Human trafficking is a gendered form of violence. It is estimated that 55 to 60 per cent of victims are women and a further 17 per cent girls, while men and boys make up 10 per cent of victims, although patterns differ between regions (UNODC, 2012). Most trafficking is for sexual exploitation and prostitution, where women and girls are the main victims. Other forms of trafficking include forced labour, factory work, begging and forced marriage. Perpetrators of trafficking include both men and women, with studies showing that women dominate or play an important role in trafficking networks in some regions (Eastern Europe, Central Asia, and Nigeria).

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

**UNODC. (2012). Global Report on Trafficking in Persons. United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), Vienna.**

[http://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/glotip/Trafficking\\_in\\_Persons\\_2012\\_web.pdf](http://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/glotip/Trafficking_in_Persons_2012_web.pdf)

This global report is updated every two years. This most recent report provides an overview of patterns and flows of trafficking in persons at global, regional and national levels, based on

trafficking cases detected between 2007 and 2010 (or more recently). It covers 132 countries. Although there are significant information gaps, the current state of evidence is relatively robust. In the last few years, the number of trafficked women has declined but the number of girls has risen. Of people prosecuted for trafficking, two-thirds are men, although women's participation in perpetrating trafficking is higher than for other crimes. Trafficking for forced labour is increasing rapidly. Most trafficking is intra-regional.

## **ADDRESSING GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE**

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

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

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

### **Sardenberg, C. (2011). 'What Makes Domestic Violence Legislation More Effective?' Pathways Policy Paper, Pathways of Women's Empowerment RPC, Brighton**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4290>

This paper draws on lessons from Brazil's Maria da Penha legislation, passed in 2006, and from Bangladesh and Ghana. It argues that women's organising is vital not only to get laws passed, but also in monitoring their implementation and holding governments to account. The effectiveness of domestic violence legislation depends on: monitoring policies by civil society organisations,

appropriate training for all service providers, cross-agency coordination, public support, and adequate budgets at all levels of government.

**BRIDGE. (no date). Review of Research on Collective Action and Engaging Men to Tackle Gender Based Violence.**

<http://www.eldis.org/vfile/upload/4/document/1304/Accountable%20grant%20GBV%20literature%20review%20final%20draft.pdf>

This paper collects and summarises programmes which 1) show how collective forms of agency have made a difference in eliciting positive social change in relation to gender-based violence; and 2) highlight ways in which engaging men and masculinities on gender based violence issues has made a difference. Successful programmes often intertwine both aspects. There are several programmes which are consistently cited as successful and which could act as models elsewhere.

**Weldon, S. L., & Htun, M. (2013). Feminist Mobilisation and Progressive Policy Change: Why Governments Take Action to Combat Violence Against Women. *Gender & Development*, 21(2), 231-247.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2013.802158>

This peer-reviewed article analyses policies on violence against women in 70 countries from 1975 to 2005, to examine what accounts for differences in policy. It discusses findings from a cross-national study of government responsiveness to violence against women. The analysis reveals that the most important and consistent factor driving policy change is feminist activism. This plays a more important role than left-wing parties, numbers of women legislators, or even national wealth.

**Ataya, O. and Usta, J., 2010, 'Women and Men: Hand in Hand against Violence: Strategies and Approaches to Working with Men and Boys for Ending Violence against Women', KAFA (Enough) Violence and Exploitation and Oxfam GB**

[http://www.engagingmen.net/files/resources/2011/Anthony\\_Keedi/women-and-men-hand-in-hand-against-violence-251110-en.pdf](http://www.engagingmen.net/files/resources/2011/Anthony_Keedi/women-and-men-hand-in-hand-against-violence-251110-en.pdf)

This is a manual for engaging men and boys on issues of GBV in the Arab countries. It explores the main concepts and approaches, maintaining cultural sensitivity. It can be used as a guide for facilitators in providing training on VAW and engaging men in VAW prevention, and may be used as a helpful tool that provides activities and handouts needed to implement orientation and awareness-raising sessions on specific topics related to VAW.

**Heise, L.L. (2011). What Works to Prevent Partner Violence? An Evidence Overview. STRIVE Research Consortium.**

<http://strive.lshtm.ac.uk/resources/what-works-prevent-partner-violence-evidence-overview>

The review focuses on prevention programmes rather than responses or services, and on research-based evaluations rather than insights from practice. Individual chapters cover:

- changing gender norms
- childhood exposure to violence
- excessive alcohol use
- women's economic empowerment
- law and justice system reform

Heise summarises the evidence that links each factor with the risk of partner violence as well as the effectiveness of prevention programmes.

***Monitoring and evaluation***

**Bloom, S. (2008). 'Violence Against Women and Girls: A Compendium of Monitoring and Evaluation Indicators', USAID, Washington DC**

<http://www.cpc.unc.edu/measure/tools/gender/violence-against-women-and-girls-compendium-of-indicators>

**Gage, A. J. and Dunn, M. (2010). 'Monitoring and Evaluating Gender-Based Violence Prevention and Mitigation Programs', A Facilitator's Training Guide, MEASURE Evaluation, USAID, IGWG**

[http://www.igwg.org/igwg\\_media/gbv-monitor-eval/gbv-me-facilitators-guide.pdf](http://www.igwg.org/igwg_media/gbv-monitor-eval/gbv-me-facilitators-guide.pdf)

***Guidance and tools***

**United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (2010). 'Handbook for Legislation on Violence against Women', United Nations, New York**

<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/vaw/handbook/Handbook%20for%20legislation%20on%20violence%20against%20women.pdf>

**IASC. (2005). 'Guidelines for Gender-based Violence Interventions in Humanitarian Settings Focusing on Prevention of and Response to Sexual Violence in Emergencies', Inter-Agency Standing Committee, Geneva**

[http://www.peacewomen.org/assets/file/Resources/UN/asc\\_genderviolencehumanitarian\\_0905.pdf](http://www.peacewomen.org/assets/file/Resources/UN/asc_genderviolencehumanitarian_0905.pdf)

***Further resources***

- Endvawnow: Virtual Knowledge Centre to End Violence against Women and Girls
- National Online Resource Center on Violence against Women
- Sexual Violence Research Initiative
- Partners 4 Prevention
- Health and Human Rights Info
- Gender-based violence on Eldis

# GENDER AND ECONOMIC RIGHTS

## Contents:

- Introduction
- Property rights and access to resources
- Women and agriculture
- Labour market participation
- Gender and the care economy
- Women's entrepreneurship
- The gendered impact of financial and food crises
- Gender and migration

## INTRODUCTION

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

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

Women also contribute to economies through their work in caring for families. However, this is often not acknowledged or reflected in national economies, despite lobbying by women's organisations.

Both push and pull factors have contributed to women increasingly taking up employment. In the Middle East for example, women's employment has been actively encouraged by governments, in order to reduce reliance on international labour migrants. Women's employment has also contributed to job creation, especially in the domestic sphere, including live-in domestic workers, nannies, and cleaners. The increased availability of (usually female) domestic workers has further freed up other women to take up employment outside the household, although in some cases this has led to migration away from their families.

**Kabeer, N., Mahmud, S. and Tasneem, S. (2011). 'Does Paid Work Provide a Pathway to Women's Empowerment? Empirical Findings from Bangladesh', Working Paper 375, IDS, Brighton**

<https://www.ids.ac.uk/idspublication/does-paid-work-provide-a-pathway-to-women-s-empowerment-empirical-findings-from-bangladesh>

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

**DAC Network on Gender Equality. (2011). 'Women's Economic Empowerment: Issues Paper', OECD Publishing, Paris**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4224>

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

**Chaaban, J. and Cunningham, W. (2011). 'Measuring the Economic Gain of Investing in Girls: The Girl Effect Dividend', Policy Research Working Paper 5753, World Bank**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4289>

This paper estimates the costs incurred by societies as a result of the social exclusion of adolescent girls. It explores the potential increases in national income that could be gained by addressing early school dropout, teenage pregnancy and joblessness. It finds that marginal investments in girls can have a substantial impact on GDP growth.

**GrOW. (2013). Growth and Economic Opportunities for Women. Literature Review to inform the DFID-IDRC-Hewlett Foundation Research Program on Women's Economic Empowerment, Gender Equality, and Growth in Low-Income Countries.**

<http://www.idrc.ca/EN/Documents/GrOW-LiteratureReviewEN.pdf>

This is a background paper for a new research programme on women's economic empowerment. It is a comprehensive literature review on the state of the field. Section 1 briefly discusses the global evidence on existing gender disparities in employment, wages, business opportunities, and the care economy. Sections 2, 3 and 4 describe the existing knowledge in the programme's central themes –

constraints to women's economic empowerment, and the links between economic empowerment and growth – followed by the research gaps and questions.

## **PROPERTY RIGHTS AND ACCESS TO RESOURCES**

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

Various programmes to increase access to financial services have been widely used to offer opportunities to poor women and men. While results are mixed in terms of success, evaluations of gendered targeting of micro-financial services have shown that male beneficiaries contribute less to household well-being and food security (Mayoux, and Hartl, 2009). While microcredit schemes have the potential to contribute to women's small scale income generating activities and increased confidence, they can also contribute to indebtedness and further vulnerability. They also tend to only reach the middle poor, not the very poorest.

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

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

**Mayoux, L., and Hartl, M. (2009). 'Gender and Rural Microfinance: Reaching and Empowering Women: A Guide for Practitioners', International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), Rome**  
[http://www.ifad.org/gender/pub/gender\\_finance.pdf](http://www.ifad.org/gender/pub/gender_finance.pdf)

This toolkit describes how to design financial products which will have some impact on women's empowerment and gender equality. It focuses on rural areas and poverty reduction, targeting women as an emerging market, and as a means to reduce poverty and achieve the MDGs. The guide is intended as an overview of gender issues for rural finance practitioners.

**Monson, R. (2010). 'Negotiating Land Tenure: Women, Men and the Transformation of Land Tenure in Solomon Islands', International Development Law Organization, Rome**

<http://www.idlo.org/Publications/WP2Monson.pdf>

This article provides a case study on women's access to property and land rights. It specifically explores the interaction between state and customary legal systems in one rural and one peri-urban site. Land ownership is characterised by a complex interaction of both systems, and both discriminate against women.

**Vernooy, R (ed). (2006). 'Social and Gender Analysis in Natural Resource Management: Learning Studies and Lessons from Asia', International Development Research Centre, Ottawa.**

<http://www.idrc.ca/EN/Resources/Publications/Pages/IDRCBookDetails.aspx?PublicationID=329>

This edited book contains articles on different aspects of social and gender analysis in South and South-East Asia. There are three synthesis chapters and six case studies. The case studies show the importance of local history and context.

**Hallward-Driemeier, M. and Hasan, T. (2012). *Empowering Women: Legal Rights and Economic Opportunities in Africa*. Africa development forum series. Washington DC: Agence Française de Développement and the World Bank**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=5293>

This World Bank publication is the first study to look systematically across Sub-Saharan Africa to examine the impacts of property rights on women's economic empowerment. The book examines family, inheritance, and land laws. It surveys constitutions and statutes in all 47 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa to document where gender gaps in these laws impinge on women's legal capacity, property rights, or both. The book also looks at some labour law issues, such as restrictions on the types of industries or hours of work in which women may engage and provisions for equal pay for work of equal value.

**Women's World Banking website** has a range of publications and research on gender and microfinance: <http://www.swwb.org/expertise/publications>

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

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

potential for educating and empowering adolescent girls and the contribution that they make to agriculture and related domestic work (Bertini, 2011).

**Bertini, C. (2011). 'Girls Grow: A Vital Force in Rural Economies', The Chicago Council on Global Affairs: Chicago**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4274>

This report finds that women and girls living in rural areas of the developing world play a vital yet unrecognised role as agricultural producers and hold the potential to be agents of food and nutritional security and economic growth. It argues for a special focus on rural adolescent girls, integrated into a well-supported rural economic development strategy.

**World Bank. (2009). 'Gender in Agriculture Source Book' World Bank/FAO/IFAD, Washington**

<http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTGENAGRLIVSOUBOOK/Resources/CompleteBook.pdf>

This book presents analyses of issues that affect agriculture's role as a source of economic development, rural livelihoods, and environmental services, with practical application. It contains 14 comprehensive modules on various aspects of gender in agriculture. The book describes recent experiences of investing in agriculture for poverty reduction with a gender lens, and reviews women's empowerment and gender equality.

**Nagel Sørensen, P. (2013). Lessons Learned Evaluation of Norway's Bilateral Agricultural Support to Food Security – Why Women Farmers are Left out of Programs. Norad Report 13/2013. Norad.**

<http://www.norad.no/en/tools-and-publications/publications/norad-reports/publication?key=407862>

This internal evaluation draws out the gender impacts and outcomes of Norway's Bilateral Agricultural Support to Food Security. It reviews 19 country-level programmes. It recommends that staff have more gender training, and that gender analyses are conducted as standard in agricultural programmes. Women's rights and access should be promoted in programmes.

**The Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI)**

<http://www.ophi.org.uk/policy/national-policy/the-womens-empowerment-in-agriculture-index/>

The Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI) measures the empowerment, agency, and inclusion of women in the agricultural sector. The first subindex assesses empowerment of women in five domains: (1) decisions about agricultural production, (2) access to and decision-making power about productive resources, (3) control of use of income, (4) leadership in the community, and (5) time allocation. The second subindex measures the percentage of women whose achievements are at least as high as men in their households and, for women lacking parity, the relative empowerment gap with respect to the male in their household.

## **LABOUR MARKET PARTICIPATION**

Men's higher participation in the formal labour market, compared with that of women, can be explained through a combination of: i) differences in time use between men and women; ii) gendered differences in access to productive inputs; iii) different levels of education; (iv) gender stereotyping in vocational and skills training and mismatches with labour market demand; and v)

gendered outcomes of institutional and market failures. Domestic responsibilities also act as a barrier to women's equal participation in the labour force.

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

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

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

**World Bank. (2011). 'Gender Differences in Employment and Why They Matter', Chapter 5 in World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development, World Bank, Washington DC**  
<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4279>

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

**World Bank. (2013). Gender at Work: A Companion to the World Development Report on Jobs. World Bank Group.**

[http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/GenderAtWork\\_web.pdf](http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/GenderAtWork_web.pdf)

This report from the World Bank's Gender and Development group is a companion to the WDR 2013 on jobs. Globally, fewer than half of women have jobs, compared to four-fifths of men. The paper looks at constraints and promising practices. It recommends investing more in women's capabilities as well as removing structural barriers such as discriminatory laws, which are still very common. The

report notes that since women face multiple constraints to jobs, starting early and extending throughout their lives, progressive, broad-based, and coordinated policy action is needed to close gender gaps. Common constraints include lack of mobility, time, and skills; exposure to violence; and the absence of basic legal rights.

**Jütting, J. and Morrisson, C. (2009). 'Women, Bad Jobs, Rural Areas: What Can "SIGI" Tell Us?', Paper presented at the FAO-IFAD-ILO Workshop on Gaps, trends and current research in gender dimensions of agricultural and rural employment: differentiated pathways out of poverty Rome, 31 March-2 April**

[http://www.fao-ilo.org/fileadmin/user\\_upload/fao\\_ilo/pdf/Papers/25\\_March/Jutting\\_and\\_Morrisson\\_final.pdf](http://www.fao-ilo.org/fileadmin/user_upload/fao_ilo/pdf/Papers/25_March/Jutting_and_Morrisson_final.pdf)

This conference paper examines the increase in new jobs in rural areas of the world, suggesting that many of them are 'bad' jobs: insecure, low-paying, with no access to formal social security and limited social mobility. A large number of these jobs go to women. The paper uses the SIGI to show there is a causal relation between high gender discrimination and traditional agricultural sector.

**Lim, L. L. (2011). 'Women and Labour Markets in Asia: Rebalancing for Gender Equality', International Labour Organisation and Asian Development Bank**

<http://www.adb.org/publications/women-and-labour-markets-asia-rebalancing-gender-equality>  
What lessons can be drawn from the from the 1997 Asian financial crisis? This paper puts forward suggestions for how to 'build back better' in terms of gender equality for economic growth. It provides an overview and trend analysis of available information on where and how women work, and under what conditions, before, during and after the 2008 crisis as well as in the recovery. It offers evidence-based policy recommendations on strategies to advance gender equality through addressing persistent gender labour market gaps. Its key messages are on the importance of directing policy towards the informal economy in the context of inclusive growth, underpinned by sufficient decent work opportunities.

**Corner, L. (2011). 'Women and the Formal Economy'. A think piece commissioned by AusAID's Office of Development Effectiveness**

[http://www.ode.dfat.gov.au/current\\_work/documents/women-formal-economy-lorraine-corner.doc](http://www.ode.dfat.gov.au/current_work/documents/women-formal-economy-lorraine-corner.doc)

Why should Australia invest in the formal economy for gender equality?. This policy brief encourages improving women's status in the formal economy as this may help women transition from informal work, and may have positive spillover effects. Formal work is possibly the most important route out of poverty and for women's empowerment.

**Kabeer, N. (2012). Women's Economic Empowerment and Inclusive Growth: Labour Markets and Enterprise Development. *International Development Research Centre.***

<http://www.soas.ac.uk/cdpr/publications/papers/file80432.pdf>

This review was conducted to inform a global new research initiative for DFID and IDRC. It concludes that there is strong evidence that gender equality can promote economic growth. Women's access to employment and education opportunities reduces the likelihood of household poverty, and resources in women's hands have a range of positive outcomes for human capital and capabilities within the household. Formal regular waged work has the greatest transformative potential for

women, but this potential has remained limited because of the lack of decent jobs, and because of segmentation of labour markets. The paper also suggests that economic growth does not necessarily contribute to gender equality.

**Simmons-Benton, A., Heinzelman, J., & Sackett, J. (2012). Economic Empowerment Strategies for Afghan Women. USAID.**

[http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf\\_docs/pnady804.pdf](http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnady804.pdf)

This report provides a case study of Kabul women's opportunities for and constraints on participation in the economy. Afghan women face a number of serious challenges, including: mobility restrictions; inability to access resources; lack of support infrastructure; access to finance; and lack of family and societal support. The report recommends empowering both women and their environment by demonstrating successes; investing in education; creating women's groups; supporting access to media and information.

## **GENDER AND THE CARE ECONOMY**

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

Policies need to acknowledge and address the care economy and provide support to care providers (whether paid or unpaid) to ensure that they have access to social rights and economic security. Given the predominance of women in this sector, they could help to improve gender equality and women's economic and social security. In order to develop such policies, it is necessary to have an empirical foundation that can capture the extent of care work. Time use surveys, used increasingly in developing countries, can contribute to the gathering of such data. Recent research (Chopra, Kelbert, & Iyer, 2013) shows that unpaid care is largely invisible in social policy.

**UNRISD. (2010). 'Why Care Matters for Social Development', Research and Policy Brief 9, United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD), Geneva**

[http://www.wide-network.ch/pdf/Publi-Hinweise/UNRISD\\_RPB9\\_2010.pdf](http://www.wide-network.ch/pdf/Publi-Hinweise/UNRISD_RPB9_2010.pdf)

This brief summarises findings from the UNRISD project Political and Social Economy of Care. The project included six in-depth country studies from three regions: South Africa and Tanzania; Argentina and Nicaragua; and India and the Republic of Korea. Teams in each country researched four related issues: (i) economic, social and demographic change over the past 20 to 30 years; (ii) data from time use surveys; (iii) social and care policies and institutions; and (iv) selected groups of care workers (their wages, working conditions, and how they meet their own care needs and the

care needs of their dependents). Japan and Switzerland were also studied to provide comparisons of care systems in two industrialized economies.

**Razavi, S. (2007). 'The Political and Social Economy of Care in a Development Context: Conceptual Issues, Research Questions and Policy Options', Gender and Development Programme Paper, no. 3, United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD), Geneva**

[http://www.unrisd.org/80256B3C005BCCF9/\(httpAuxPages\)/2DBE6A93350A7783C12573240036D5A0/\\$file/Razavi-paper.pdf](http://www.unrisd.org/80256B3C005BCCF9/(httpAuxPages)/2DBE6A93350A7783C12573240036D5A0/$file/Razavi-paper.pdf)

Care is critical to wellbeing and to economic development. This paper traces the evolution of ideas in the area of gender and care, and analyses some of the main strands of thinking, including the very varied policies. It analyses the contribution of feminist economics, then gender analyses of welfare regimes. It highlights that policies should not reinforce care as 'women's work'. The paper finally asks about whether social policy can be redesigned to better support care needs.

**UNGA. (2013). Report of the Special Rapporteur on Extreme Poverty and Human rights. UN Doc A/68/293.**

[http://www.un.org/ga/search/view\\_doc.asp?symbol=A%2F68%2F293&Submit=Search&Lang=E](http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A%2F68%2F293&Submit=Search&Lang=E)

This UN report, presented under the human rights strand of work, positions unpaid care work as a major human rights issue. The Special Rapporteur argues that heavy and unequal care responsibilities are a major barrier to gender equality and to women's equal enjoyment of human rights. Therefore, the failure of states to adequately provide, fund, support and regulate care contradicts their human rights obligations, by creating and exacerbating inequalities and threatening women's rights enjoyment. The report analyses the relationship between unpaid care and poverty, inequality and women's human rights; clarifies the human rights obligations of states with regard to unpaid care; and finally provides recommendations to states on how to recognize, value, reduce and redistribute unpaid care work. Ultimately, it argues that state policies should position care as a social and collective responsibility, in particular through improving women's access to public services, care services and infrastructure.

**Chopra, D., Kelbert, A., & Iyer, P. (2013). A Feminist Political Economy Analysis of Public Policies Related to Care: A Thematic Review.**

<http://www.ids.ac.uk/publication/a-feminist-political-economy-analysis-of-public-policies-related-to-care-a-thematic-review>

How far is evidence on unpaid care work reflected in public policies? This paper reviews social protection and early childhood development policies in all LMICs for the last 20 years. The main findings are that unpaid care is largely invisible in public policy – only 25 out of 107 social protection policies and 41 out of 270 ECD policies expressed an intent to address unpaid care concerns, and among those that did recognise care, the main focus was on redistributing care responsibilities from the family to the state. This is based on recognition that women need to work outside the home in paid jobs. There are no social protection policies that aim to redistribute unpaid care work from women to men, and only two consider either providing support or reducing the drudgery of care. Among the ECD policies, support for carers in terms of better parenting is widespread, often acknowledging men's role as fathers.

**Barker, G., Greene, M., Nascimento, M., Segundo, M., Ricardo, C., Taylor, A., Aguayo, F., Sadler, M., Das, A., Singh, S., Figueroa, J. G., Franzoni, J., Flores, N., Jewkes R., Morrell, R. and Kato, J.**

**(2012). Men Who Care: A Multi-Country Qualitative Study of Men in Non Traditional Caregiving Roles. Washington, D.C.: International Center for Research on Women (ICRW) and Rio de Janeiro: Instituto Promundo.**

<http://www.promundo.org.br/en/wp-content/uploads/2012/06/Men-Who-Care.pdf>

The 'Men Who Care' study is a five-country qualitative study in Brazil, Chile, India, Mexico and South Africa. It explores issues of care work by listening to men who are involved in non-traditional forms of care work in the family and professional realms. The main findings are:

- In most cases care work seemed to be thrust upon men by life circumstances rather than an individual choice.
- Early childhood experiences worked in multiple and sometimes contrary directions in influencing men's caregiving practices.
- Men's relationships with partners (particularly the mothers of their children) greatly affected to what extent men participated in care work in the household.
- Many men who carried out care work sought to give it a traditional masculine meaning or make it fit within their self-image as traditional or hegemonic men.
- Men's satisfaction with care work was varied; some men described great satisfaction derived from care work while others said they felt incomplete, depressed or undervalued.

## **WOMEN'S ENTREPRENEURSHIP**

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

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

**Tambunan, T. (2009). 'Women Entrepreneurship in Asian Developing Countries: Their Development and Main Constraints' in Journal of Development and Agricultural Economics Vol. 1(2), pp 027-040.**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4257>

To what extent are women becoming entrepreneurs in Asian developing countries? This paper focuses on women entrepreneurs in small and medium enterprises (SMEs). It finds that the

representation of women entrepreneurs is still relatively low, and most women entrepreneurs in SMEs are 'forced entrepreneurs' seeking better family incomes.

**ILO. (2011). 'Women's Entrepreneurship Development in Vietnam: Learning from Good Practices' ILO Project on Women's Entrepreneurship Development and Gender Equality (WEDGE), International Labour Organisation**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4280>

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

**Simavi, S., Manuel, C. and Blackden, M. (2010). 'Gender Dimensions of Investment Climate Reform: A Guide for Policy Makers and Practitioners', World Bank, Washington DC**

<http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/10/43/45449146.pdf>

Why is it important to include women in investment climate reform? This report provides thinking to solve common issues women entrepreneurs face in the investment climate area. It presents actionable, practical, replicable, and scalable tools. Specifically, the guide seeks to enable development practitioners and policy makers who are not gender specialists to (i) diagnose gender issues in an investment climate reform area, (ii) design practical solutions and recommendations to address gender constraints, and (iii) include effective monitoring and evaluation tools to oversee the implementation of those recommendations.

## **THE GENDERED IMPACTS OF FINANCIAL AND FOOD CRISES**

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

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

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

**Holmes, R., Jones, N. and Marsden, H. (2009). 'Gender Vulnerabilities, Food Price Shocks and Social Protection Responses', ODI Background Note, Overseas Development Institute, London**  
<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4270>

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

**Horn, Z. E. (2009). 'No Cushion to Fall Back On – The Global Economic Crisis and Informal Workers', Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing (WIEGO)**

[http://www.inclusivecities.org/pdfs/GEC\\_Study.pdf](http://www.inclusivecities.org/pdfs/GEC_Study.pdf)

What was the impact of the financial crisis on urban informal workers, many of whom are women? This paper provides information on home-based workers, street vendors, and waste pickers. These are often the first to be laid off and face increased competition as more people enter the informal economy. These three groups experienced a sharp drop in demand for their services. They have no economic cushion to fall back on and can be forced into risky jobs and/or reduce their consumption.

**Kumar, N., & Quisumbing, A. R. (2013). Gendered Impacts of the 2007–2008 Food Price Crisis: Evidence Using Panel Data from Rural Ethiopia. *Food Policy*, 38, 11-22.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodpol.2012.10.002>

This peer-reviewed journal article quantitatively examines the impact of the food price crisis on female-headed households in Ethiopia. It finds that FHH are more vulnerable to food price changes and are more likely to have experienced a food price shock in 2007–2008. Because female-headed households are also resource poor and have a larger food gap compared with male-headed households, they cope by cutting back on the number of meals they provide their households during good months and eating less preferred foods in general.

## **GENDER AND MIGRATION**

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

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

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

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

**Jolly, S. with Reeves, H. (2005). 'Gender and Migration: Overview Report', BRIDGE, IDS, Brighton.**  
<http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/reports/CEP-Mig-OR.pdf>

How does gender affect migration? This comprehensive report analyses gender and migration, both internal and international, forced and voluntary migration. Gender roles, relations and inequalities affect who migrates and why, how the decision is made, the impacts on migrants themselves, on sending areas and on receiving areas. Migration can either improve or reduce gender equality. Migration is on the margins of policy and generally considered an issue for the state, not for other development actors. This report recommends a shift to a gendered human rights approach.

**Bhadra, C. (2007). 'International Labour Migration of Nepalese Women: The Impact of their Remittances on Poverty Reduction', Working paper series, no. 44, Asia-Pacific Research and Training Network on Trade**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4294>

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

**Benería, L., Diana Deere, C., & Kabeer, N. (2012). Gender and International Migration: Globalization, Development, and Governance. *Feminist Economics*, 18(2), 1-33.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13545701.2012.688998>

This peer-reviewed academic article examines the connections between gender and international migration around three themes: globalization, national economic development, and governance. First, it shows how gender is central to understanding migration: gender analysis makes visible the increasing commodification of care work on a global scale and highlights how the organization of families is changing. Second, the article shows how migration contributes to or hinders economic development, especially through women's remittances. Finally, it shows that female migrants are

more likely than men to be legally and socially unprotected in the destination country, and how gender affects citizenship and governance.

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

### ***Further resources***

**McAslan Fraser, E. (2012). ‘Economic Empowerment and Violence against Women and Girls (VAWG)’ GSDRC Helpdesk Research Report, Governance and Social Development Resource Centre, Birmingham**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/docs/open/HDQ790.pdf>

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

- [Gender and empowerment on Eldis](#)
- [Gender, work and employment on Eldis](#)
- [Donor Committee for Enterprise Development](#)
- [ILO resources on women’s entrepreneurship development](#)
- [Indicators on laws and regulations affecting women's prospects as entrepreneurs and employees, the World Bank](#)
- [The Adolescent Girls Initiative, the World Bank](#)

# **GENDER AND GOVERNANCE**

Contents:

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

## **INTRODUCTION**

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

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

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

## **WOMEN'S FORMAL PARTICIPATION AND REPRESENTATION**

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

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

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

**Clots-Figueras, I. (2007). 'Are Female Leaders Good for Education? Evidence from India' Working Paper 07-73, Universidad Carlos III de Madrid**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4264>

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

**Beaman, L. et al. (2009). 'Powerful Women: Does Exposure Reduce Bias', *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, vol. 124, no. 4, pp. 1497-1540**

<http://qje.oxfordjournals.org/content/124/4/1497.short>

This paper uses data from Indian village councils to show that ten years of quotas for women leaders make it more likely for women to stand for and win council positions. They show that prior exposure to a female leader leads to changes in voter attitudes and improves perceptions of female leader effectiveness. The second generations of women standing for election are much more liked by voters and experience much less bias.

**Waring, M. (2011). 'Women in Politics and Aid Effectiveness: an Aid to Evaluation of MDG3', A think piece commissioned by AusAID's Office of Development Effectiveness**

[http://www.ode.dfat.gov.au/current\\_work/documents/women-politics-aid-effectiveness-marilyn-waring.pdf](http://www.ode.dfat.gov.au/current_work/documents/women-politics-aid-effectiveness-marilyn-waring.pdf)

This paper reviews MDG 3 in the context of AusAID and the Asia-Pacific region. The paper discusses the range of concepts in MDG 3 commentary, empowerment, leadership and governance, and the challenges of effectiveness reporting. Country case studies demonstrate that political representation is not an adequate measure to reflect women's empowerment and gender equality. Finally, suggestions are made which encourage more flexible approaches to capture successful interventions across a range of activities which are better related to the diversity of women's roles in leadership, empowerment and governance.

**Wang, V. (2013). Women Changing Policy Outcomes: Learning from Pro-women Legislation in the Ugandan Parliament. In *Women's Studies International Forum* (Vol. 41, pp. 113-121). Pergamon.**  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.wsif.2013.05.008>

What makes a difference to pro-women policy outcomes? This peer-reviewed journal article examines Uganda, which has recently increased the number of female legislators. While the increased number of women in Parliament has contributed to pro-women policies, other important factors include the role of the women's caucus in Parliament, the support of male legislators, and relationships between female legislators and actors in civil society and the aid community. This article shows that increasing the number of women in parliament is not enough to create pro-women policies, but that there also needs to be an enabling environment.

### ***Barriers to women's election***

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

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

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

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

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

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4301>

The Pacific Forum Island Countries have formally recognised that the participation of women in political decision-making needs to be enhanced. However, the political advancement of women remains constrained by both institutional and attitudinal factors. Addressing these problems requires regional and national approaches.

**Inter Parliamentary Union (IPU). (2008). 'Equality in Politics: A Survey of Women and Men in Parliaments', Reports and Documents No. 24, IPU, Geneva.**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4297>

This paper presents the results of a survey (2006-2008) on how parliamentarians are working to attain gender equality in national politics. Respondents identified four factors as most influential in creating a more gender-sensitive parliament: 1) the support of the ruling party in parliament; 2) the work of parliamentary committees; 3) the work of cross-party networks of women; and 4) the rules that govern the functioning of parliament.

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

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

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

**Ballington, J. et al. (2011). 'Empowering Women for Stronger Political Parties: A Good Practices Guide to Promote Women's Political Participation', United Nations Development Programme and National Democratic Institute**

[http://www.ndi.org/files/Empowering-Women-PolitParties-ENG\\_0.pdf](http://www.ndi.org/files/Empowering-Women-PolitParties-ENG_0.pdf)

This UNDP and NDI guide contains guidelines on increasing women's political empowerment, organised by electoral period, and aimed at members of political parties, civil society organisations and gender equality activists. It draws on 20 case studies of party activities and provides concise and targeted options for political party reform. The most effective strategies to increase women's participation in political parties combine reforms to political institutions with targeted support to women party activists within and outside party structures, female candidates and elected officials.

**Tadros, M. (2011). 'Women Engaging Politically: Beyond Magic Bullets and Motorways', Pathways Policy Paper, Pathways of Women's Empowerment RPC, Brighton**

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

This paper draws on over eight country case studies to analyse the possibilities and limitations of mainstream approaches, such as quotas, to strengthening women's access to political power. It finds that any quota law needs to be complemented by other interventions to ensure that it has a positive social transformative impact. Further, concepts of and support for women's political empowerment

need to be based more on women's ongoing networks of support and influence and less on pre-election moments or international 'blueprints'.

**Krook, M. L. and Norris, P. (2014), Beyond Quotas: Strategies to Promote Gender Equality in Elected Office. *Political Studies*, 62: 2–20.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1467-9248.12116>

Apart from quotas, what works for increasing gender equality in politics? Evidence from around the world suggests that the main barriers to women's increased election are political, rather than social, economic or cultural. There is a vast range of strategies used to increase gender equality, and the diversity of these measures points to a wide array of creative solutions, engaging a variety of actors. The article presents a range of policy solutions and examples of interventions.

## **LEADERSHIP AND PARTICIPATION**

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

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

Women's leadership positions tend to be confined to organisations set up by and for women. However, as recent DLP research on women's coalitions in Jordan, Egypt and South Africa has shown, existing or prior networks can facilitate the emergence of coalitions around new issues, for or against change (Van Notten, 2010).

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

**UNIFEM. (2008). 'Chapter 1: Who Answers to Women?', in Progress of the World's Women 2008/9: Who Answers to Women? Gender and Accountability', UNIFEM, New York**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3249>

How can accountability systems become more gender-responsive? This introductory chapter examines how women, including the most excluded women, are strengthening their capacity to identify accountability gaps and call for redress. The MDGs and other international commitments to

women will only be met if gender-responsive accountability systems are put in place both nationally and internationally.

**Hoare, J. and Gell, F. (eds). (2009). 'Women's Leadership and Participation: Case studies on learning for action', Oxfam, Rugby**

<http://policy-practice.oxfam.org.uk/publications/womens-leadership-and-participation-case-studies-on-learning-for-action-115530>

This book brings together lessons and experience in building up women's involvement from Oxfam GB and its partners. The book illustrates methodological approaches and learning points, covering a range of issues from women's participation in national elections to female decision-making in community livelihood initiatives. It is a process of long-term change.

**Van Notten, I. (2010). 'Leadership, Integrity and Women's Coalitions', Mid-term workshop, Cape Town 25-26 May 2010. Developmental Leadership Program, Background Paper Number 7.**

<http://publications.dlprog.org/Integrity,%20Leadership%20and%20Womens%20Coalitions.pdf>

This paper summarises lessons from a DLP workshop in Cape Town. It presents emerging findings on which factors influence the emergence of women's coalitions and leadership.

### ***Civil society participation***

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

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

**Howell, J. (2007). 'Gender and Civil Society: Time for Cross-Border Dialogue' in Social Politics: International Studies in Gender, State and Society, vol. 14, no. 4, pp. 415-436.**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4276>

This article suggests a framework for thinking about the gendered nature of civil society. The framework involves four sites of power – family, civil society, state, and market – that are infused and interconnected by a circuit of gender relations. This circuit comprises culturally specific roles, identities, norms and values that delineate men and women as socially distinct beings.

Conceptualising gender relations as a circuit frees it from any essentially given location. The article argues that civil society and feminist theorists should engage in cross-border dialogue.

**Agarwal, B., 2009, 'Does Women's Proportional Strength Affect their Participation? Governing Local Forests in South Asia' in World Development vol. 38, no. 1, pp. 98–112.**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4273>

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

**Strolovitch, D.Z., & Townsend-Bell, E. (2013). Sex, Gender and Civil Society. In Waylen, G., Celis, K., Kantola, J., & Weldon, L. (Eds.). *The Oxford Handbook of Gender and Politics*. Oxford University Press.**

<http://ukcatalogue.oup.com/product/9780199751457.do>

How does gender structure civil society and how does civil society empower and disempower women? This book chapter provides broad introductions to both concepts. It examines how the relationship varies across contexts, with a particular focus on Latin America and the USA. It emphasises the burden of community volunteerism placed on women, and the underlying gendered assumptions of civil society.

**Horn, J. (2013). Gender and Social Movements: Overview report. BRIDGE Cutting Edge Pack. Brighton: IDS.**

<http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/vfile/upload/4/document/1401/FULL%20REPORT.pdf>

Social movements – led by feminist, women's and gender justice activists and movements – have been pivotal in demanding, making and sustaining changes to gendered injustice. This report makes the case for engaging with questions of women's rights and transforming gender power relations across social movements committed to progressive visions of society. It draws on effective and promising strategies and reflects on challenges from existing movement practice. It incorporates both social movement theory and experience and analysis from social justice activists from across the world.

### ***Women's groups/organisations***

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

**Nazneen, S. and Sultan, M. (2010). 'Reciprocity, Distancing, and Opportunistic Overtures: Women's Organisations Negotiating Legitimacy and Space in Bangladesh', *IDS Bulletin*, vol. 41, no. 2, pp. 70 – 78**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4269>

This article examines how three Bangladeshi women's organisations mobilised individuals and negotiated with political parties, state bureaucracy and civil society allies to achieve gender justice

goals. Findings highlight the importance of targeted engagement of supporters and allies (so as to mobilise individuals beyond the organisations' own memberships), and of framing issues in a non-contentious way. The use of personal networks can open up new forums for advocacy, but relying on these networks is a risk to sustainability. Ineffective engagement with political parties can reduce organisations' influence. Strategies for empowering women need to take account of the role played by such organisations and to support them more actively.

**Mukhopadhyay, M. And Eyben, R. et al. (2011). 'Rights and Resources: The Effects of External Financing on Organising for Women's Rights' Royal Tropical Institute and Pathways of Women's Empowerment**

[http://www.pathwaysofempowerment.org/archive\\_resources/rights-and-resources-the-effects-of-financing-on-organising-for-women-s-rights](http://www.pathwaysofempowerment.org/archive_resources/rights-and-resources-the-effects-of-financing-on-organising-for-women-s-rights)

Under which conditions does external financing to women's rights organisations have a positive impact on women's empowerment? Under which conditions can women's organising be successful without such support? Six case studies from Ghana and five from Bangladesh provide examples. The report finds that personal drive and leadership are important for success. Donors' interest in funding WROs resulted in formalising and expanding organisations, but has also perhaps co-opted the autonomy of WROs. WROs' social legitimacy is an important part of their identity and contributes to success.

## **GENDER-RESPONSIVE BUDGETING**

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

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

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

**Elson, D. (2006). 'Budgeting for Women's Rights: Monitoring Government Budgets for Compliance with CEDAW', United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), New York**

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

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

**Holvoet, N. (2006). 'Gender Budgeting: Its Usefulness in Programme-based Approaches to Aid', EC Gender Help Desk, European Commission, Brussels**

[http://www.gender-budgets.org/index.php?option=com\\_joomdoc&task=document.download&path=suggested-readings/gender-budgeting-its-usefulness-in-programme-based-approaches-to-aid&Itemid=587](http://www.gender-budgets.org/index.php?option=com_joomdoc&task=document.download&path=suggested-readings/gender-budgeting-its-usefulness-in-programme-based-approaches-to-aid&Itemid=587)

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

**Budlender, D. (2005). 'Expectations versus Realities in Gender-Responsive Budget Initiatives', United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD), Geneva**

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

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

**Budlender, D. (2009). *Ten-Country Overview Report. Integrating Gender-Responsive Budgeting into the Aid Effectiveness Agenda*. UNIFEM.**

[http://www.gender-budgets.org/index.php?option=com\\_joomdoc&view=documents&path=suggested-readings/integrating-gender-responsive-budgeting-into-the-aid-effectiveness-agenda-reports&Itemid=587](http://www.gender-budgets.org/index.php?option=com_joomdoc&view=documents&path=suggested-readings/integrating-gender-responsive-budgeting-into-the-aid-effectiveness-agenda-reports&Itemid=587)

These research reports (one composite report and 10 country reports) have been generated as part of a three-year UNIFEM programme. The programme seeks to demonstrate how GRB tools and strategies contribute to enhancing a positive impact on gender equality of aid provided in the form of General Budget Support, and the opportunities for enhancing accountability to gender equality in aid effectiveness.

### ***Gender-responsive revenue generation***

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

**Barnett, K. and Grown, C. (2004). 'Gender Impacts of Government Revenue Collection: The Case of Taxation', Commonwealth Secretariat, London**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=1644>

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

### ***Involvement of non-state actors***

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

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

**Budlender, D. (2002). 'Gender Budgets: What's in it for NGOs?', *Gender and Development*, vol. 10, no. 3, pp. 82-87**

<http://policy-practice.oxfam.org.uk/publications/gender-budgets-whats-in-it-for-ngos-131497>

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

undertaking gender budget work as a stand-alone activity, NGOs can incorporate gender budget analysis and advocacy as a tool in their existing programmes.

### ***Toolkits***

**Quinn, S. (2009). 'Gender Budgeting: Practical Implementation', Handbook, Directorate General of Human Rights and Legal Affairs, Council of Europe, Strasbourg**

[http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/standardsetting/equality/03themes/gender-mainstreaming/CDEG\(2008\)15\\_en.pdf](http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/standardsetting/equality/03themes/gender-mainstreaming/CDEG(2008)15_en.pdf)

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

**Budlender, D. (2004). 'Budgeting to Fulfill International Gender and Human Rights Commitments', UNIFEM, Zimbabwe**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display/document/legacyid/1615>

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

**Budlender, D. and Hewitt, G. (2003). Engendering Budgets: A Practitioner's Guide to Understanding and Implementing Gender-Responsive Budgets, Commonwealth Secretariat, London**

[http://internationalbudget.org/wp-content/uploads/2011/01/Engendering\\_Budgets\\_final\\_doc.pdf](http://internationalbudget.org/wp-content/uploads/2011/01/Engendering_Budgets_final_doc.pdf)

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

[http://www.uneca.org/daweca/gender\\_mainstreaming/en-manual-training-gender-responsive-budgetingGTZ.pdf](http://www.uneca.org/daweca/gender_mainstreaming/en-manual-training-gender-responsive-budgetingGTZ.pdf)

**UNFPA and UNIFEM. (2006). 'Gender Responsive Budgeting and Women's Reproductive Rights: A Resource Pack', UNFPA, UNIFEM, New York**

[http://egypt.unfpa.org/FCKIMages/file/gender\\_responsive\\_eng.pdf](http://egypt.unfpa.org/FCKIMages/file/gender_responsive_eng.pdf)

### ***Case studies***

**Randzio-Plath, C. et al. (2010). 'Gender Budgeting and Democratic Governance: Experience from Africa and Europe', Workshop of African and European Civil Society Organisations in Bonn**

[http://www.venro.org/fileadmin/redaktion/dokumente/Dokumente-2011/Januar\\_2011/Venro\\_BroschuereGender\\_Webveresion.pdf](http://www.venro.org/fileadmin/redaktion/dokumente/Dokumente-2011/Januar_2011/Venro_BroschuereGender_Webveresion.pdf)

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

See also [Gender: Budgets and the economy](#) on Eldis.

### ***Further resources***

**Haider, H. (2011). 'Effects of Political Quotas for Women', GSDRC Helpdesk Report, Governance and Social Development Resource Centre (GSDRC), Birmingham**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Helpdesk&id=757>

The GSDRC Topic Guide on Political Systems: sections on [Gender and participation](#), [Women in parliament](#) and [Women in political parties](#).

[National Democratic Institute](#)

[International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance \(International IDEA\)](#)

[Pathways of Women's Empowerment RPC](#)

[ACE Electoral Knowledge Network](#)

[Governance and Political Participation on Eldis](#)

# GENDER AND MEDIA

Contents:

- Introduction
- Participation and influence of women in the media
- Media content and portrayal of men and women in the media
- Participatory community media
- Changing attitudes and behaviour

## INTRODUCTION

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

**White, A. (2009). 'Getting the Balance Right: Gender Equality in Journalism', International Federation of Journalists, Brussels**

<http://www.unesco.org/new/en/communication-and-information/resources/publications-and-communication-materials/publications/full-list/getting-the-balance-right-gender-equality-in-journalism/>

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

## PARTICIPATION AND INFLUENCE OF WOMEN IN THE MEDIA

Studies have found that although the number of women working in the media has been increasing globally, the top positions (producers, executives, chief editors and publishers) are still very male dominated (White, 2009). This disparity is particularly evident in Africa, where cultural impediments to women fulfilling the role of journalist remain (e.g. travelling away from home, evening work and covering issues such as politics and sports which are considered to fall within the masculine domain) (Myers, 2009). The Global Media Monitoring Project (GMMP) reports that throughout the world, female journalists are more likely to be assigned 'soft' subjects such as family, lifestyle, fashion and arts. The 'hard' news, politics and the economy, is much less likely to be written or covered by women.

The level of participation and influence of women in the media also has implications for media content: female media professionals are more likely to reflect other women's needs and

perspectives than their male colleagues. It is important to acknowledge, however, that not all women working in the media will be gender aware and prone to cover women's needs and perspectives; and it is not impossible for men to effectively cover gender issues. Recent research from 18 disparate countries shows that male and female journalists' attitudes do not differ significantly (Hanitzsch & Hanusch, 2012). Nonetheless, the presence of women on the radio, television and in print is more likely to provide positive role models for women and girls, to gain the confidence of women as sources and interviewees, and to attract a female audience.

**Byerly, C. M. (2011). 'Global Report on the Status of Women in the News Media', International Women's Media Foundation, Washington DC**

<http://www.iwmf.org/our-research/global-report/>

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

**Myers, M. (2009). 'Radio, Convergence and Development in Africa: Gender as a Cross-Cutting Issue' Paper submitted to International Development Research Centre (IDRC) and Carleton University, Roundtable Discussion on a Research Agenda, 10-13 September, Butare, Rwanda**

[http://www.genderit.org/sites/default/upload/Final\\_draft\\_Gender\\_and\\_Radio.pdf](http://www.genderit.org/sites/default/upload/Final_draft_Gender_and_Radio.pdf)

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

**Hanitzsch, T., & Hanusch, F. (2012). Does Gender Determine Journalists' Professional Views? A reassessment based on cross-national evidence. *European Journal of Communication*, 27(3), 257-277. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0267323112454804>**

This peer-reviewed paper conducted a fairly comprehensive survey of male and female journalists in 18 countries across the world. They found that men's and women's opinions and attitudes towards their jobs do not differ significantly by gender. This was tested at the individual, newsroom and national level. Male and female journalists tend to think about their work in largely similar terms. They suggest that the lack of difference means that newsroom culture will not necessarily change if more female journalists are employed, as the professional culture is maintained by both sexes. They do note that the reason for similarities may be that female journalists are forced to adopt male values and are judged by male standards.

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

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

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

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

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

**Gallagher, M. et al. (2010). 'Who Makes the News? Global Media Monitoring Project 2010', World Association for Christian Communication, London and Toronto**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4304>

To what degree is the news media democratic, inclusive and participatory from a gender perspective? This report presents findings of a survey taken on one 'ordinary' news day to record the portrayal and representation of women and men in the news media. The results are compared with previous surveys, taken every four years since 1995, to illustrate longitudinal trends. Women are underrepresented in news coverage, resulting in an unbalanced representation of the world.

**European Commission. (2010). 'Opinion on "Breaking Gender Stereotypes in the Media", Advisory Committee on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men, Social Europe, European Commission, Brussels**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4263>

This report highlights the gap between the reality of women's and men's lives in Europe and how they are portrayed in the media. It proposes measures for the promotion of: balanced and non-stereotyped perspectives; equal opportunities and working conditions in the media sector; and increased participation in and access to expression and decision-making for women in and throughout the media. It calls for an in-depth study of the public image of women generated by the media, including advertising.

**Sahu, G. K. & Alam, S. (2013). Media Agenda on Gender Issues: Content Analysis of Two National Dailies. *Pragyaan : Journal of Mass Communication* 11 (1).**

<http://iuu.ac/download-pdf/June2013MC.pdf#page=19>

How do different Indian daily English-language national newspapers portray men and women? The analysis notes that neither paper accords much attention to stories of women's achievements; rather they both tend to cover stories of violence against women. This results in a representation of women as victims, subordinate, and constantly harassed by men. Both papers reported events rather than examining structural causes for violence, nor did they represent viewpoints of activists and organisations working against violence. This contributes to the discourse of framing 'women's issues' as problems.

**Prieler, M., & Centeno, D. (2013). Gender Representation in Philippine Television Advertisements. *Sex roles*, 69(5-6), 276-288.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11199-013-0301-4>

How are gender roles and stereotypes used in Philippines television advertisements? 254 adverts from 2010 were analysed for differences in gender representation. The quantitative analysis shows that there is a high prevalence of gender differences and stereotypes, which does not accurately reflect Philippine society, which is considered quite egalitarian. The study finds that adverts had settings in which more males were found in the workplace and more females were found at home; more males were fully dressed and more females were suggestively dressed; voiceovers employed more males than females; and cosmetics and toiletries were associated primarily with female characters. In contrast, the predominance of female primary characters ran counter to trends in previous studies. It concludes that television may actively support the status quo and a patriarchal society, while these representations are clearly damaging for gender equality.

### ***Political representation***

**Llanos, B. and Nina, J. (2011). 'Election Coverage from a Gender Perspective: A Media Monitoring Manual', UN Women**

[http://www.idea.int/publications/election\\_coverage\\_gender\\_perspective/index.cfm](http://www.idea.int/publications/election_coverage_gender_perspective/index.cfm)

How can the media contribute to gender equality in election campaigning? The media has in many instances become the principal forum where electoral competition is played out. Some studies reveal that the structural and institutional obstacles women face in political competition are

compounded by the lower levels of media coverage of women candidates and their proposals. This publication aims to be a useful tool for promoting fair media coverage during election campaigns, generating an informational approach that includes all candidates' points of view during election campaigns.

### ***Toolkits***

#### **GMMP. (n.d.). 'Mission Possible: A Gender and Media Advocacy Toolkit' Global Media Monitoring Project, World Association for Christian Communication, London and Toronto**

<http://whomakesthenews.org/articles/mission-possible-a-gender-and-media-advocacy-training-toolkit>

This GMMP media toolkit is designed to train activists to build gender and media campaigns using the findings of GMMP studies. The toolkit explains how best to work with and through the media to put gender on the news agenda.

#### **Grizzle, A. (2012). *Gender-Sensitive Indicators for Media: Framework of indicators to gauge gender sensitivity in media operations and content*. UNESCO.**

<http://www.unesco.org/new/en/communication-and-information/resources/publications-and-communication-materials/publications/full-list/gender-sensitive-indicators-for-media-framework-of-indicators-to-gauge-gender-sensitivity-in-media-operations-and-content/>

The aim of the Gender-Sensitive Indicators for Media is to contribute to gender equality and women's empowerment in and through media of all forms. It provides a set of indicators for fostering gender equality within media organisations, and gendered portrayals in media. It is currently being used in 11 countries, and provides some case studies of self-assessment.

## **PARTICIPATORY COMMUNITY MEDIA**

Participatory community media initiatives aimed at increasing the involvement of women in the media perceive women as producers and contributors of media content and not solely as 'consumers' (Pavarala, Malik, and Cheeli, 2006). Such initiatives encourage the involvement of women in technical, decision-making, and agenda-setting activities. They have the potential to develop the capacities of women as socio-political actors. They also have the potential to promote a balanced and non-stereotyped portrayal of women in the media and to challenge the *status quo*. In Fiji, women who took part in a participatory video project presented themselves as active citizens who made significant contributions to their families and communities. These recorded images improved the status of women in the minds of government bureaucrats.

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

**Pavarala, V., Malik, K. K., and Cheeli, J. R. (2006), 'Community Media and Women: Transforming Silence into Speech', Chapter 3.2 in eds. A. Gurusamy, P. J. Singh, A. Mundkur and M. Swamy, Gender in the Information Society: Emerging Issues, Asia-Pacific Development Information Programme, UNDP and Elsevier, New Delhi, pp. 96-109**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4266>

To what extent do community media empower women? This study finds that community media initiatives perceive women as producers and contributors of media content and not just as consumers. Community media encourage greater involvement of women in technical, decision-making, and agenda-setting activities and have the potential to promote a balanced and non-stereotyped portrayal of women in the media.

**Harris, U. S. (2009). 'Transforming Images: Reimagining Women's Work Through Participatory Video', Development in Practice, vol. 19, no. 4 & 5, pp. 538-549**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4134>

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

**Baú, V. (2009). 'Media and Communication for Gender and Development', Southern African Gender & Media Diversity Journal, vol.6, pp.170-174, Gender Links, Johannesburg**

[http://www.genderlinks.org.za/attachment.php?aa\\_id=13361](http://www.genderlinks.org.za/attachment.php?aa_id=13361)

This paper highlights how media and communication can be an invaluable tool in raising awareness of and challenging gendered power structures. Participatory media allows for diverse voices, including those of women, to engage with channels of media communication to make their priorities and issues heard. This paper provides an overview of the debate around gender and communication and provides case studies showing the impact that media can have on the social construction of gender.

## **CHANGING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOURS**

### ***Communication for Development (C4D)***

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

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

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

**Inagaki, R. (2007). 'Communicating the Impact of Communication for Development: Recent Trends in Empirical Research', World Bank, Washington DC**

[http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2007/08/10/000310607\\_20070810123306/Rendered/PDF/405430Communic18082137167101PUBLIC1.pdf](http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2007/08/10/000310607_20070810123306/Rendered/PDF/405430Communic18082137167101PUBLIC1.pdf)

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

**Pettit, J., Salazar, J. F. and Dagrón, A. G. (2009). 'Citizens' Media and Communication', *Development in Practice*, vol. 19, no. 4&5, pp. 443-452**

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

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

**Khosla, V., Mikami, A., Frank, L. B., Popal, I., Debeljak, K., & Shaw, A. (2013). Combating Violence Against Women Through C4D: The 'Use Your Voice' Campaign and Its Implications on Audience-Citizens in Papua New Guinea. *International Journal of Communication*, 7 (18).**

<http://ijoc.org/index.php/ijoc/article/view/1852/990>

How can C4D be used to address gender issues? The Use Your Voice campaign was implemented in PNG in 2011 to promote speaking out against violence and displace the positive cultural association between violence and masculinity. The campaign used radio, television, and mobile phones to reach audiences, and included weekly shows on national radio, public service announcements, a press conference, and talk shows on television. The campaign also hosted a national competition for best community-based initiative to end gender-based violence in PNG. Within PNG, awareness of and concern about VAW is very low. The campaign was moderately successful in raising awareness, but not in changing behavioural patterns, which are deeply socially embedded.

### ***Communication initiatives aimed at changing attitudes and behaviours***

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

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

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

In order for the empowerment of women to have a genuine impact, opportunity structures also need to be addressed, such as conservative and male opinion. Afghan Women's Hour has a large male audience (research by BBC Media Action found that 39% of listeners were men), which provides a way to challenge male views on gender norms. Group educational activities, a common

programme for men and boys, also have the potential to contribute to changes in attitudes on health issues and gender relations and, in some cases, changes in behaviour.

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

**Cooper, C., Goodsmith, L., Lotter, E. and Molony, T. (2010). 'Communication, Participation and Social Change: A Review of Communication Initiatives Addressing Gender-based Violence, Gender Norms, and Harmful Traditional Practices in Crisis-affected Settings', USAID, American Refugee Committee, Communication for Change**

[http://www.arcrelief.org/site/DocServer/Through\\_Our\\_Eyes\\_Desk\\_Review--FINAL.pdf?docID=1602](http://www.arcrelief.org/site/DocServer/Through_Our_Eyes_Desk_Review--FINAL.pdf?docID=1602)

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

**Solervicens, M., ed. (2008). 'Women's Empowerment and Good Governance through Community Radio: Best Experiences for an Action Research Process', AMARC, World Association of Community Radio Broadcasters**

[http://www.amarc.org/wggtcr/text/Book\\_version\\_WEB\\_EN.pdf](http://www.amarc.org/wggtcr/text/Book_version_WEB_EN.pdf)

This report describes how community radio can be used to increase women's awareness of political processes. Radio is an important medium for shaping social values. Community radio can provide women with a voice and the possibility of participation. It provides extensive case studies on community radio projects.

### *Case studies*

**Morna, C. L., Mpofu, T. and Glenwright, D. (2010). 'Gender and Media Progress Study: Southern Africa Gender and Media Progress Study Southern Africa, Gender Links, Johannesburg**

<http://www.genderlinks.org.za/article/gender-and-media-progress-study-southern-africa-2010-10-06>

**Tom, T. O. (2008). 'Enhancing Gender Equality in the Media in Eastern Africa', Regional Study, Eastern Africa Journalists Association (EAJA), Djibouti**

[http://docs.mak.ac.ug/sites/default/files/african%20journalist.EAJA\\_.pdf](http://docs.mak.ac.ug/sites/default/files/african%20journalist.EAJA_.pdf)

**Malik, S. I. (2012). Writing from Inside Out: Accounts of Sudanese Women Working In the Media. *Journal of Arts and Humanities*, 1(2), 68-83.**

<http://www.theartsjournal.org/index.php/site/article/view/23/23>

### ***Further resources***

**Haider, H., 2011, 'Communication Initiatives to Change Attitudes and Behaviours', GSDRC Helpdesk Research Report, Governance and Social Development Resource Centre, Birmingham**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/docs/open/HD752.pdf>

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

See the GSDRC's [Topic Guide on Communication and Governance](#) for more information on communication for development; communication for governance reform; and communication for social change.

[Women Make the News \(WMN\)](#) is a global policy advocacy initiative aimed at promoting gender equality in the media.

# GENDER AND CITIZENSHIP

Contents:

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

## INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

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

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

**Mukhopadhyay, M. (2007). 'Situating Gender and Citizenship in Development Debates: Towards a Strategy' in Gender Justice, Citizenship and Development, eds. M. Mukhopadhyay and N. Singh, International Development Research Centre, Ottawa, pp. 263-314**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=2768>

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

**Meer, S. and Sever, C. (2004). 'Gender and Citizenship: Overview Report', BRIDGE Development-Gender, Institute of Development Studies, Brighton**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=1995>

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

**Goetz, A-M. (2007). 'Gender Justice, Citizenship and Entitlements - Core Concepts, Central Debates and New Directions for Research', in Gender Justice, Citizenship and Development, eds. M. Mukhopadhyay and N. Singh, International Development Research Centre, Ottawa, pp. 15-57**

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

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

**Sweetman, C., Rowlands, J. and Abou-Habib, L. (2011). 'Introduction to Citizenship', Gender and Development, vol. 19, no. 3, 347-355**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2011.636591>

This special issue of *Gender and Development* takes a close look at issues of citizenship. It is described as a perennial concern but also a current hot topic. Citizenship is intrinsically concerned with rights and equality, and thus connects to gender. Citizenship implies equal rights for all, but a gender lens reveals the unequal access of men and women to various aspects of citizenship. Articles in this issue assess the extent to which each of us can secure the protection, resources and entitlements which the state should provide.

## GRASSROOTS CITIZENSHIP

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

**Mahmud, S. and Musembi, C. N. (2011). 'Gender and Citizenship at the Grassroots: Assessing the Effect of NGO Initiatives in Social Mobilization and Political Empowerment in Kenya and Bangladesh', Citizenship, Participation and Accountability – Development Research Centre**

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

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

**Caiazza, A. (2005). 'Called to Speak: Six Strategies That Encourage Women's Political Activism' Institute for Women's Policy Research, Washington DC**

<http://www.iwpr.org/publications/pubs/called-to-speak-six-strategies-that-encourage-womens-political-activism>

This report explores the values, experiences, and leadership development of women involved in religious, and particularly interfaith, social justice organising. It aims to show how women's religious activism intersects with women's organising, and to contribute to a greater understanding of the values women share in support of social justice issues and causes. The six strategies are:

- Provide political role models of women who break the mould
- Provide space for women to address their fears and embrace their anger
- Build connections across lines of race and class
- Gently push women into political leadership (with force if necessary)
- Develop mentoring programs with activist components
- Meet women where they are

## NEW MEDIA AND CITIZENSHIP

The communication system of industrial societies was based on mass media, involving the distribution of a one-way message from one-to-many. The widespread diffusion of the Internet, mobile communication, digital media and a variety of social software tools throughout the world has transformed the communication system into interactive horizontal networks that connect the local and global. New forms of social media (also referred to as information and communication technologies – ICTs), such as SMS, blogs, social networking sites, podcasts and wikis, cater to the flow of messages from many-to-many. They have provided alternative, accessible media for citizen communication and participatory journalism. They have contributed to the transformation of citizenship practices of women, and other individuals and groups, who have been on the margins of political and civic life.

These social media have opened up the space for the emergence of previously unheard voices and for women to renegotiate their rights, exercise their citizenship and shape discourses of citizenship. In the ‘Arab Spring’ of 2011, social media and ICTs were crucial in many places for spreading messages, disseminating news, and amplifying voices (Radsch, & Khamis, 2013). It is uncertain, however, to what extent these new voices and discourses can lead to lasting changes in notions of gender and citizenship.

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

### **CITIGEN (2011). ‘Gender and Citizenship in the Information Society (CITIGEN) Research Programme’, Report of the Review Meeting, 26-28 April, New Delhi**

[http://www.gender-is-citizenship.net/sites/default/files/citigen/CITIGEN\\_Workshop%20Report.pdf](http://www.gender-is-citizenship.net/sites/default/files/citigen/CITIGEN_Workshop%20Report.pdf)

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

### **Chong, I. I. and Wan, L. O. (2012). ‘Women’s Online Participation and the Transformation of Citizenship: A study in Hong Kong and Guangzhou, Gender and Citizenship in the Information Society (CITIGEN), Bangalore, India**

[http://www.gender-is-citizenship.net/sites/default/files/citigen/uploads/China\\_pB.pdf](http://www.gender-is-citizenship.net/sites/default/files/citigen/uploads/China_pB.pdf)

This research brief provides insights into women’s online engagement and citizenship in China. It reviews four organisations and their networks, and conducts a content analysis of online debates. It finds that women with institutional resources tend to work with the government for legal and policy

reform, and less established organisations tend to take a more participatory approach. Individuals appear more able to critique the state.

**van der Gaag, N. (2010). 'Because I am a Girl: Digital and Urban Frontiers 2010', Because I am a Girl Series, Plan International**

<https://plan-international.org/about-plan/resources/publications/campaigns/because-i-am-a-girl-digital-and-urban-frontiers-2010/>

This comprehensive global report covers many of current issues facing girls, through the lenses of urbanisation and technology. It explores different aspects of this changing landscape and how this affects girls and gender relations.

**Radsch, C. C., & Khamis, S. (2013). In Their Own Voice: Technologically mediated empowerment and transformation among young Arab women. *Feminist Media Studies*, 13(5), 881-890.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14680777.2013.838378>

This peer-reviewed article explores how young Arab women used cyberactivism to participate in the Arab Spring. It argues that these activists leveraged social media to enact new forms of leadership, agency, and empowerment, since these online platforms enabled them to express themselves freely and their voices to be heard by the rest of the world, particularly the global media. This article suggests that this was a turning point for women's participation, and that they will remain in the public sphere. It concludes that the 'Arab Spring' is not just a political revolution, but also a personal, social, and communication revolution as Arab women activists change traditional norms of participation and visibility and bring new issues into the public sphere.

For further discussion and resources on new media, see the [social media](#) section in the Communication and Governance topic guide.

## **CITIZENSHIP, CONFLICT, STATE-SOCIETY RELATIONS AND STATEBUILDING**

For discussion on gender and citizenship in the context of post-conflict recovery and statebuilding, see GSDRC's Topic Guide Supplement on [State-Society Relations and Citizenship in Situations of Conflict and Fragility](#)

## **CASE STUDIES**

**Reyes, M. and Asinas, A. (2011). 'Locating Young Women in a Plethora of Issues: Reflections from the Tenth Young Women Leader's Conference 2010', *Gender and Development*, vol. 19, no. 3, pp. 423-439**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2011.625674>

The article assesses the outcome of the tenth Young Women Leaders Conference. Its main objective was to inquire into the connections between thinking on citizenship and Filipino young women's activism. The workshops revealed that young women continue to face traditional structural barriers that inhibit them from actively participating in political debate and public life. However, they have created new spaces for asserting varied (re)conceptions of citizenship and gender justice, often

mediated by rapidly changing information and communication technologies. Likewise, they are increasingly on the move: the face of labour migration in the Philippines is that of a young woman. How then might migration change our understandings of citizenship?

**Muñiz, S. and Beardon, H. (2011). 'Supporting the Collective Power of Bolivian Women to Attain Citizenship Rights: the Raising Her Voice Project', *Gender and Development*, vol. 19, no. 3, pp. 383-393**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2011.625642>

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

**Jahan, F. (2011). 'Women's Agency and Citizenship across Transnational Identities: A Case Study of the Bangladeshi Diaspora in the UK', *Gender and Development*, vol. 19, no. 3, pp. 371-381**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2011.625639>

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

**Cooper, M. (2011). 'Preventing the Gendered Reproduction of Citizenship: the Role of Social movements in South Africa', *Gender and Development*, vol. 19, no. 3, pp. 357-370**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2011.625634>

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

**Abou-Habib, L. (2011). 'The "Right to have Rights": Active Citizenship and Gendered Social Entitlements in Egypt, Lebanon and Palestine', *Gender and Development*, vol. 19, no. 3, pp. 441-454**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13510347.2011.625633>

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

**KIT (Royal Tropical Institute) (eds.). (2004). 'Gender, Citizenship and Governance: A Global Source book', KIT, Amsterdam, and Oxfam, Oxford**

[http://www.kit.nl/gender/wp-content/uploads/publications/445\\_Gender.7.pdf](http://www.kit.nl/gender/wp-content/uploads/publications/445_Gender.7.pdf)

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

### ***Further resources***

Gender, [Citizenship and migration](#) on Eldis.

# GENDER IN FRAGILE AND CONFLICT-AFFECTED ENVIRONMENTS

## Contents:

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

## INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

These changes in gender relations, however, are usually short-lived and societies often revert back to traditional gender roles after conflict. Reducing women to passive victims denies their agency and has resulted in the perpetuation of gender stereotypes that reinforces inequalities in fragile and post-conflict contexts. It has also resulted in sidelining women in peace talks and reconstruction processes, and as agents of change.

There has been growing recognition in recent years of the varying roles that women can play during and after violent conflict. There is also recognition that upheavals of conflict and fragility can provide

new opportunities for transforming gender relations and promoting more inclusive, equitable, social, economic and political structures and conditions.

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

**Harcourt, W. (2009) 'Literature Review on Gender and Fragility,' European Report on Development, European Commission**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4309>

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

**Puechguirbal, N. (2012). 'The Cost of Ignoring Gender in Conflict and Post-Conflict Situations: A Feminist Perspective', Amsterdam Law Forum, vol. 4, no. 1, pp. 4-19**

[http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract\\_id=2007625](http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=2007625)

This article discusses the biases in international relations which marginalise women's contributions to peace and security. A gender lens reveals hidden power relations, and highlights the different impacts of conflict and security on men and women. Ceasing hostilities does not always mean peace for women. The article shows that conservative patriarchy often resurfaces after war.

**Koch, J. (2008). 'Does Gender Matter in Fragile States?', DIIS Policy Brief, Danish Institute for International Studies, København, Denmark**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3319>

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

**Brück T., and Schindler K. (2008). 'The Impact of Conflict and Fragility on Households: A Conceptual Framework with Reference to Widows', UNU-WIDER Research Paper no. 83, United Nations University, Helsinki**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3271>

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

household's core functions, boundaries and choice of income generating activities. Findings emphasise the need to analyse the impact of conflict and fragility at the household level.

## **INTERNATIONAL ENGAGEMENT IN FRAGILE AND CONFLICT-AFFECTED ENVIRONMENTS**

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

[United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 \(2000\)](#) on Women, Peace and Security addresses the impact of war on women. It mandates the protection of women and girls during and after conflict and the greater involvement of women in conflict resolution, peacekeeping and peacebuilding processes.

[United Nations Security Council Resolution 1820 \(2008\)](#) extends SCR 1325 to explicitly recognise sexual violence as a security issue and tactic of war, demand parties to armed conflict to adopt concrete prevention and protection measures and assert the importance of women's participation in peace processes.

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

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

The OECD (2010) reports, however, that such a focus on gender equality in fragile situations is implemented only to a limited extent. While donors have developed various tools to promote gender equality in other arenas, they have yet to develop strategies to systemically incorporate gender equality considerations in fragile contexts. The gender initiatives that donors have implemented in fragile and conflict-affected contexts often involve discrete 'gender' projects, rather than genuine mainstreaming. These have had a technical rather than political focus and have not been linked to the broader statebuilding agenda.

In order to improve international engagement with gender in fragile and conflict-affected contexts, donors need to understand gender as a political issue and to incorporate gender issues into political, conflict, security and economic analysis. Existing programming tools for gender equality in other domains could also be reviewed and drawn upon in developing strategies and tools in these contexts.

**OECD-DAC. (2010). 'Aid in Support of Gender Equality in Fragile and Conflict-affected States', OECD, Paris**

<http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/7/11/46954513.pdf>

This study provides an overview of DAC members' funding targeted to gender equality in fragile and conflict-affected states.

**Baranyi, S., and Powell, K. (2005). 'Fragile States, Gender Equality and Aid Effectiveness: A Review of Donor Perspectives', Report prepared for CID, The North-South Institute, Ottawa**

[www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3280](http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3280)

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

**Castillejo, C. (2011). 'Building a State that Works for Women: Integrating Gender into Post-Conflict State Building', FRIDE, Madrid**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4112>

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

## **GENDER AND VIOLENT CONFLICT**

### ***Links between gender inequality and violent conflict***

Gender inequality has been shown to be linked to violent conflict. Caprioli's 2003 study found that extreme and systematic gender inequality is correlated with political violence, whereas higher levels of gender equality (measured by fertility rate) is associated with lower risks of intra-state conflict onset. A subsequent study by Melander (2005) supports this finding, demonstrating that gender equality (measured by the percentage of women in parliament and the ratio of female-to-male higher education attainment) is associated with lower levels of armed conflict within a country.

These studies provide a strong argument that addressing gender inequality could contribute to more stable societies.

Another implication of these studies is that various aspects of gender (in)equality and gender relations in a country could serve as an early warning of the risk of violent conflict. For example, reduction in women's status, increased discrimination against women and violations of women's human rights and virulent attacks on women may be direct precursors of further repression and violent conflict (Schmeidl and Piza-Lopez, 2002).

**Buvinic, M., Gupta, M. D., Casabonne, U., & Verwimp, P. (2013). Violent conflict and gender inequality: an overview. *The World Bank Research Observer*, 28(1), 110-138.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/wbro/lks011>

Beyond sexual violence, what are the gendered impacts of conflict? The authors suggest that a wider set of gender issues be considered. This paper organises the emerging evidence by both the differential impacts of violent conflict on males and females (first-round impacts) and the role of gender inequality in framing adaptive responses to conflict (second-round impacts). War's mortality burden is disproportionately borne by males, whereas women and children constitute a majority of refugees and the displaced. Indirect war impacts on health are more equally distributed between the genders. Conflicts create households headed by widows who can be especially vulnerable to intergenerational poverty. Second-round impacts can provide opportunities for women in work and politics triggered by the absence of men. Households adapt to conflict with changes in marriage and fertility, migration, investments in children's health and schooling, and the distribution of labour between the genders.

**Cockburn, C. (2010). Gender Relations as Causal in Militarization and War. *International Feminist Journal of Politics*, 12:2, 139-157.**

<http://www2.kobe->

[u.ac.jp/~alexroni/IPD%202012/2012\\_5/Gender\\_relations\\_as\\_Causal\\_Cockburn.pdf](http://www2.kobe-u.ac.jp/~alexroni/IPD%202012/2012_5/Gender_relations_as_Causal_Cockburn.pdf)

Based on empirical research among women's anti-war organisations worldwide, the article derives a feminist oppositional standpoint on militarisation and war. From this standpoint, patriarchal gender relations are seen as intersecting with economic and ethno-national power relations in perpetuating a tendency towards armed conflict in human societies. The feminism generated in anti-war activism tends to be holistic, and understands gender in patriarchy as a relation of power underpinned by coercion and violence. The cultural features of militarisation and war readily perceived by women positioned in or close to armed conflict, and their sense of war as systemic and as a continuum, make its gendered nature visible. There are implications in this perspective for anti-war movements. If gender relations are one of the root causes of war, a feminist programme of gender transformation is a necessary component of the pursuit of peace.

**Caprioli, M. (2003). 'Gender Equality and Civil Wars', World Bank Conflict Prevention and Reconstruction Unit, Working Paper No. 8., World Bank, Washington DC**

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

What is the link between gender equality and civil war? This paper reports on a study measuring gender inequality against the occurrence of intrastate conflict. Applying a number of theories on gender inequality and violence, the study tested the hypothesis that the higher the fertility rate, the

greater the likelihood that a state will experience intrastate conflict. Results indicate that states with high fertility rates are twice as likely to experience internal conflict as states with low fertility rates.

**Melander, E. (2005). 'Gender Equality and Intrastate Armed Conflict', *International Studies Quarterly*, vol. 49, pp. 695–714**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2478.2005.00384.x>

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

**Schmeidl, S., with Piza-Lopez, E. (2002). 'Gender and Conflict Early Warning: A Framework for Action', *International Alert*, London**

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

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

### ***Gender and conflict analysis***

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

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

**Moser, A. (2007). 'The Peace and Conflict Gender Analysis: UNIFEM's Research in the Solomon Islands', *Gender and Development*, vol. 15, no. 2**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=2888>

How can the use of gender analysis help improve post-conflict peace processes? This paper discusses the research methodology and results of the 2005 Peace and Conflict Gender Analysis conducted by UNIFEM in the Solomon Islands. The use of gender analysis to shape peace processes would help solidify women's gains in status and contribute to economic and civil society development.

**Anderlini, S. N. (2006). 'Mainstreaming Gender in Conflict Analysis: Issues and Recommendations', *Social Development Papers*, no. 33, World Bank, Washington DC**

<http://www-wds.worldbank.org/servlet/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2006/02/13/>

[000090341\\_20060213143713/Rendered/PDF/351500Mainstreaming0gender0WP3301Public1.pdf](http://www-wds.worldbank.org/servlet/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2006/02/13/000090341_20060213143713/Rendered/PDF/351500Mainstreaming0gender0WP3301Public1.pdf)

How can the World Bank's Conflict Analysis Framework (CAF) be more gender-sensitive? This desk review of eleven frameworks used by other development agencies concludes that gender variables are missing in most conflict analysis frameworks. Addressing this gap can help identify the gendered nature of causes of conflict, the gendered impact of conflict, and the gendered dimensions of peace building. Existing frameworks focus too much attention on the causes of conflict, and not enough on sources of peace or resilience to conflict. Recommendations include more systematic integration of gender variables in the CAF, as well as investment in strengthening the gender-awareness of those using the framework, through training and exposure to positive examples.

**Goetz, A-M. and Treiber, A-K. (2006). *Gender and conflict analysis (Policy Briefing Paper)*. UNIFEM.**

<http://www.unwomen.org/~media/Headquarters/Media/Publications/en/04AGenderandConflictAnalysis.pdf>

How can conflict monitoring and assessment frameworks integrate consideration of gender relations and gender inequality as triggers or dynamics of conflict? This briefing note outlines basic elements of gender-sensitive conflict analysis, based on findings from three pilot projects on gender-sensitive conflict monitoring in the Ferghana Valley (Uzbekistan / Kyrgyzstan / Tajikistan), Colombia, and the Solomon Islands. Participatory exercises show that different conflict-related indicators are emphasised by men (e.g. male youth unemployment) and women (e.g. gender based violence). Positive engagement by national authorities in gender-sensitive conflict monitoring is essential to ensure that the data collected influences policy and practice.

**Harris, C. (2011). *What Can Applying a Gender Lens Contribute to Conflict Studies? A review of selected MICROCON working papers*. MICROCON Research Working Paper 41, Brighton: MICROCON.**

[http://www.microconflict.eu/publications/RWP41\\_CH.pdf](http://www.microconflict.eu/publications/RWP41_CH.pdf)

This paper uses a set of working papers to illustrate how gender can be used at different conceptual levels in conflict analysis, and aims to show what can be gained by the use of a gender lens.

## **GENDERED IMPACT OF VIOLENT CONFLICT**

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

Women, however, suffer disproportionately from conflict through: systematic sexual violence; greater levels of displacement and presence in refugee camps where mortality rates tend to be higher; and social and economic vulnerability, due largely to loss of access to sources of livelihoods (in particular, agricultural systems) and to basic services. A study by Plümper and Neumayer (2005) also finds that armed conflict has a more adverse effect on women's life expectancy than on men's. Women tend to live longer than men in peacetime but conflict reduces the gap in life expectancy.

**Plümper, T. and Neumayer, E. (2005). 'The Unequal Burden of War: The Effect of Armed Conflict on the Gender Gap in Life Expectancy', Government Department, University of Essex**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=1692>

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

**Mazurana, D. and Carlson, K. (2006). 'The Girl Child and Armed Conflict: Recognising and Addressing Grave Violations of Girls' Human Rights', Background paper, prepared for Expert Group Meeting, Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination and Violence Against the Girl Child, 25-28 September, Florence, Italy**

<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/elim-disc-viol-girlchild/ExpertPapers/EP.12%20Mazurana.pdf>

This paper documents and analyses the human rights violations girls endure during situations of armed conflict and offers recommendations on preventing and or addressing those harms. The paper offers an overview of current trends, existing international initiatives, and reviews the most pertinent international legal standards relating to these violations.

**Buscher, D. (2006). 'Displaced Women and Girls at Risk: Risk Factors, Protection Solutions and Resource Tools', Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children, New York**

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

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

**Women’s Refugee Commission. (2011). ‘Preventing Gender-based Violence, Building Livelihoods: Guidance and Tools for Improved Programming’, Women’s Refugee Commission, New York**

[http://www.crin.org/docs/preventing\\_gbv,\\_building\\_livelihoods\\_12.2011-1.pdf](http://www.crin.org/docs/preventing_gbv,_building_livelihoods_12.2011-1.pdf)

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

***Sexual violence***

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

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

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

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

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

**Ward, J. and Marsh, M. (2006). 'Sexual Violence Against Women and Girls in War and its Aftermath: Realities, Responses and Required Resources', Briefing Paper, United Nations Population Fund**

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

What is the extent and impact of gender-based violence during and after war? Statistics show that the sexual violation and torture of women and girls has become rife in conflict settings. Data also show that gender-based violence (GBV) does not subside post-conflict; certain types of GBV may even increase. This paper argues that while international prevention and response efforts have increased in recent years, much more must be done. A multi-sectoral model which demands holistic inter-organisational and inter-agency efforts across health, social services, legal and security sectors offers the best approach for GBV prevention.

**Sivakumaran, S. (2007). 'Sexual Violence Against Men in Armed Conflict', *European Journal of International Law*, vol. 18, no. 2, pp. 253-276**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4267>

This article examines the extent and types of sexual violence committed against men in armed conflict. It notes that sexual violence against men involves dynamics of power, dominance and emasculation. Recognition of sexual violence against men has not translated into detailed consideration of the issue. In the longer term, things will only improve if definitions of rape are changed and all forms of sexual assault are more fully prosecuted.

**Sivakumaran, S. (2010). 'Lost in Translation: UN Responses to Sexual Violence against Men and Boys in Situations of Armed Conflict' in *International Review of the Red Cross*, Volume 92, Number 877, March 2010.**

<http://www.icrc.org/eng/resources/documents/article/review/review-877-p259.htm>

This article considers the UN responses to sexual violence against men and boys in armed conflict – in particular, steps taken towards understanding this problem, measures of prevention and protection, and consequences for accused perpetrators. It assesses the state of knowledge and work in the field of male sexual violence and notes that although there have been many positive developments, the issue is not always moving in the right direction.

**DCAF. (2007). 'Sexual Violence in Armed Conflict: Global Overview and Implications for the Security Sector', Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces**

[http://www.essex.ac.uk/armedcon/story\\_id/sexualviolence\\_conflict\\_full%5B1%5D.pdf](http://www.essex.ac.uk/armedcon/story_id/sexualviolence_conflict_full%5B1%5D.pdf)

The first part of the report, the *global overview*, profiles documented conflict-related sexual violence in 51 countries that have experienced armed conflict over the past twenty years. The second part of the report explores strategies for security and justice actors to prevent and respond to sexual violence in armed conflict and post-conflict situations.

**Nordås, R. (2011). 'Sexual Violence in African Conflicts', CSCW Policy Brief, Centre for the Study of Civil War, PRIO, Oslo**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4233>

This policy brief summarises key findings from a pilot study of conflict-related sexual violence in conflicts in 20 African countries, encompassing 177 armed conflict actors – state armies, militias, and rebel groups. The study finds that, in Africa, sexual violence is: mostly indiscriminate; committed only by some conflict actors; often committed by state armies; often committed in years with low levels of killings; and often committed post-conflict.

**Leatherman, J. (2011). *Sexual violence and armed conflict*. Cambridge: Polity.**

<http://www.polity.co.uk/book.asp?ref=9780745641874>

This book offers a comprehensive analysis of the causes of, consequences of, and responses to sexual violence in contemporary armed conflict. It explores the function and effect of wartime sexual violence and examines the conditions that make women and girls most vulnerable to these acts before, during and after conflict. To understand the motivations of the men (and occasionally women) who perpetrate this violence, the book analyses the role played by systemic and situational factors such as patriarchy and militarised masculinity. The book concludes by looking at strategies of prevention and protection as well as new programmes being set up to support the rehabilitation of survivors and their communities.

**Tol, W. A., Stavrou, V., Greene, M. C., Mergenthaler, C., Van Ommeren, M., & Moreno, C. G. (2013). *Sexual and gender-based violence in areas of armed conflict: a systematic review of mental health and psychosocial support interventions*. *Conflict and health*, 7(1), 16.**

<http://www.conflictandhealth.com/content/7/1/16>

Seven studies met inclusion criteria. Studies were conducted in West and Central Africa, Albania, UK and USA; included female participants; focused on individual and group counseling; and combined psychological, medical, social and economic interventions, and cognitive behavioral therapy. The seven studies, while very limited, tentatively suggest beneficial effects of mental health and psychosocial interventions for this population, and show feasibility of evaluation and implementation of such interventions in real-life settings through partnerships with humanitarian organisations. However, robust conclusions on the effectiveness of particular approaches are not possible on the basis of current evidence.

**Spangaro J, Adogu C, Ranmuthugala G, Powell Davies G, Steinacker L, et al. (2013) What Evidence Exists for Initiatives to Reduce Risk and Incidence of Sexual Violence in Armed Conflict and Other Humanitarian Crises? A Systematic Review. *PLoS ONE*, 8 (5): e62600.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0062600>

The 40 included studies reported on seven strategy types: i) survivor care; ii) livelihood initiatives; iii) community mobilisation; iv) personnel initiatives; v) systems and security responses; vi) legal interventions and vii) multiple component interventions. Conducted in 26 countries, the majority of interventions were in African countries. Despite the extensive literature on sexual violence by combatants, most interventions addressed opportunistic forms of sexual violence committed in post-conflict settings. Only one study specifically addressed the disaster setting. Actual implementation of initiatives appeared to be limited as was the quality of outcome studies. Apparent *increases* to risk resulted from lack of protection, stigma and retaliation associated with interventions. Multiple-component interventions and sensitive community engagement appeared to

contribute to positive outcomes. Significant obstacles prevent women seeking help following sexual violence, pointing to the need to protect anonymity and preventive strategies.

**MenEngage. (2012). Sexual Violence in Conflict and Post-Conflict: Engaging Men and Boys. MenEngage-UNFPA Advocacy Brief.**

<https://www.unfpa.org/webdav/site/global/shared/documents/publications/2012/Advocacy%20Brief-%20Sexual%20Violence%20FINAL.pdf>

How can men and boys be engaged in preventing and responding to sexual violence in conflict and post-conflict settings? This review affirms that there is increasing data on men's experiences and use of SGBV in conflict, and an emerging set of programme responses and examples to draw on. Long-term prevention requires taking the engagement of men seriously and holistic, inclusive programming.

**Shteir, S. (2014). Conflict Related Sexual and Gender-based Violence: An Introductory Overview to Support Prevention and Response Efforts. Australian Civil-Military Centre. Civil-Military Occasional Papers.**

<http://apo.org.au/research/conflict-related-sexual-and-gender-based-violence-introductory-overview-support-prevention>

This paper provides an introductory overview of sexual violence as it applies to conflict and post-conflict environments. It provides a nuanced review of recent data, research and analysis which demonstrate considerable variation in the perpetration of sexual violence between and within conflicts. It examines a number of dominant patterns of sexual and gender-based violence in conflict-affected environments. It surveys a range of causes and motivations that can contribute to the perpetration of this form of violence, and explores persistent gaps and weaknesses in current efforts to deal with such violence. Throughout the report, where relevant, information is provided about what is being done to prevent and respond to conflict-related sexual and gender-based violence, with a sampling of efforts from the international, regional and domestic levels.

*Guidance and toolkits*

**UNIFEM. (2010). 'Addressing Conflict-Related Sexual Violence - An Analytical Inventory of Peacekeeping Practice'. UNIFEM, United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations, UN Action against Sexual Violence in Conflict, UNIFEM, New York**

<http://www.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2010/1/addressing-conflict-related-sexual-violence-an-analytical-inventory-of-peacekeeping-practice>

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

**Otto, D. and Gronberg, H. (2009). 'Confronting Sexual Violence in Conflict Situations, International Women's Tribune Centre, New York**

[http://www.iwtpc.org/Legal\\_Handbook/Handbook.pdf](http://www.iwtpc.org/Legal_Handbook/Handbook.pdf)

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

**Benjamin, J. A., and Murchison, L. (2004). 'Gender-based Violence: Care and Protection of Children in Emergencies – A Field Guide', Save the Children, London**

<http://www.rwamrec.org/essay7.pdf>

See also:

**Haider, H. (2009). 'Conflict and Sexual and Domestic Violence against Women', Helpdesk Research Report, GSDRC, Birmingham**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Helpdesk&id=500>

Sexual Violence in Armed Conflict Dataset. <http://www.sexualviolencedata.org/>

Sexual Violence Research Initiative. <http://www.svri.org/emergencies.htm>

### ***Access to services***

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

**McDevitt, A. (2009). 'The Impact of Conflict on Women's Education, Employment and Health Care', Helpdesk Research Report, GSDRC, Birmingham**

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

The extent to which conflict restricts women's freedom of movement depends on a number of factors including the stage of conflict, whether the women are displaced, whether they are directly or indirectly affected by the conflict, and the cultural norms of the conflict-affected area. Forced displacement, for example, may in some cases lead to greater mobility, where women assume additional responsibilities such as taking on the role of primary breadwinner. Nevertheless, it is generally accepted that the fear of violence usually restricts women's freedom of movement. In times of political, economic and social uncertainty, there is a strong tendency to revert to traditional values which appear to offer protection for women and girls, but which restrict their mobility.

**Chynoweth, S. K. (2008). 'The Need for Priority Reproductive Health Services for Displaced Iraqi Women and Girls', *Reproductive Health Matters*, vol. 16, no. 31, pp. 93-102**

<http://www.womensrefugeecommission.org/press-room/journal-articles/667-the-need-for-priority-reproductive-health-services-for-displaced-iraqi-women-and-girls>

Disregarding reproductive health in situations of conflict or natural disaster has serious consequences, particularly for women and girls affected by the emergency. In an effort to protect the health and save the lives of women and girls in crises, international standards for five priority reproductive health activities that must be implemented at the onset of an emergency have been

established for humanitarian actors: humanitarian coordination, prevention of and response to sexual violence, minimisation of HIV transmission, reduction of maternal and neonatal death and disability, and planning for comprehensive reproductive health services. Significant gaps in each of these areas exist in the context of refugees in Jordan fleeing the war in Iraq, particularly coordination, prevention of sexual violence, and care for survivors.

### ***Young women and girls as fighters***

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

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

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

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

#### **Denov, M. (2007). 'Girls in Fighting Forces: Moving Beyond Victimhood', Canadian International Development Agency, Ottawa**

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

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

#### **Maina, G. (2011). 'The Complexity of Applying UN Resolution 1325 in Post Conflict Reintegration Processes: The Case of Northern Uganda', African Centre for the Constructive Resolution of Disputes (ACCORD), Durban**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4167>

How effectively have the needs of women and girls been addressed during rehabilitation, reintegration and post-conflict reconstruction in Uganda? This study looks the reintegration experience of women and girls after the long war between the Ugandan government and the Lord's Resistance Army. The study analyses the situation in the context of UN Security Council Resolution 1325, which calls on all actors to address the special needs of women and girls during rehabilitation, reintegration and post-conflict reconstruction. The study concludes that, since the female

populations in northern Uganda still struggle with deprivation, want and exclusion, it is difficult to speak of meaningful and durable peace.

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

[http://asci.researchhub.ssrc.org/the-demobilization-and-political-participation-of-female-fighters-in-guatemala/resource\\_view](http://asci.researchhub.ssrc.org/the-demobilization-and-political-participation-of-female-fighters-in-guatemala/resource_view)

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

**Worthen, M., Veale, A., McKay, S. and Wessells, M. (2010). 'I Stand Like A Woman': Empowerment and Human Rights in the Context of Community-Based Reintegration of Girl Mothers Formerly Associated with Fighting Forces and Armed Groups, Journal of Human Rights Practice, vol. 2, no. 1, pp. 49-70**

[http://www.uwyo.edu/girlmotherspar/\\_files/pubs-i-stand-like-a-woman.pdf](http://www.uwyo.edu/girlmotherspar/_files/pubs-i-stand-like-a-woman.pdf)

This article explores empowerment and reintegration of young mothers who were associated with armed groups in Sierra Leone, Liberia and northern Uganda. Empowerment and rights are mutually constitutive, iterative processes for these women.

### ***Masculinity***

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

During extended periods of conflict, for example, men may lose their traditional roles as providers, which can result in a crisis of identity and threat of emasculation. This, in turn, could result in an increase in domestic violence and alcohol and drug abuse. In addition, the establishment of new social structures and authorities during conflict and the involvement of young men in fighting may establish new hierarchies, whereby young men brutally disempower older male authorities.

In order to engage in informed research strategies and more productive policy interventions, it is important to focus on both sides of the gender equation and to understand the relational quality and power dynamics between and among men and women. For example, post-conflict interventions

should not reinforce stereotypical men's roles as strong individuals and as providers, but should encourage flexible socioeconomic support and proper counselling mechanisms.

In addition, it is important to recognise that many ex-combatants, particularly male ex-combatants, were socialised with militaristic masculinity. Efforts need to be made to transform this masculine identity into a non-violent one, such that it does not persist in the aftermath of violent conflict through domestic violence and sexual assaults.

**Sudhakar, N. and Kuehnast, K. (2011). 'The Other Side of Gender: Including Masculinity Concerns in Conflict and Peacebuilding', United States Institute of Peace, Washington DC**

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

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

**Haas, J-W., Schäfer, R. (2009). 'Masculinity and Civil Wars in Africa – New Approaches to Overcoming Sexual Violence in War', Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) , Eschborn**

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

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

**Special Issue: Rethinking masculinity and practices of violence in conflict settings. *International feminist journal of politics*, 14(4).**

<http://www.tandfonline.com/toc/rfjp20/14/4#.U5reafldVqo>

Why rethink masculinity and conflict? The collection of articles presented in this special issue addresses a number of nuanced questions around masculinity. First, how are masculinities and violences connected in *specific locations* of power? Second, how do these connections play out *internationally*, in the interactions between political communities, however understood? Third, just how related are gendered identities to *fighting, killing and dying* in conflict settings? And fourth, how do the complexities of violence situated in this way reflect back onto *theorizing* about gendered hierarchy and difference?

## HUMANITARIAN INTERVENTIONS

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

**IASC. (2006). ‘Women, Girls, Boys and Men: Different Needs – Equal Opportunities’, Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC)**

[http://www.humanitarianinfo.org/iasc/documents/subsidi/tf\\_gender/IASC%20Gender%20Handbook%20\(Feb%202007\).pdf](http://www.humanitarianinfo.org/iasc/documents/subsidi/tf_gender/IASC%20Gender%20Handbook%20(Feb%202007).pdf)

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

**O’Gorman, E. and Clifton-Everest, I. (2009). ‘Review of Gender Issues Including Strategies against Gender-Based Violence in Humanitarian Interventions’, European Commission Directorate General for Humanitarian Aid (DG ECHO) – European Commission**

[http://ec.europa.eu/echo/files/evaluation/2009/Gender\\_Review\\_Final.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/echo/files/evaluation/2009/Gender_Review_Final.pdf)

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

**Foran, S., Swaine, A., & Burns, K. (2012). Improving the effectiveness of humanitarian action: progress in implementing the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) Gender Marker. *Gender & Development, 20 (2), 233-247.***

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2012.687221>

This article provides an overview of the development and implementation of the IASC Gender Marker. The use of the Gender Marker in humanitarian appeals and funding mechanisms is an important step in improving the way we think about gender in humanitarian action. The Gender Marker offers a means to measure current approaches and to hold actors accountable. Donors’ use of the Gender Marker to make decisions on which projects they fund is an important development and signifies some donors’ commitment to funding only interventions that address gender equality. The Gender Marker also facilitates further learning by humanitarian actors on gender mainstreaming to enhance the overall design and implementation of projects to address the priorities and interests of women, girls, boys, and men.

## ***Sexual and gender-based violence, displacement and protection***

During times of emergencies, weakening community structures, disruptions in law and order, economic hardship, migration and over-crowded living conditions in refugee/displacement camps are all factors that increase the risk of sexual and gender-based violence. In addition, women are often separated from male family members, increasing their risk of being subjected to such violence. This includes the risk not only of rape, but also of early/forced marriage, forced prostitution and trafficking.

Sexual and gender-based violence remains the most widespread and serious protection problem facing displaced and returnee women and girls. Increasingly lengthy stays in refugee/displacement camps, which are often located in insecure areas and may be subject to cross-border attacks, lack of privacy and livelihood opportunities, and declining international attention and resources, lead to various protection risks for women and girls. In addition, there are many reports of women being attacked after leaving camps to gather firewood and water. It is thus essential to ensure the adequate delivery of firewood, water and food on site.

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

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

### **Global Protection Cluster. (2010). 'Handbook for Coordinating Gender-based Violence Interventions in Humanitarian Settings', Gender-based Violence Area of Responsibility Working Group**

[http://www.unicef.org/protection/files/GBV\\_Handbook\\_Long\\_Version.pdf](http://www.unicef.org/protection/files/GBV_Handbook_Long_Version.pdf)

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

### **IASC. (2005). 'Guidelines for Gender-based Violence Interventions in Humanitarian Settings: Focusing on Prevention of and Response to Sexual Violence in Emergencies', Inter-Agency Standing Committee**

[http://ochanet.unocha.org/p/Documents/GBV%20Guidelines%20\(English\).pdf](http://ochanet.unocha.org/p/Documents/GBV%20Guidelines%20(English).pdf)

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

**UNHCR. (2008). 'UNHCR Handbook for the Protection of Women and Girls', UNHCR, Geneva**  
<http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/pdfid/47cfc2962.pdf>

This handbook is the guiding document for UNHCR's approach to women and girl refugees. It describes some of the protection challenges faced by women and girls and outlines various strategies to tackle these challenges. It sets out the legal standards and principles that guide UNHCR's work to protect women and girls and outlines the different roles and responsibilities of States and other actors. Suggestions for actions by UNHCR and partners to support women's and girls' enjoyment of their rights are also included. Examples of innovative practices from the field illustrate how these principles can be applied.

**Seelinger, K.T. and Freccero, J., with Stout, A. (2013). Safe Haven: Sheltering Displaced Persons from Sexual and Gender-Based Violence. Comparative Report. Human Rights Center, University of California, Berkeley.**

[http://www.law.berkeley.edu/files/HRC/SS\\_Comparative\\_web.pdf](http://www.law.berkeley.edu/files/HRC/SS_Comparative_web.pdf)

This paper reviews safe shelter programmes, which provide temporary protection for refugees fleeing SGBV. The research had three main aims: to identify and describe models of temporary physical shelter available to displaced persons in humanitarian settings; to shed light on challenges and strategies relevant to the provision of safe shelter to members of displaced communities; and to identify critical protection gaps. Interview data offered insights into safe shelter provision for displaced communities in Colombia, Haiti, Kenya and Thailand. The relationship and engagement of shelters with the surrounding community proved to be critically important, particularly in refugee camp settings, where safe shelter locations are impossible to hide. Access to shelters remained a problem, as was security of the shelters themselves. Staff expressed a need for emotional and psychosocial support for themselves. There were varying degrees of success for helping residents move back into communities.

See also:

**Walton, O. (2011). 'Key Resources on Gender and Humanitarian Responses', Helpdesk Research Report, Governance and Social Development Resource Centre, Birmingham, UK**  
<http://www.gsdrc.org/docs/open/HD787.pdf>

## **PEACEKEEPING AND PEACE SUPPORT OPERATIONS**

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

It also confirmed the need for a greater female presence in peacekeeping forces, which has been recognised as desirable for several reasons. In addition to countering the incidences of exploitation and abuse, studies have shown that the presence of women in peacekeeping missions broadens the

range of skills and styles available within the mission and improves access and support for local women.

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

**Pillay, A. (2006). 'Gender, Peace and Peacekeeping: Lessons from Southern Africa', ISS Paper 128, Institute for Security Studies, Pretoria**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=2592>

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

**Jennings, K. M. (2008). 'Protecting Whom? Approaches to Sexual Exploitation and Abuse in UN Peacekeeping Operations', Fafo, Oslo**

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

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

**Jennings, K. and Nikolić-Ristanović, V. (2009). 'UN Peacekeeping Economies and Local Sex Industries: Connections and Implications', MICROCON Research Working Paper 17, Brighton**

[http://www.microconflict.eu/publications/RWP17\\_KJ\\_VNR.pdf](http://www.microconflict.eu/publications/RWP17_KJ_VNR.pdf)

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

**Boehme, J. (2008). 'Human Rights and Gender Components of UN and EU Peace Operations: Putting Human Rights and Gender Mandates into Practice', German Institute for Human Rights**

[http://www.institut-fuer-menschenrechte.de/uploads/tx\\_commerce/study\\_human\\_rights\\_and\\_gender\\_components.pdf](http://www.institut-fuer-menschenrechte.de/uploads/tx_commerce/study_human_rights_and_gender_components.pdf)

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

**Dharmapuri, S. (2013). Not Just a Numbers Game: Increasing Women's Participation in UN Peacekeeping. Providing for Peacekeeping No. 4, New York: International Peace Institute.**

<http://www.providingforpeacekeeping.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/08/IPI-EPub-Not-Just-a-Numbers-Game.pdf>

The inclusion of female uniformed personnel in national contributions to UN peace operations has fallen short of expectations. By March 2013, women comprised less than 4 percent of UN peacekeepers globally, accounting for about 3 percent of UN military personnel and about 9.7 percent of UN police. The UN is unlikely to reach its goals for gender equality in peacekeeping missions. This paper suggests that this is due to three reasons: the lack of understanding among member states about Resolution 1325 and UN policy on gender equality; a gap in data and analysis about women's participation in national security institutions globally and in UN peacekeeping; and the prevalence of social norms and biases that perpetuate gender inequality within the security sector. Further, the UN and member states' focus on increasing the numbers of female uniformed personnel has obscured the equally important goal of integrating a gender perspective into the work of peace operations.

### *Case studies*

**Friesendorf, C. and Penksa, S. (2008). 'Militarized Law Enforcement in Peace Operations: EUFOR in Bosnia and Herzegovina', International Peacekeeping, vol. 15, no. 5, pp. 677-694**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3564>

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

**Bah, A.M.S., and Johnstone, I. (2007). 'Peacekeeping in Sudan: The Dynamics of Protection, Partnerships and Inclusive Politics', The Centre on International Cooperation, New York**

[http://www.cic.nyu.edu/staff/docs/bah/bad\\_sudan.pdf](http://www.cic.nyu.edu/staff/docs/bah/bad_sudan.pdf)

**ICG. (2009). 'China's Growing Role in UN Peacekeeping', Asia Report, no. 166, International Crisis Group, Brussels**

[http://www.crisisgroup.org/~media/Files/asia/north-east-asia/166\\_chinas\\_growing\\_role\\_in\\_un\\_peacekeeping.ashx](http://www.crisisgroup.org/~media/Files/asia/north-east-asia/166_chinas_growing_role_in_un_peacekeeping.ashx)

# GENDER, STATEBUILDING AND PEACEBUILDING

## Contents:

- Introduction
- Development and reconstruction interventions
- DDR and security sector reform
- Transitional justice
- Case studies

For women's citizenship and state-society relations, please see GSDRC's Topic Guide Supplement on *State-Society Relations and Citizenship in Situations of Conflict and Fragility*

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/topic-guides/state-society-relations-and-citizenship>

## INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

It is important to understand the links between gender and fragility, and gender and violent conflict – and the implications of failing to take gender into account. It is essential that gender not be seen as

a 'soft' topic of secondary importance to establishing security: gender is often at the core of creating sustainable peace and security. In many fragile states, for example, it is particular gender ideals of power that perpetuate a culture of violence in which client-patron relations, corruption and discrimination against and suppression of women and minorities can flourish. Alongside the promotion of greater involvement of women in statebuilding and peacebuilding processes, attention also needs to be paid to transforming the cultures and systems that reinforce gender power inequalities. This requires tackling both formal and informal patterns of power and resource allocation. Efforts to introduce gender concerns and to improve women's participation require developing relationships within communities and garnering support from local leaders.

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

**Cordaid. (2010). Gender-responsive Peace and State-building: Changing the Culture of Power in Fragile States, A Cordaid and WO=MEN Policy Brief**

<http://www.wo-men.nl/cms/wp-content/uploads/2011/05/2010.10.13-Final-Policy-Brief-Cordaid-Gender-responsive-peace-and-state-building.pdf>

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

**Castillejo, C. (2011). 'Building a State that Works for Women: Integrating Gender into Post-Conflict State Building', FRIDE, Madrid**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4112>

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

**O'Connell, H. (2011). 'What are the Opportunities to Promote Gender Equity and Equality in Conflict-affected and Fragile States? Insights from a Review of Evidence', Gender and Development, vol. 19, no. 3, pp. 455-466**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4256>

This article examines women's political and economic empowerment and women and girls' access to quality services in conflict-affected and fragile states. It finds that there has been some success in relation to women's participation in elections and formal politics and engagement in small-scale economic enterprise. It argues, however, that inequitable gender power relations have not been considered or understood and so opportunities have been lost.

**Benard, C. et al. (2008). 'Women and Nation-building', RAND Corporation, Santa Monica, CA**  
<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4293>

What role do women play in post-conflict nation-building? How do processes of nation-building affect the status and situation of women? A literature review and findings from Afghanistan indicate that greater stability and improved outcomes would be likely if there were: 1) a more genuine emphasis on the concept of human security; 2) a focus on establishing governance based on principles of equity and consistent rule of law from the start; and 3) economic inclusion of women in the earliest stages of reconstruction activities.

**OECD. (2013). Gender and Statebuilding in Fragile and Conflict-affected States. Conflict and Fragility, OECD Publishing.** DOI:10.1787/9789264202061-en

[http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/development/gender-and-statebuilding-in-fragile-and-conflict-affected-states\\_9789264202061-en;jsessionid=8okulrjlog06d.x-oecd-live-02](http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/development/gender-and-statebuilding-in-fragile-and-conflict-affected-states_9789264202061-en;jsessionid=8okulrjlog06d.x-oecd-live-02)

This publication makes the case for gender-sensitive statebuilding based on the inherent value of gender equality as well as its contribution to better development outcomes and the achievement of peacebuilding and statebuilding goals. The paper provides an overview for the donor community of the challenges, opportunities and prospects for more systematic consideration of gender relations. Based on a series of empirical examples of donor practices, the brief distills key success factors and concrete entry points for tackling these challenges and achieving a more effective, more politically informed approach to integrating gender into statebuilding.

**Domingo, P., Holmes, R., Rocha Menocal, A. & Jones, N., with Bhuvanendra, D., and Wood, J. (2013). Assessment of the Evidence of Links Between Gender Equality, Peacebuilding and Statebuilding: Literature Review. London: ODI.**

<http://www.odi.org.uk/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/8767.pdf>

What is the evidence on gender-sensitive approaches to peacebuilding and statebuilding? This assessment finds that the literature on peacebuilding and statebuilding does not address the question of gender directly or explicitly. The evidence on causal connections between gender-sensitive approaches and advancing the goals of peacebuilding and statebuilding is not robust. It is useful to look more closely at thematic and sector-specific components of peacebuilding and statebuilding, but the knowledge base is weak on how the relevant thematic areas intersect to enhance opportunities and capabilities for advancing gender equality goals in FCAS. There is limited research on identifying differences among women's experiences and interests in peacebuilding and statebuilding that result from class, ethnicity, religion or other relevant cleavages, and how these feature in country-specific socio-political histories of fragility and conflict.

**El-Bushra, J. (2012) Gender in Peacebuilding: Taking Stock. London: International Alert.**

<http://www.international-alert.org/sites/default/files/publications/201210GenderPeacebuilding-EN.pdf>

This report reflects the findings of the preparatory stage of a three-year research project exploring the role of gender in peacebuilding. It synthesises a review of current literature and a series of workshops in Burundi and Nepal which explored how practitioners, government representatives and donors viewed the issues. The report summarises these findings and presents tentative conclusions that will be further explored in later phases of the research.

## **DEVELOPMENT AND RECONSTRUCTION INTERVENTIONS**

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

### ***Legal frameworks***

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

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

### ***Political governance***

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

### ***Economic governance and opportunities***

Wars often result in changes to gender relations in the economic realm. There are more female heads of household and women have to take over traditionally male duties. They have to become more active in formal and informal markets in order to provide for their families. Economic interventions in fragile and conflict-affected contexts, similar to peaceful situations, often seek to advance women's economic empowerment through micro-enterprise support. It is important,

however, that interventions are not restricted to this micro-level but also challenge men's greater control over economic resources, such as agricultural land. An important area of reform is to remove the legal and informal restrictions on women's ownership of and control over land.

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

### *Social services*

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

### *Addressing trauma*

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

### *Rebuilding trust and social relations*

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

Some initiatives aimed at restoring trust and building social relations are focused on women, such as knitting groups and small business ventures that aim to bring women together across divides through income generation opportunities. In order to transform gender relations and promote gender equality, however, projects need to go beyond women-to-women activities, for example through the involvement of women and men of differing identity groups in local development

institutions and structures for non-violent conflict-resolution. These can range from planning boards and community committees to local government.

**Justino, P., Cardona, I., Mitchell, R. and Müller, C. (2012) 'Quantifying the Impact of Women's Participation in Post-conflict Economic Recovery'. HiCN Working Paper 131. Brighton: IDS.**

<http://www.hicn.org/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2012/06/HiCN-WP-131.pdf>

This report presents the results of a study commissioned by UN Women on the integration of women in post-conflict economic recovery processes. The main aim of this report is to analyse how changes in the roles and activities of women during episodes of violent conflict may shape their contribution to post-conflict economic recovery and sustainable peace. The report poses two important questions for which limited evidence is available:

How does violent conflict change the roles that women take on within their households and communities? How do changes in female roles during conflict affect women's own status after the conflict, and the capacity of households and communities to recover from the conflict? The research was based on a literature review and original comparative empirical analysis in six country case studies: Bosnia and Herzegovina, Colombia, Kosovo, Nepal, Tajikistan and Timor Leste. Three key findings are: Women participate more actively in labour markets during conflict; Vulnerability among women increases during conflict; Increases in the labour participation of women in conflict-affected areas are in some cases associated with increases in overall household and community welfare.

**Greenberg, M. E. and Zuckerman, E. (2009). 'The Gender Dimensions of Post-Conflict Reconstruction: The Challenges in Development Aid', in Making Peace Work: The Challenges of Social and Economic Reconstruction, eds. T. Addison and T. Brück, Palgrave MacMillan and UNU-WIDER, Helsinki**

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

What role do gender dimensions play in post-conflict reconstruction (PCR)? Policymakers have largely been slow to employ gender analysis and focus. This paper proposes a framework of three interrelated gender dimensions to help develop more effective approaches to PCR: (i) women-focused activities, (ii) gender-aware programming, and (iii) strategic attention to transforming gender relations in order to heal trauma, build social capital and avoid further violence. Policies aimed at achieving gender equality may be instrumental for achieving sustainable peace.

**Bouta, T., Frerks, G. and Bannon, I. (2005). 'Gender, Conflict and Development', The World Bank, Washington DC**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4300>

What are the gender dimensions of intrastate conflict? This extensive review examines: the gender roles of women and men before, during, and after conflict; gender role changes throughout conflict; and challenges in sustaining positive gender role changes and mitigating negative effects. Policy suggestions relate to issues such as: considering women's more difficult social reintegration; targeting both men and women when addressing gender-based violence; building on skills acquired during conflict; gender-sensitising health and education systems; and adopting community-based approaches in reconstruction.

**Norville, V. (2011). 'The Role of Women in Global Security', USIP Special Report, no. 264, United States Institute of Peace (USIP), Washington DC**

[http://www.peacewomen.org/assets/file/Resources/Government/wps\\_theroleofwomeninglobalsecurity\\_jan2011.pdf](http://www.peacewomen.org/assets/file/Resources/Government/wps_theroleofwomeninglobalsecurity_jan2011.pdf)

What are women's roles in peacebuilding, postconflict reconstruction, and economic development? This report draws on a conference on The Role of Women in Global Security, held in October 2010. It highlights that the number of women participating in peace settlements remains marginal, and women are still underrepresented in public office, at the negotiating table, and in peacekeeping missions. The needs and perspectives of women are often overlooked in postconflict DDR, as well as in security sector reform, rehabilitation of justice, and the rule of law. Sexual and gender-based violence often continues in the aftermath of war and is typically accompanied by impunity for the perpetrators. A continuing lack of physical security and the existence of significant legal constraints hamper women's integration into economic life and leadership. Best practices for increasing women's participation include deployment of gender-balanced peacekeeping units, a whole-of-government approach to security sector and judicial reform, solicitation of the input of women at the community level on priorities for national budgets and international programs.

**Whittington, S. (2011). 'Women, peace and security: a gendered approach to aid effectiveness in post-conflict development,' A think piece commissioned by AusAID's Office of Development Effectiveness**

[http://www.ode.dfat.gov.au/current\\_work/documents/women-peace-security-aid-effectiveness-sherrill-whittington.pdf](http://www.ode.dfat.gov.au/current_work/documents/women-peace-security-aid-effectiveness-sherrill-whittington.pdf)

This paper provides an overview of the issues around gender, peace and security. It covers the main issues of prioritising women's input, including them in formal peace processes, sexual and gender-based violence. It also provides some success stories from Timor Leste, Rwanda, Papua New Guinea and the Solomon Islands.

**Moser, A. (2007). 'Women Building Peace and Preventing Sexual Violence in Conflict-Affected Contexts: A Review of Community-Based Approaches', UNIFEM**

[http://www.unwomen.org/~media/Headquarters/Media/Publications/UNIFEM/0202\\_WomenBuildingPeaceAndPreventingSexualViolence\\_en.pdf](http://www.unwomen.org/~media/Headquarters/Media/Publications/UNIFEM/0202_WomenBuildingPeaceAndPreventingSexualViolence_en.pdf)

What are the community-level and traditional conflict resolution practices of women? This is a background paper informing UNIFEM's work on preventing sexual violence in conflict. The thematic sections examine the barriers women face, and highlight examples of women's successful engagement in peace-building. Women face barriers such as exclusion from decision-making forums and formal peace processes; lack of funding; resistance to cultural change; and security risks. Successful approaches include coalition-building; digital technologies; combining traditional and modern approaches; and facilitating women's participation in existing processes.

**True, J. (2013). Women, peace and security in post-conflict and peacebuilding contexts. Norwegian Peacebuilding Resource Centre, Policy Brief, March.**

[http://peacebuilding.no/var/ezflow\\_site/storage/original/application/350cb287327f86cdf2369b23c98a17da.pdf](http://peacebuilding.no/var/ezflow_site/storage/original/application/350cb287327f86cdf2369b23c98a17da.pdf)

This policy brief outlines an integrated framework for addressing institutional and structural barriers to gender equality in post-conflict situations. The brief recommends: targeting measures to increase women's representation in post-conflict governance; improving government responsiveness to

sexual and gender-based violence against women; securing women's economic and social rights; designing reparations for women's economic empowerment; incorporating gender budgeting in all post-conflict financing arrangements; and prioritising gender equality in the security sector.

### *Case studies*

**Nada Mustafa Ali (2011). *Gender and Statebuilding in South Sudan*, U.S. Institute of Peace, Washington**

<http://www.usip.org/files/resources/SR298.pdf>

**Larson, A. (2008). 'A Mandate to Mainstream: Promoting Gender Equality in Afghanistan', Afghanistan Research and Evaluation Unit, Kabul**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3281>

**Abdullah, H. J., Ibrahim, A. F. and King, J. (2010). 'Women's Voices, Work and Bodily Integrity in Pre-Conflict, Conflict and Post-Conflict Reconstruction Processes in Sierra Leone', vol. 41, no. 2, pp. 37-45**

<http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1759-5436.2010.00121.x/abstract>

## **DDR AND SECURITY SECTOR REFORM**

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

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

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

In order for security services to be trusted, responsive and effective, they must be representative of diverse population groups. Security sector reform provides the opportunity to create more inclusive and less discriminatory security sector institutions, not only in terms of ethnicity but also in terms of

gender. In most cases, however, post-conflict SSR processes are designed and implemented by men. This is due in large part to the comparative lack of participation of women in government security agencies and in leadership positions of defence and security committees.

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

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

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

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

**Bastick, M. (2011). 'Gender Self-Assessment Guide for the Police, Armed Forces and Justice Sector' Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces (DCAF), Geneva**

[http://www.dcaf.ch/content/download/40997/605027/file/self\\_assessment\\_guide.pdf](http://www.dcaf.ch/content/download/40997/605027/file/self_assessment_guide.pdf)

Conducting a gender assessment can be a first step in transforming security sector institutions into gender-responsive institutions. This document provides guidance on how to conduct such an assessment. A gender-responsive security sector institution is one that both meets the distinct and different security and justice needs of men, women, boys and girls and promotes the full and equal participation of men and women.

**Basini, H. S. (2013). Gender Mainstreaming Unraveled: The Case of DDR in Liberia. *International Interactions*, 39(4), 535-557.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03050629.2013.805129>

Using interviews with women associated with fighting forces (WAFFs)/ex-combatants the article argues that their unique needs, especially those of a social and psychological nature, were poorly addressed. The programme did have a specific targeted focus showing some gender responsive design and coordination. The commentary shows that there was no attention to structural inequality issues such as sexual and gender based violence. Gender mainstreaming was more successful in the 'DD' component of the programme, where WAFFs' participation was increased. The RR components had elements of gender mainstreaming but did not conduct sufficient job market analysis, provide tools to help women utilize their skills, or assist women socially or psychologically with any issues of trauma or with community reconciliation. This paper recommends these RR components are de-linked from DD, and run over a longer timeframe for gender equality goals to be met.

**Specht, I. (2013). Gender, Disarmament, Demobilization and Reintegration and Violent Masculinities. *cadernos*, 61.**

[http://www.researchgate.net/publication/258517593\\_Gender\\_Violence\\_in\\_Armed\\_Conflicts/file/72e7e52889f56b4749.pdf#page=62](http://www.researchgate.net/publication/258517593_Gender_Violence_in_Armed_Conflicts/file/72e7e52889f56b4749.pdf#page=62)

This paper examines masculine and feminine identities in conflict. With regard to DDR, it posits that this process can proliferate GBV as it causes identity loss for men. During conflict, men are judged on their ability to protect, attack, and be violent. This creates violence as a measure of masculinity. DDR may cause men to lose their identities as fighters and protectors, which can result in feelings of emasculation. For female ex-combatants, DDR may remove the freedom gained by breaking out of traditional female roles, and they may find it hard to reintegrate as they have 'crossed the line of femininity'. Tensions may arise between empowered women and frustrated men. This may contribute to GBV.

**Hendricks, C. (2012). Research on gender and SSR in Africa. In Eriksson Baaz, M. and Utas, M. (eds.) Beyond 'Gender and Stir'. Nordic Africa Institute (NAI)**

<http://www.isn.ethz.ch/Digital-Library/Publications/Detail/?ots591=0c54e3b3-1e9c-be1e-2c24-a6a8c7060233&lng=en&id=156946>

This is an overview chapter which explores the paucity of literature on gender in SSR. Most literature is toolkits, guidelines, policy papers and reports rather than rigorous analysis and evidence. It provides an overview of what SSR is, why it is important to integrate gender into SSR programming, and to present the major arguments visible in the literature.

### ***Police reform***

**UNIFEM (2007). 'Gender Sensitive Police Reform in Post Conflict Societies', Policy briefing paper, UNIFEM and UNDP.**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3092>

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

**Moser, A. et al. (2009). 'Case Studies of Gender-Sensitive Police Reform in Rwanda and Timor-Leste', UNIFEM and UNDP**

[http://www.unwomen.org/~media/Headquarters/Media/Publications/UNIFEM/0602\\_CaseStudiesOfGenderSensitivePoliceReform\\_en.pdf](http://www.unwomen.org/~media/Headquarters/Media/Publications/UNIFEM/0602_CaseStudiesOfGenderSensitivePoliceReform_en.pdf)

This paper outlines UNIFEM's approach to gender-sensitive SSR. It examines UNIFEM's initiatives to support gender-sensitive police reform in Rwanda and Timor-Leste. This reform aims to create a police service that effectively responds to security needs and builds police institutions that are non-discriminatory, encouraging of women's participation at all levels, and accountable to all of their citizens. The programmes have experienced both successes and challenges. Successes have been around training police and providing women-specific or gender-sensitive services.

**Becker, J., & Kuranchie, A. (2012). *Freedom through Association: Assessing the Contributions of Female Police Staff Associations to Gender-Sensitive Police Reform in West Africa*. The North-South Institute / DCAF.**

[http://www.operationspaix.net/DATA/DOCUMENT/7380~v~Freedom\\_Through\\_Association\\_\\_Assessing\\_the\\_Contribution\\_of\\_Female\\_Police\\_Staff\\_Associations\\_to\\_Gender-sensitive\\_Police\\_Reform\\_in\\_West\\_Africa.pdf](http://www.operationspaix.net/DATA/DOCUMENT/7380~v~Freedom_Through_Association__Assessing_the_Contribution_of_Female_Police_Staff_Associations_to_Gender-sensitive_Police_Reform_in_West_Africa.pdf)

What are women in Liberia, Sierra Leone and Ghana doing in police services to change the nature of their work? Female police staff associations are contributing to changing the culture of policing and assisting female officers assert themselves within the service. Support networks, regular meetings and burden sharing through welfare activities builds confidence among female police in the face of negative stereotypes and traditional gender roles. Female police associations have the capacity to do more concrete work – for example, launching mentorship programmes for junior female officers and engaging in sectoral reform monitoring efforts. Moreover, female associations have solid perspectives on what needs to be changed within the policing system that directly disadvantages women.

**Bacon, L. (2013). *Liberia's Gender-sensitive Police Reform: Starting from scratch? Improving representation and responsiveness* (No. UNU-WIDER Research Paper WP2013/114).**

<http://www.wider.unu.edu/stc/repec/pdfs/wp2013/WP2013-114.pdf>

This paper explores the Liberia National Police's innovative efforts to create a more gender-sensitive police service. In particular, the paper analyses Liberia National Police's efforts to (1) recruit female police officers and (2) train a specialized unit to address gender-related crimes. Ambitious recruitment efforts brought more women on board, but some critics regarded the related fast-track programme as misguided or ineffective. The specialized unit increased awareness about and response to gender-based violence, but was impeded by a broken judicial system. Success factors of both projects included the timing (post-conflict window of opportunity), the context (momentum for gender-sensitive reforms), local ownership (a supportive president), and the nature of the aid (problem-driven interventions and iterative learning, vast financial and technical support, including dedicated and continuous support from the United Nations).

### ***Monitoring and Evaluation***

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

<http://www.unrol.org/files/GPS-TK-AME.pdf>

See also GSDRC'S Topic Guide on Safety Security and Justice: <http://www.gsdrc.org/go/topic-guides/safety-security-and-justice>

## **TRANSITIONAL JUSTICE**

The United Nations defines transitional justice as the full range of processes and mechanisms associated with a society's attempts to come to terms with a legacy of large-scale past abuses, in order to ensure accountability, serve justice and achieve reconciliation. These involve judicial and non-judicial mechanisms (with differing levels of international involvement, or none at all) that

include individual prosecutions, reparations, truth-seeking, institutional reform, vetting and dismissals, or a combination thereof.

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

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

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

**Buckley-Zistel, S. and Zolkos, M. (2011). 'Introduction: Gender and Transitional Justice', in eds. S. Buckley-Zistel, and R. Stanley, *Gender in Transitional Justice*, Palgrave Macmillan**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4287>

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

**Valji, N., with Sigsworth, R. and Goetz, A. M. (2010). 'A Window of Opportunity: Making Transitional Justice Work for Women', United Nations Development Fund for Women**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4173>

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

**Valji, N. (2007). 'Gender Justice and Reconciliation', Occasional paper, no. 35, Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung, Berlin**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3142>

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

**Bell, C., and O'Rourke, C. (2007). 'Does Feminism Need a Theory of Transitional Justice? An Introductory Essay', International Journal of Transitional Justice, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 23-44**

<http://ijtj.oxfordjournals.org/content/1/1/23.abstract>

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

**Hovil, L. (2012). Gender, Transitional Justice, and Displacement. ICTJ/Brookings.**

<http://www.brookings.edu/~media/Projects/idp/tj%20case%20studies/Hovil%20Gender%20Great%20Lakes.pdf>

How can transitional justice make gender-sensitive reparations for displacement? This paper on Africa's Great Lakes region considers briefly three gender-specific dynamics of conflict and displacement that need to be incorporated within post-conflict reconstruction and transitional justice. First, the implications of sexual and gender-based violence against women and men at all stages of displacement and the implications for transitional justice mechanisms. Second, the gender-specific economic consequences of displacement and the subsequent search for durable solutions, focusing specifically on the challenges faced by women at the point of return and the relevance of gender specificities for any reparations or restitution programmes. Finally, the vulnerability of young men and their association with conflict, which affects their ability to safely repatriate within certain contexts.

**O'Rourke, C. (2013). *Gender Politics in Transitional Justice*. Routledge.**

<http://www.routledge.com/books/details/9780415826341/>

This book explores in depth the many facets of gender inequality in transitional justice processes. It looks at the extent to which transitional justice processes redress violations of women's human rights, secure the non-recurrence of violations, and empower women's movements in post-conflict societies. It examines feminist engagement with transitional justice processes and their outcomes for women, with case studies on Chile, Northern Ireland and Colombia.

### ***Truth commissions and reparations***

Truth commissions, a key transitional justice mechanism, are established to research and report on massive human rights violations from armed conflict or under authoritarian regimes. The reports produced by these commissions often provide policy recommendations, including the provision of reparations. Reparations refer to various measures that aim to redress past wrongs and provide compensation, rehabilitation and satisfaction for victims. It is important to include a gender

perspective in the work of truth commissions and in discussions of reparations. This would allow the documentation of the differing experiences of women in conflict, violence and repression, and could also promote an exploration of root causes of the conflict – including unequal power relations and gender inequality. It would allow reparations to be tailored to the needs of women and to address social and economic inequality linked to gender.

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

**World Bank. (2006). ‘Gender, Justice, and Truth Commissions’, World Bank, Washington DC**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=1982>

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

**Rubio-Marín, R. (2006). ‘What Happened to the Women? Gender and Reparations for Human Rights Violations’, *Advancing Transitional Justice Series, no. 1*, International Center for Transitional Justice, Social Science Research Council, New York**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=2676>

What happens to women whose lives are transformed by human rights violations? This volume explores gender and reparations policies in Guatemala, Peru, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, South Africa, and Timor-Leste. It argues for the systematic introduction of a gender dimension into reparations programmes as a way of acknowledging the rights of female victims.

**Maisel, P. (2013). *Greensboro and Beyond: Remediating the Structural Sexism in Truth and Reconciliation Processes and Determining the Potential Impact and Benefits of Truth Processes in the United States*. Florida International University Legal Studies Research Paper No. 13-11.**

<http://ssrn.com/abstract=2298322>

What effect do truth and reconciliation commissions have on the particular types of abuse and violations suffered by women and the impact on women's lives? Feminist scholars have noted that TRCs have ignored or minimised particular abuses suffered by women and failed to adequately include women's issues and perspectives among their findings. The first part of this chapter examines why the impact on women has been limited in so many TRC processes because of what is included in their mandates and who they define as victims. It demonstrates that failure to focus on women turned what was supposed to be gender neutral into a male-dominated process. The next

section examines the Greensboro Commission, often called the first US Truth Commission. The final section looks at whether and how truth commissions may be useful in other communities or more broadly in the U.S. where there have been violations of human rights.

### **Case studies**

**Tabak, S. (2011). 'False Dichotomies of Transitional Justice: Gender, Conflict and Combatants in Colombia', *International Law and Politics*, v. 44, pp. 103-163**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4286>

How do transitional justice mechanisms perceive the role of women and men in conflict and post-conflict situations? How might a gendered approach to transitional justice apply to the situation of female combatants in Colombia? Transitional justice mechanisms fail to be gender inclusive when they neglect the multiple gendered roles that men and women play in conflict and post-conflict situations. Examining transitional justice from a gendered lens reveals crucial detail about the situation of women in conflict and provides opportunities to transform the gendered origins of conflict.

**Valji, N. (2010). 'Gender and Transitional Justice Programming: A Review of Peru, Sierra Leone and Rwanda', UNIFEM**

<http://www.unrol.org/files/Guidance%20note%20on%20Gender%20&%20Transitional%20Justice.pdf>

This paper reviews three case studies (Sierra Leone, Rwanda, and Peru) to examine lessons and best practice for gender-sensitive transitional justice programming. This brief summarises in-depth research reports. The focus is primarily on sexual and gender-based violence and ways women have been able to seek justice for these crimes. It highlights that formal justice is only one part of a gender justice strategy, which should include peacebuilding; DDR; SSR; access to services, security and justice; prevention of continuing violence; legislative reforms; and understanding of the gendered nature of conflict.

**Patterson-Markowitz, R., Oglesby, E., & Marston, S. (2012). "Subjects of Change": Feminist Geopolitics and Gendered Truth-Telling in Guatemala. *Journal of International Women's Studies*, 13(4).**

<http://vc.bridgew.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1024&context=jiws>

This paper explores the role of gender in transitional justice mechanisms and the importance of women's struggles and agency. It focuses on the women's movement in Guatemala to address questions of justice and healing for survivors of gendered violence during Guatemala's 36-year internal armed conflict. It discusses how the initial transitional justice measures of documenting gendered war crimes in the context of a genocide were subsequently taken up by the women's movement and how their endeavors to further expose sexual violence have resulted in notable interventions. They argue that war-related violence can be seen as an extension of the abuse and aggression that is normalized in everyday life. Their goal is to de-normalize these practices so that alternative forms of gendered social relations might be developed.

For more resources on transitional justice, see the GSDRC's '[Transitional Justice](#)' guide.

See also the International Centre of Transitional Justice's [Gender Justice](#) web pages.

## GENDER AND CLIMATE CHANGE

Contents:

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

### INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

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

**Skinner, E. (2011). 'Gender and Climate Change: Overview Report', BRIDGE Cutting Edge Pack on Gender and Climate Change, Institute of Development Studies, Brighton**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4305>

This report argues that gender transformation is both an important condition and a potential end goal of effective climate change responses and poverty reduction. It highlights the need to put

people at the centre of climate change responses, and to pay particular attention to the challenges and opportunities that climate change presents in the struggle for gender equality.

**Neumayer, E. and Plumper, T. (2007). 'The Gendered Nature of Natural Disasters: The Impact of Catastrophic Events on the Gender Gap in Life Expectancy, 1981–2002', in *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 97(3), 2007, pp. 551–566**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4261>

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

**Alston, M. (2013). *Gender Mainstreaming and Climate Change*. In *Women's Studies International Forum*. Pergamon.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.wsif.2013.01.016>

Emerging research indicates that climate change has significant gendered impacts, yet policies and practices for mitigation and adaptation strategies have failed to incorporate gender mainstreaming. The scientific and technological focus of many responses has a lack of attention to social outcomes, and specifically the differing impacts on vulnerable groups. This paper takes an in-depth look at gender mainstreaming, its history and manifestations and discusses ways that it might create the space for transformative change in gender power relations in post-disaster situations. There is an urgent need for gender mainstreaming to be part of the appraisal of all actions in post-disaster work but also a danger that the limited understanding of this concept or its uncritical application will result in technocratic exercises rather than genuine gender assessment.

**Carr, E. R., & Thompson, M. C. (2014). *Gender and Climate Change Adaptation in Agrarian Settings: Current Thinking, New Directions, and Research Frontiers*. *Geography Compass*, 8(3), 182-197.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/gec3.12121>

This paper argues that a binary construction of gender (women vs men) is likely to overlook the most important challenges of agrarian populations, and may increase vulnerability rather than reduce it. An emerging climate change adaptation literature takes on a more nuanced intersectional approach to gender, making conceptual, methodological, and empirical arguments against assessing through binary gender categories. Efforts to adopt intersectional gender analyses face two challenges: First, convincing analysts of the value of this theoretical shift will require a rigorous empirical base of evidence for who is overlooked by binary gender analysis. Second, facilitating intersectional approaches will require methodological innovations.

## GENDERED IMPACTS OF CLIMATE CHANGE

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

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

In addition, crop failure as a result of sporadic rainfall may result in the selective malnourishment or starvation of girls and women, especially in cultures where men are used to eating before women and girls. Selective malnourishment of 'less important' members of the family can also be used as a strategy to ensure the family's survival. Women also often face the most negative economic implications of crop failure as they usually have fewer economic resources to fall back on in times of crisis. This also has implications for the health of many women and girls, as malnourishment increases the risk of contracting infections. Further, women and girls' lower socioeconomic status make it more difficult for them to access and pay for treatment.

The different experiences of men and women regarding climate change has led one analyst to argue that 'gender transformation is both an important *condition* and a potential *end goal* of effective climate change responses and poverty reduction' (Skinner 2011:13).

**Goh, A. H. (2012). *A literature review of the gender-differentiated impacts of climate change on women's and men's assets and well-being in developing countries* (No. 106, p. 38). CAPRI Working Paper.**

<http://www.ifpri.org/publication/literature-review-gender-differentiated-impacts-climate-change?print>

What are the gender-differentiated impacts of climate change on women and men? With limited evidence from developing countries, this review shows that climate change affects women's and men's assets and well-being differently in six impact areas: (i) impacts related to agricultural production, (ii) food security, (iii) health, (iv) water and energy resources, (v) climate-induced migration and conflict, and (vi) climate-related natural disasters. Empirical evidence is limited, patchy, varied, and highly contextual in nature, which makes it difficult to draw strong conclusions. Findings are indicative of the complexities in the field of gender and climate change, and signal that multidisciplinary research is needed.

**Alston, M., & Whittenbury, K. (2013). *Research, Action and Policy: Addressing the Gendered Impacts of Climate Change*. Springer.**

<http://link.springer.com/book/10.1007/978-94-007-5518-5>

This book addresses the main issues of gender and climate change. The first part looks at gender and climate justice, particularly looking at climate science and its inherent values. The second part interrogates climate policy from a gender perspective. It looks at the need for gender-sensitive climate policy and the gendered impacts of disasters. The next part looks at gendered climate change actions and strategies. The final part takes a geographical perspective to look at gendered impacts by world region.

**Swarup, A., et al. (2011). 'Weathering the Storm: Adolescent Girls and Climate Change', Plan International**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4295>

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

**Lambrou, Y. and Nelson, S. (2010). 'Farmers in a Changing Climate. Does Gender Matter? Food Security in Andhra Pradesh, India', Food and Agricultural Organization, Rome.**

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

This report presents the findings of research undertaken in six villages in two drought-prone districts of Andhra Pradesh. The study used gender, institutional, and climate analyses to document the trends in climate variability men and women farmers are facing, and their responses to ensure food security in the context of larger socio-economic and political challenges to their livelihoods and well-being. The findings confirm that there is a strong gender dimension to the way in which climate variability is experienced and expressed by farmers in their coping strategies. Women's and men's perceptions of and responses to impacts of dry conditions, as well as their access to resources and support, differ in important ways. These findings demonstrate that gender analysis enhances our understanding of what farmers perceive as risks and how they respond to climatic changes.

## **CLIMATE CHANGE MITIGATION**

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

**Bäthge, S. (2010). 'Climate Change and Gender: Economic Empowerment of Women through Climate Mitigation and Adaptation?', GTZ Working Papers, GTZ, Eschborn**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4275>

This paper argues that the economic empowerment of women through climate mitigation and adaptation fosters economic growth and socioeconomic development, reduces poverty, keeps environmental problems in check and increases the potential for adaptation. It requires an integrated approach and institutional and political measures to create the structural conditions necessary for broad-based and sustainable economic empowerment.

## **ADAPTATION STRATEGIES**

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

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

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

**CARE. (2010). 'Adaptation, Gender and Women's Empowerment', CARE International Climate Change Brief, CARE International UK, London**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4282>

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

**Onta, N. and Resurreccion, B. (2011). 'The Role of Gender and Caste in Climate Adaptation Strategies in Nepal', Mountain Research and Development, 31(4), pp. 351-356.**

<http://www.gsdr.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4271>

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

**Tschakert, P., & Machado, M. (2012). Gender justice and rights in climate change adaptation: opportunities and pitfalls. *Ethics and Social Welfare*, 6(3), 275-289.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/17496535.2012.704929>

How does climate change discourse frame gender? This paper provides an overview of the literature that has depicted women both as vulnerable victims of climatic change and as active agents in adaptive responses. It then describes the shift from gendered impacts to gendered adaptive capacities and embodied experiences, highlighting the continuing impact of social biases and institutional practices. These shape unequal access to and control over household and community decision-making processes, undermining timely, fair, and successful adaptive responses. It argues that a human security framework is useful to fill the gap in current gender and climate justice work.

**United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). (2010). 'Gender, Climate Change and Community-Based Adaptation', UNDP, New York**

[http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/librarypage/environment-energy/climate\\_change/gender/gender-climate-change-and-community-based-adaptation-guidebook-.html](http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/librarypage/environment-energy/climate_change/gender/gender-climate-change-and-community-based-adaptation-guidebook-.html)

This guidebook presents many experiences and examples taken from the UNDP-GEF Community-Based Adaptation Programme that are being piloted throughout the world. The Guidebook is useful for any community-based practitioners who wish to review successful cases of gender mainstreaming in community-based adaptation projects.

## **DISASTER PREPAREDNESS AND RISK REDUCTION**

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

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

**Alexander, B., de Milliano, C. and Sekhar Bahinipati, C. (2010). 'Participation of the Most Vulnerable in Disaster Risk Reduction and Climate Change Adaptation Decision-making and Action' in Setiadi, N., Birkmann, J. and Buckle, P. (eds), Disaster Risk Reduction and Climate Change Adaption: Case Studies from South and Southeast Asia, United Nations University Institute for Environment and Human Security (UNU-EHS), No. 14/2010, pp.54-61**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4311>

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

**United Nations. (2009). 'Making Disaster Risk Reduction Gender-sensitive: Policy and Practical Guidelines' Gender Working Group on Disaster Reduction, UN/ISDR, IUCN, UNDP, Geneva**

<http://www.unisdr.org/we/inform/publications/9922>

Existing socio-economic conditions mean that disasters can lead to different outcomes even for demographically similar communities – but the most vulnerable groups suffer more than others. Disasters reinforce, perpetuate and increase gender inequality, making bad situations worse for women. Meanwhile, the potential contributions that women can offer to disaster risk reduction are often overlooked and female leadership in building community resilience to disasters is frequently disregarded. This joint publication is a result of a UNISDR-led process supporting implementation of the Hyogo Framework for Action 2005-2015 (HFA). This book offers guidelines for national and local governments to implement the HFA.

### ***Monitoring and evaluation***

**The World Bank. (n.d.). 'Gender Informed Monitoring and Evaluation in Disaster Risk Management', Guidance Note no. 3**

[http://www.gfdrr.org/gfdrr/sites/gfdrr.org/files/Guidance\\_Note\\_3\\_Gender\\_Informed\\_Monitoring\\_and\\_Evaluation\\_in\\_Disaster\\_Risk\\_Management.pdf](http://www.gfdrr.org/gfdrr/sites/gfdrr.org/files/Guidance_Note_3_Gender_Informed_Monitoring_and_Evaluation_in_Disaster_Risk_Management.pdf)

### ***Toolkits***

**International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). (2009). 'Training Manual on Gender and Climate Change', IUCN and UNDP**

[http://cmsdata.iucn.org/downloads/training\\_of\\_gender\\_total.pdf](http://cmsdata.iucn.org/downloads/training_of_gender_total.pdf)

**UNFPA and WEDO. (2009). 'Climate Change Connections: A Resource Kit on Climate, Population and Gender', UNFPA and WEDO**

<http://www.unfpa.org/public/cache/offonce/publications/pid/4028;jsessionid=3736860EFD9F7B4C54ACD1D32DCBAECE>

***Further resources***

**Haider, H. (2011). 'Climate Change and Empowerment', GSDRC Helpdesk Research Report, GSDRC, Birmingham**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/docs/open/HD750.pdf>

**BRIDGE at IDS' Cutting Edge Programme on Gender and Climate Change**

<http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/go/cutting-edge-programmes/gender-and-climate-change>

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

Gender CC

Women's Environment and Development Organisation

Global Gender and Climate Alliance

Gender and climate change in Eldis

# MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Contents:

- Introduction
- Gender-sensitive indicators
- Global gender indices

## INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

It is also important to acknowledge in the design of M&E frameworks and tools that efforts to empower women and transform gender relations are complex processes. Progress in these areas is non-linear and can take a long time. It is thus important to assess and value intermediate outcomes in addition to longer-term outcomes.

**Batliwala, S. and Pittman, A. (2010). 'Capturing Change in Women's Realities: A Critical Overview of Current Monitoring and Evaluation Frameworks', Association for Women's Rights in Development (AWID), Toronto, Mexico City and Capetown**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4258>

This study analyses current assumptions about monitoring and evaluation in the context of women's rights, gender equality and women's empowerment work. It assesses M&E tools and argues that donors and agencies need to work more closely with constituencies in building M&E systems to find creative ways of tracking the effects of interventions in the change process. Women's rights organisations need to make internal learning systems a stronger part of their work.

**Batliwala, S. (2011). 'Strengthening Monitoring And Evaluation For Women's Rights: Thirteen Insights For Women's Organizations', Association for Women's Rights in Development (AWID), Toronto, Mexico City and Capetown**

[http://awid.org/Media/Files/MnE\\_Thirteen\\_Insights\\_Women\\_Orgs\\_ENG](http://awid.org/Media/Files/MnE_Thirteen_Insights_Women_Orgs_ENG)

This paper posits that we have recently seen a shift away from a focus on women's human rights towards more pragmatic considerations of social returns on 'investments'—the 'investing in women' as 'smart economics' advocated by the UN and World Bank, and 'girl effect' model. Organizations working for women's rights and gender equality are therefore under growing pressure to demonstrate results. This paper presents thirteen suggestions for improving monitoring and evaluating women's rights work.

## **GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS**

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

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

Key lessons in relation to gender-sensitive indicators include:

- *Combine quantitative and qualitative indicators and methodologies.* While quantitative indicators can reveal what has changed, qualitative analyses can reveal the quality of change and help to determine why certain patterns have emerged. Qualitative indicators may also

be necessary to effectively measure complex aspects, such as women's empowerment.

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

### **Data collection**

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

**Moser, A. (2007). 'Gender and Indicators: Overview Report', BRIDGE Development-Gender, Institute of Development Studies, Brighton**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=2917>

This report examines conceptual and methodological approaches to gender and measurements of change. It focuses on current debates and good practice from the grassroots to the international level. It argues that measurement techniques and data remain limited and poorly utilised, making it difficult to know if efforts are on track to achieve gender equality goals and commitments.

**Demetriades, J. (2009). 'Gender Equality Indicators: What, Why and How', prepared for the OECD DAC Network on Gender Equality based on BRIDGE's 2007 Gender Indicators Cutting Edge Pack**

<http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/48/8/44952761.pdf>

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

**Danida. (2006). 'Gender-Sensitive Monitoring and Indicators', Technical Note, Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Denmark, Danida, Copenhagen**

[http://docs.watsan.net/Downloaded\\_Files/PDF/Danida-2006-Gender.pdf](http://docs.watsan.net/Downloaded_Files/PDF/Danida-2006-Gender.pdf)

This note offers a brief introduction to indicators and monitoring tools relevant to gender-related activities in Danida's countries of cooperation. It is primarily aimed at supporting officers responsible for preparing and managing Danish bilateral development assistance. It outlines Danida's 2004 strategy for gender equality; international goals, indicators and targets for gender equality; national level indicators; sector level indicators and monitoring tools.

**UN Women. (2012). Reflecting on Gender Equality and Human Rights in Evaluation. UN Women.**

[http://www.unwomen-eseasia.org/docs/publication/UN\\_Women\\_Evaluation\\_Publication\\_low.pdf#page=35](http://www.unwomen-eseasia.org/docs/publication/UN_Women_Evaluation_Publication_low.pdf#page=35)

This paper has four chapters examining different aspects of gender in evaluation, based on a conference held in 2011. The first chapter is a case study of an M&E framework for a community organisation working with female sex workers. The second chapter provides a menu of approaches for evaluating partnerships. The third chapter is most relevant and looks at how to overcome difficulties to gender monitoring, building on Mosse's process monitoring and the Most Significant Change framework. The fourth chapter presents an evaluation approach for complex systems.

**Espinosa, J. (2013). Moving towards gender-sensitive evaluation? Practices and challenges in international-development evaluation. *Evaluation*, 19(2), 171-182.**

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1356389013485195>

How do international development agencies include gender in evaluations? Although there has been growing interest in and use of gendered evaluations, progress is slow and uneven. It is still unusual to find in-depth gender analysis of gender dimensions in evaluation. There is little political will to make gender a central issue in evaluation, and it is usually only found in programmes aimed at women or gender relations. It is also common to find weak institutional capability. The focus tends to be on women rather than differential impacts on men and women and unequal gender relations. Gender also suffers from a lack of baselines and from qualitative analysis being considered less rigorous.

## **GLOBAL GENDER INDICES**

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

### ***The Gender Inequality Index***

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

### ***Social Institutions and Gender Index***

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

*Link to SIGI:* <http://my.genderindex.org/>

*Link to the Gender, Institutions and Development database:*

[http://www.oecd.org/document/0/0,3746,en\\_2649\\_33731\\_39323280\\_1\\_1\\_1\\_1,00.html](http://www.oecd.org/document/0/0,3746,en_2649_33731_39323280_1_1_1_1,00.html)

### ***Global Gender Gap Index***

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

<http://www.weforum.org/issues/global-gender-gap>

### ***Women's Economic Opportunities Index***

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

[http://www.eiu.com/public/topical\\_report.aspx?campaignid=weoindex2012](http://www.eiu.com/public/topical_report.aspx?campaignid=weoindex2012)

### ***Gender Equality Index***

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

<http://www.indsocdev.org/gender-equality.html>

### ***Comparison of the Five Indices***

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

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

The five indices are focused on:

- GEI: overall human development index of gender equality
- GII: capability and functionings measure (outcome measure) of gender equality
- SIGI: institutional measure of gender equality
- GGGI: capability measure of gender equality
- WEOI: resources & institutions measure (input measure) of women's development'

**van Staveren, I. (2011). 'To Measure is to Know? A Comparative Analysis of Gender Indices', Working Paper No. 2011-02, Institute of Social Studies, The Hague**

<http://www.indsocdev.org/resources/ISD%20Working%20Paper%202011-02.pdf>

What are the key differences among contemporary gender indices? This paper examines five such indices: the Gender Equality Index, Gender Inequality Index, Social Institutions and Gender Index, Global Gender Gap Index, and Women's Economic Opportunities Index. It compares the indices and explains the differences by their methodological and theoretical characteristics. The aim is to enable researchers and policy analysts to make informed choices when they want to use a composite measure of gender inequality in their analyses.

**Gaye et al. (2010). 'Measuring Key Disparities in Human Development: The Gender Inequality Index', Human Development Research Paper 2010/46, UNDP**

[http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/hdrp\\_2010\\_46.pdf](http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/hdrp_2010_46.pdf)

**UNDP. (2011). 'Frequently Asked Questions about the Gender Inequality Index', UNDP**

[http://hdr.undp.org/en/media/FAQs\\_2011\\_GII.pdf](http://hdr.undp.org/en/media/FAQs_2011_GII.pdf)

**McDevitt, A. (2010). 'Helpdesk Research Report: Measuring Women's Economic Empowerment', Governance and Social Development Resource Centre, Birmingham**

<http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Helpdesk&id=616>

## DONOR APPROACHES TO GENDER

Contents:

- Bilateral donors
- Multilateral development banks

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

### BILATERAL DONORS

#### *Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade (Australian Government)*

**AusAID. (2011). 'Promoting Opportunities for All: Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment', Thematic Strategy, Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID), Canberra**

<http://www.ausaid.gov.au/aidissues/Documents/thematic-strategies/gender-equality-strategy.pdf>

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

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

#### **DFID**

**DFID. (2011). 'A New Strategic Vision for Girls and Women: Stopping Poverty Before it Starts', Department for International Development, London**

<http://www.dfid.gov.uk/Documents/publications1/strategic-vision-girls-women.pdf>

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

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

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

**DFID. (2008). 'The Gender Manual', Department for International Development, London**  
<http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/+http://www.dfid.gov.uk/Documents/publications/dfid-gender-manual-2008.pdf>

**DFID. (2009). 'Guidance Note on Gender Mainstreaming and Social Exclusion in Research' Department for International Development, London**  
[http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130603153753/http://r4d.dfid.gov.uk/pdf/publications/guidancenote\\_gender&se.pdf](http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130603153753/http://r4d.dfid.gov.uk/pdf/publications/guidancenote_gender&se.pdf)

### ***Sida***

**Byron, G. and Örnemark, C., 2010, 'Gender Equality in Swedish Development Cooperation', Final Report, Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida), Stockholm**  
<http://www.oecd.org/derec/sweden/46143903.pdf>

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

**Sida. (2010). On Equal Footing: Policy for Gender Equality and the Rights and Role of Women in Sweden's International Development Cooperation 2010-2015. Sida.**  
<http://www.government.se/sb/d/574/a/152297>

Sida's 2010-2015 gender policy has four priority areas:

- women's political participation and influence;
- women's economic empowerment and working conditions;
- sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR); and
- women's security, including combating all forms of gender-based violence and human trafficking.

Gender mainstreaming is the main approach.

**Törnqvist, A. and Schmitz, C. (2009). 'Women's Economic Empowerment: Scope for Sida's Engagement', Working Paper, Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida), Stockholm**  
<http://sidapublications.citat.se/interface/stream/mabstream.asp?filetype=1&orderlistmainid=2906&printfileid=2906&filex=3959916456908>

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

**USAID****USAID. (2012). 'Gender Equality and Female Empowerment', USAID Policy, Washington DC**

[http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf\\_docs/PDACT200.pdf](http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PDACT200.pdf)

Under this gender policy, USAID investments aim to:

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

**MULTILATERAL DEVELOPMENT BANKS****World Bank****Gender Action Plan**

<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTGENDER/0,,contentMDK:21983335~pagePK:210058~piPK:210062~theSitePK:336868,00.html>

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

**The World Bank. (2010). 'Applying Gender Action Plan Lessons: A Three-Year Road Map for Gender Mainstreaming (2011- 2013)', Gender and Development, Poverty Reduction and Economic Management Network, World Bank, Washington DC**

[http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTGENDER/Resources/336003-1241561860207/GAPtransitionplan\\_may25.pdf](http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTGENDER/Resources/336003-1241561860207/GAPtransitionplan_may25.pdf)

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

## ***Inter-American Development Bank***

### **IADB. (2010). 'Operational Policy on Gender Equality in Development', Inter-American Development Bank (IADB), Washington DC**

<http://idbdocs.iadb.org/wsdocs/getdocument.aspx?docnum=35428399>

This policy identifies two lines of action:

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

## ***Asian Development Bank***

### **ADB. (2003). 'Policy on Gender and Development', Asian Development Bank (ADB), Manila**

<http://www.adb.org/documents/policy-gender-and-development>

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

### **ADB. (2011). 'Gender Equality: Bridging the Gap', Asian Development Bank (ADB), Manila**

<http://www.adb.org/publications/gender-equality-bridging-gap>

### **ADB. (2011). 'Gender and Development Plan of Action (2008-2010): 2010 Annual Implementation Progress Report', Asian Development Bank (ADB), Manila**

<http://www.adb.org/documents/gender-and-development-plan-action-2008-2010-2010-annual-implementation-progress-report>

**ADB. (2013). Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment Operational Plan, 2013-2020. Moving the Agenda Forward in Asia and the Pacific. Asian Development Bank Publishing.**

<http://www.adb.org/documents/gender-equality-and-womens-empowerment-operational-plan-2013-2020>

In April 2013, ADB approved a new gender equality policy. Under the new gender operational plan, ADB will intensify its efforts to ensure that gender equality remains at the front and center of its development efforts, and to accelerate progress on closing remaining gender gaps. The operational plan will serve as the roadmap for translating the ADB-wide Strategy 2020's gender equity goals into concrete and measurable operations to support gender equality outcomes. It takes a gender mainstreaming approach. There is a shift in focus from gender-equitable design, to better implementation and monitoring for gender-equitable outcomes. There will be more pilot programmes to tackle gender inequality directly, with a view to scaling up, and more focus on services and infrastructure to reduce women's time poverty.

***African Development Bank***

**AfDB. (2001). 'The Gender Policy', African Development Bank (AfDB), Tunis-Belvédère, Tunisia**

<http://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Policy-Documents/10000003-EN-THE-GENDER-POLICY.PDF>

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

**AfDB. Investing in Gender Equality for Africa's Transformation. African Development Bank Group.**

[http://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Policy-Documents/2014-2018\\_-\\_Bank\\_Group\\_Gender\\_Strategy.pdf](http://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Policy-Documents/2014-2018_-_Bank_Group_Gender_Strategy.pdf)

The Bank's Gender Strategy for 2014-18 focuses on strengthening women's legal and property rights, promoting women's economic empowerment, and enhancing knowledge management and capacity building on gender equality. It firstly seeks to strengthen gender mainstreaming in operations and strategies; and secondly to improve gender equality within the Bank.