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Agency for International Development

**Techniques for Gender Considerations in
Development**

**Training Workshop
USAID/Peru**

**December 11-13, 1990
Lima, Peru**

**Conducted by:
Management Systems International**

Prepared for:
Office of Women in Development
Bureau for Program and Policy Coordination
Agency for International Development
Contract No. PDC-0100-Z-00-9044-00

GENESYS

Date: _____

Participant # _____

**GENDER CONSIDERATIONS IN DEVELOPMENT
WID TRAINING WORKSHOP**

**Peru
December, 1990**

Participant Information Form

1. Country of Assignment: _____
2. Name: _____
 Last (Family or Surname) First (or Given Name)
3. Sex: _____
 Male Female
4. Position Title: _____
 (Please do not use acronyms here)
5. USAID or other Affiliation: _____
 (e.g. USAID, Bureau, or NGO or other organization
 represented. Please do not use acronyms here.)
6. Training Workshop Attended: _____
7. *Affiliation Code: _____ (See codes listed below)
8. If AID, Foreign Service, what is your Backstop Number? _____
9. If you know, state when your present assignment at your current post
will be completed? _____
 (Month/Year)
10. If you know the address of your next assignment, enter it here:
11. Address Line 1: _____
 Street Address or AID symbols-not your affiliation.
12. Address Line 2: _____
 City/Country only
13. Postal Zip Code if applicable: _____

- * GS - General Service
- FS - Foreign Service
- FSN - Foreign Service National
- PSC - Personal Services Contractor
- PVO - Private Voluntary Organization (or Non-Governmental Organization)
- HCG - Host Country Government
- OTH - Other, e.g., independent consultant, privately funded participant, etc.

AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

WASHINGTON, D.C. 20523

December, 1990

Dear Participant:

I appreciate your attendance at this unique workshop on Women in Development. Your participation furthers the Agency's commitment to the integration of women in mainstream projects and programs. Our emphasis on gender issues and integration comes from a substantial base of knowledge about what works and what does not work in development. Gender constitutes one of the key development variables and if we ignore it, we run a higher risk of program and project failure.

Development professionals have known for some time that gender is a key variable. However, we have tended to restrict it to "conventional" women's sectors such as health, nutrition and population. It is now clear that we must examine gender in every sector. Men and women contribute to the economic growth of every country. Often the constraints and opportunities are different for men and women and these differences are critical to the development process. Also men and women often take on roles and responsibilities that are different. Thus, in private enterprise for example, women often predominate in the low-income areas of service, commerce, and garment making. They are often found to be the dominant force in informal enterprises. Failure to recognize their unique roles often means failure to understand and access the full range of development opportunities.

We can and must do a better job of systematically considering the role of gender issues in our development activities in the field and in A.I.D./W. We are all working with WID Action Plans and Workplans which serve as blueprints in the effort.

Your mission is demonstrating leadership in dealing with gender issues. While there have been other training sessions at the regional level and in individual missions, this is the most advanced and comprehensive mission-level WID training effort to date. We are committed to this program and are enthusiastic about the success of this workshop.

In order to ensure success, I urge you to take your role as a participant very seriously. The lessons of this workshop will only become reality if you share your expertise and experience and work toward common goals.

Best wishes for continued success.

Sincerely,

Frederick W. Schieck

Frederick W. Schieck
Acting Assistant Administrator
Bureau for Latin America and
the Caribbean

AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20523

December, 1990

Dear Participant:

It is a pleasure to welcome you to A.I.D.'s Workshop on gender considerations in development. Your participation in this effort further strengthens the commitment to consider women as integral participants in the development process.

The importance of women and gender to family issues and the overall economy of Peru has been well documented. As the participation of women is crucial to Peru's economic growth, I applaud your efforts to help us better institutionalize the inclusion of women in A.I.D.'s programs and projects.

I appreciate your full participation in this workshop. The trainers and PPC/WID are pleased to have this opportunity to work with you, and we know that these efforts will help all of us in furthering A.I.D.'s development goals.

Sincerely,



Kay Davies
Director
Office of Women in Development

STAFF BIOGRAPHIES

HORTENSE DICKER

Hortense Dicker is a specialist in human resources and socio-economic project development with 20 years of international experience in project design and evaluation, management and organization development, and women's development, working with A.I.D., including PPC/WID, the Interamerican Development Bank, and other public and private institutions in the U.S. and overseas. Included in her work is the co-design of an A.I.D.-funded pilot income-generation project for rural women in El Salvador, the design and delivery of seven management seminars for women in Pakistan, the evaluation of a major child survival project in Bolivia, and a project portfolio review from a gender perspective for ROCAP.

EUGENE V. MARTIN

Eugene Martin is an adult educator and organizational consultant, a designer and facilitator of planned change and development projects in the U.S. and overseas. His development experience includes work with A.I.D., Peace Corps, the World Bank, and the African Development Bank in Africa, Asia, and the Middle East; he was Director of the Peace Corps in Ghana. His work on gender issues includes related joint labor-management efforts in the U.S., as well as work for PPC/WID with the development aspects of gender. He is a consultant with the GENESYS Project and a senior associate of Management Systems International.

EILEEN MUIRRAGUI

Eileen Muirragui is an international economist specializing in agriculture. She has a decade of experience with development projects and programs in over a dozen countries in the Caribbean, Latin America and Africa in the areas of project planning, analysis and implementation, economic forecasting, rural credit, financial institution building and investment analysis. Dr. Muirragui is trained in both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection. Her experience includes over two years of hands-on data collection and survey experience on a major university research project that focused on maternal and child health of migrant agricultural workers in the U.S., and collection, analysis and monitoring of data for the development projects in which she has been involved as both a consultant and resident advisor. Muirragui has taught courses in statistics, management of agricultural surveys and economic forecasting in Jamaica, Sudan and Zaire.

Techniques For
Gender Considerations in Development

USAID/Peru Workshop

December 11-13, 1990

WORKSHOP GOAL: Participants are knowledgeable about and motivated to appropriately incorporate gender considerations into the development process.

WORKSHOP PURPOSE: Participants refine their knowledge and application of guidelines for the incorporation of gender considerations into their development work.

INTENDED OUTCOMES:

- Participants understand USAID/Peru's purpose and plans with respect to WID issues and concerns.
- Participants can identify critical issues confronting women in Peru and affecting development programs/projects.
- Participants have analyzed a development activity for which they are responsible in terms of gender considerations.
- Participants are presented and practice techniques for incorporating gender considerations in project design and planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.
- Participants understand the types of gender-disaggregated data they are legally required to report and know the basic technique for the collection and interpretation of gender-disaggregated data.
- Participants are aware of opportunities and plan to apply strategies for incorporating gender considerations in their work on development.

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Collecting & Applying Gender Disaggregated Data & Information	8
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SESSION 1: OPENING REMARKS AND WORKSHOP ORIENTATION

INTENDED OUTCOMES

At the conclusion of this session, participants will:

1. have been officially welcomed to the training workshop and heard opening remarks;
2. have been introduced to the training staff;
3. have an overview of the day's agenda; and
4. be aware of the workshop assumptions that their active participation is critical to the success of the learning experience.

ACTIVITIES

- Welcome and Opening Remarks
- Introduction of Training Workshop Staff
- Presentation of the Day's Agenda

SESSION 2: CONTEXT AND CRITICAL ISSUES

INTENDED OUTCOMES

At the conclusion of this session, participants will:

1. have formed work groups, each with a mutual focus on achievement of the Mission's objectives;
2. have identified significant aspects of the context and critical issues for considering GCIO/WID;
3. know why the workshop is being conducted and what we intend to accomplish together.

ACTIVITIES

- Formation of Work Groups
- Context and Critical Issues Exercise
- Review of Workshop Purpose, Intended Outcomes and Schedule

SESSION 3: WOMEN IN PERU

INTENDED OUTCOMES

At the conclusion of this session, participants will:

1. have increased information on gender considerations and women's issues in Peru and implications for development; and
2. understand ways that gender considerations can influence the success/failure of development efforts generally and their portfolio specifically.

ACTIVITIES

- Introduction of Session Objectives and Schedule
- Introduction and Presentation of Peruvian Resource Persons
- Identification of Questions and Issues by Work Groups
- Answers and Comments - Plenary Session

SESSION 4: AID'S WID POLICY, HISTORY, AND GOALS

INTENDED OUTCOMES

At the conclusion of this session, participants will:

1. have briefly reviewed AID's policies and procedures for incorporating gender considerations in development;
2. have briefly reviewed the historical evolution of PPC/WID's approach; and
3. have heard how the institutionalization of gender issues can be viewed as an action-learning process for managing.

ACTIVITIES

- PPC/WID Overview
- Questions and Answers
- Lecturette on Action-Learning and Its Application to Gender Issues
- Questions and Answers

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

OF

MAKING THE CASE FOR THE GENDER VARIABLE:

WOMEN AND THE WEALTH AND WELL-BEING OF NATIONS

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

**Making The Case For The Gender Variable:
Women and the Wealth and Well-Being of Nations**

By

Rae Lesser Blumberg

**Edited by Mari H. Clark
AID/PPC/WID**

**Office of Women in Development
U.S. Agency for International Development
October 1989**

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. Introduction: Women and the Wealth of Nations

A case is made for gender as an essential and critical variable in the "development equation." Empirical evidence demonstrates that:

- Women worldwide make major contributions to the wealth of nations; and
- The use and expansion of women's productive capacities is a necessary condition for social and economic progress.

The discussion focuses on two intertwined ways in which women contribute to the economic and human resource "wealth" of nations. These are via:

- Women's productive activities, which, in many developing countries, contribute significantly to the food supply, the large informal sector, service and farm labor forces, and, in some, to the export manufacturing labor force; and
- Women's education, which can lead to lower fertility, better family health, reduced infant and child mortality, higher formal labor force participation, and greater economic growth.

EXAMPLES OF WOMEN'S CONTRIBUTIONS TO NATIONAL ECONOMIC GROWTH

- (1) According to recent estimates, the growing formal labor force participation and rising female/male earnings ratio of U.S. women between 1890 and 1980 were associated with a growth in national income per capita that exceeded the growth in male earnings by 28 percent. During this same period, women's teaching for low wages made possible the mass education that added another 12-23 percent to national income.
- (2) In the LDC's specializing in export manufacturing, there is a strong relationship between increase in female industrial employment, the growth of manufactured exports, and national economic growth.

OVERVIEW OF WOMEN'S CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE WORLD ECONOMY

Overall, women are estimated to comprise 41 percent of the measured labor force in developed countries and 32 percent in developing ones. These statistics, however, are now known to undercount women's productive activities. Women in developing countries play an even greater role in the sectors of the economy that are poorly measured by national statistics—the urban informal sector, low resource farming and marketing, and unpaid family productive labor. Moreover, women's unpaid household labor, if given economic value, would add an estimated four trillion dollars, or about one-third, to the world's annual economic product.

2. The Impact of Women's Production and Control of Income

A great deal of data support the argument that the development impact of women's productive activities is heightened where they generate income under female control. The predominant development model of the household, however, precludes considering gender-disaggregated control of income, since it treats the household as a shared enterprise described by a single production function. Therefore, a critique of this "black box" model of the household is presented and supported by evidence of the widespread existence of an

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"internal economy of the household" with a distribution of labor and resources based on age and gender that is not necessarily equitable. These dynamics vary cross-culturally. But everywhere, it makes a great difference which person in the household receives information, who does the work, and who gets the income. This has far-reaching consequences for the success or failure of development efforts at both micro and macro levels.

WOMEN'S USE OF INCOME UNDER THEIR CONTROL

Many studies support the proposition that income under female control (relative to male-controlled income) is a major determinant of women's overall status. Moreover, numerous studies also support hypotheses that income under women's control:

- Is most often spent for children's nutrition and the family's "basic human needs," especially among women with provider responsibilities; and
- Generally enhances women's decision-making power within the household regarding childbearing, economic issues, and domestic/family welfare.

Additionally, women with provider responsibilities tend to:

- Allocate their labor toward activities that put income and/or food under their direct control and, when feasible, away from activities that do not, even if the latter are more profitable; and
- Respond more readily than their male counterparts to easing of constraints or own-account production or modestly increased incentives. (This may be largely because many of these women urgently need income, but earn less and have fewer resources than men—thereby having lower opportunity costs.)

Empirical evidence from a wide array of countries provides support for these hypotheses. For example, studies of the SEMRY I irrigated rice project in Cameroon and various other development projects in Africa present cases in which women were expected to contribute labor but the direct returns went to their husbands. In all cases women provided less labor than expected and the projects suffered. A study of the effects of a new road on a Cameroonian village showed that women increased their production of own account perishable food much more than men, even though men's crops brought a sharply higher rate of return.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE AFRICAN FOOD CRISIS

These findings have serious implications for the food crisis in Africa. African women farmers could be the single most cost-effective available resource to alleviate this crisis, since they raise as much as 80 percent of the locally grown food crops. In most ethnic groups, men and women have at least partially separate income streams and spending obligations. Women typically have heavy responsibilities to provide for their children and thus need income and/or food under their control. Accordingly, the model of the household as a unitary pooling unit fits poorly here. Yet it has guided most development planning, often with negative results. Women are almost always bypassed by extension, training, inputs, and credit programs. Most food

crop development projects have failed to target women producers. Almost all ignore women's incentives and may unwittingly undercut their income—often with negative consequences for the project, the women, and their families. These practices make inefficient use of scarce resources and appear to be an important, albeit unheralded, factor in the African food crisis.

3. Women Producers' Contributions and Constraints

FARMING AND THE INFORMAL SECTOR: Women are estimated to produce more than half the food in developing countries. Considering the full farming system (not just the measured labor force), the UN regional commissions calculate that women do 60-80 percent of the agricultural labor in Africa and in Asia, and 40 percent in Latin America. The rapidly growing informal sector in developing countries is absorbing an estimated 40-70 percent of urban workers, with women predominating in many regions.

WOMEN FARMERS' PERFORMANCE: One econometric study has found that Kenyan women farmers obtained higher crop yields than males, when women's more limited access to credit, education, fertile soil, commercial fertilizer, extension, etc., was controlled statistically. Several less quantitative studies also have found women producing as much as or more than comparable men. In actual practice, however, few women farm with resources comparable to men, and their production lags behind men's.

WOMEN MICROENTREPRENEURS' PERFORMANCE: Various quantitative studies of informal sector, microenterprise credit projects in Latin America and Asia indicate that women are as good as or better credit risks than men. Further, a study in the Dominican Republic found that women's clothing/textile businesses were growing faster than men's on several parameters (e.g., sales, employment). In general, the more successful microenterprise credit projects have eliminated constraints that prevent women in particular, and poor people in general, from getting aid.

RURAL WOMENS' PRODUCTION CONSTRAINTS: In low resource agriculture, there is no comparable reduction of constraints. Women labor under limitations to their productivity such as the time required for routine domestic tasks (fetching water and firewood, processing crops and cooking), as well as inadequate access to extension and other farming aids (credit, inputs, etc.).

EASING THE CONSTRAINTS: Reducing these constraints is a means to tap women's productivity for development.

Time saving: for example, a computer simulation projected that several looming economic crises in the Yemen Arab Republic could be averted by reducing the time rural women in the average household spend fetching water and fuel/wood and cooking from 11.5 to 1.7 hours/day—just through improved water supplies and provision of cooking gas. This would increase women's agricultural productivity in an economy with declining agriculture and rising food imports. It would also provide girls time to attend school. Some girls could then become teachers to replace the foreigners who now teach.

Extension, Credit, and Inputs: Aside from three S.E. Asian nations, only since the mid-1980s have a few other countries (mainly in Africa) begun to target women farmers. The number of female extension clients now is growing there. Women farmers have been able to work well with male extension agents (as well as the few female agents) except in areas of female seclusion. But many women clients—who have almost no access to formal credit or subsidized inputs—cannot afford to buy all of an extension "package." Accordingly, production increases may be inhibited when the new practices are only partially adopted.

Extension planning must take into account women farmer's special skills (e.g., knowledge of food crops, ability to share knowledge and inputs with other women) and also their special constraints (e.g., limited time

and resources, less and poorer land, gender role ideals that restrict movement and assertiveness). Cultural practices also must be considered (e.g., in Africa there is a widespread preference for extension contact in women's groups rather than individually).

WOMEN IN MARKETING: Females often play important roles at all levels of agricultural commodities distribution, particularly in West Africa. Ghana and Nigeria have long traditions of women filling important roles in trade. In Ghana, however, recent government policies severely restricted women's trading activities. This has damaged the country's food distribution system and its economy. In many countries, women street sellers, especially food vendors, also suffer from government regulatory pressure which may have reduced food availability in those nations as well.

In sum, female production and income affect wealth and well-being at levels ranging from the woman and her family to her nation and even region.

4. The Consequences of Women's Education

There is worldwide evidence that the education of women is associated with (1) a later age of marriage; (2) increased contraceptive usage; (3) lower fertility (although in some countries, those with partial primary education have slightly higher fertility than those with no education); (4) dramatically reduced infant and child mortality; (5) improved child nutrition and general family health; (6) greater participation in the waged, modern sector labor force; (7) higher earnings; and (8) increased national development as measured by GNP.

The first seven indicators almost always occur later in the life course than education, so it is plausible to conclude that female education plays a causal role. Indeed, the evidence indicates that mothers' education almost invariably has a stronger effect than fathers' (or "education" not disaggregated by gender) on lowering fertility and infant mortality and improving family health. New evidence that reductions in fertility enhance national income growth further underline the importance of giving females the educational and economic resources that facilitate their lower fertility. The last indicator, national growth and development, is associated with higher levels of female education and a lower disparity in the proportion of females relative to males in school. There is not enough evidence at the moment, however, to untangle the direction of causation in what is clearly an interactive, synergistic process. Nonetheless, education, per se, is a recognized predictor of national growth.

The enrollment of females in school has increased from 95 million in 1950 to 390 million in 1985 and the disparity between the proportion of boys vs. girls in school has shrunk a little. However, the gap in the numbers of girls in school, compared with boys, is growing—as are the numbers of female illiterates and school age girls not in school. Thus, even though education is the area where females have made the most progress since World War II, the picture is not an entirely positive one.

5. Conclusions and Selected Policy Implications

The most general conclusion is best expressed by Sivard: "What is good for women is also good for the society at large." The material presented makes a strong case for the macro and micro level contributions of women to the wealth and well-being of nations. Even greater future gains in women's productivity are

possible if present constraints to their production, marketing, and education can be reduced.

Given time and space limitations, only four policy implications are discussed, although more could be drawn from the data.

- Gender must be tracked in projects, programs, and policies, and these should be adapted to overcome special constraints on women's productivity, participation, and access to benefits. For projects, gender-disaggregated data should be collected at the baseline, monitoring, and evaluation phases, so timely adaptations can be made.
- Attention to women farmers' skills, incentives, and constraints could be the single most cost-effective approach to alleviating the African food crisis.
- Strong efforts should be made to identify and serve women in microenterprise credit projects. The "lessons learned" from the most successful of these projects, particularly the fact that women are as good as or better credit risks than men, must be applied to policies, programs, and projects.
- Female education should be given higher priority, but not in a "zero sum game" manner which detracts from male education. A dollar spent on boys' education and not matched by a dollar for girls' education may be lost to a developing nation because of the cost of the higher fertility of those girls as well as the poorer health and lower infant/child survival rates of their families and their own reduced productivity.

In summary, despite some gaps in our knowledge, we already know enough to call for and implement the inclusion of gender as essential and critical to the "development equation."

**WHAT HAPPENS
WHEN GENDER IS CONSIDERED/WHEN GENDER IS NOT CONSIDERED
IN ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES**

A FEW POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE EXAMPLES

U.S.A.I.D. OFFICE OF WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

1990

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A Project Success Story: Peru

PROGRESO is a microenterprise credit project run by Accion Comunitaria del Peru in Lima. Like ADEMI, **PROGRESO** has a component for individual microentrepreneurs and another for group credit. The program has been highly successful in reaching women microentrepreneurs and vendors as a result of innovative design features. A 1984 study revealed that 80 percent of the beneficiaries of the group credit component were women; 27 percent of these were the sole adults earning an income in their households. Women also constituted 14 percent of the beneficiaries in the microentrepreneur component. Since receiving loans from **PROGRESO**, women entrepreneurs had experienced a 25 percent average increase in income and had created an average of one job per business.

What project features contributed to this success? First, **PROGRESO** requires very few office visits; 87 percent of the women clients visit the office once a month or less. During the initial meetings, loan application are filled out and accounting and managerial advice is offered. Secondly, no collateral is required. Third, promotion for the program relies on informal networks and word of mouth. In addition, the program offers social supports for women's participation.

A 1984 evaluation observed that **PROGRESO** could reach even more women if it offered courses in literacy and accounting, dropped its two-year requirement for business eligibility, and dropped its literacy requirement.

Link Found Between Women's Inclusion and Project Success

In 1985, the AID Center for Development Information and Evaluation (CDIE) conducted a desk review of a sample of 101 field projects out of 416 AID projects that had referred to women in their documentation.

One of the goals of the review was to examine the relationship between overall project success and the level of women's participation. A preliminary study of agricultural projects found that when women's participation was high, project success was high, and when women's participation was low, project success tended to be moderate or low. The report makes no claims about the causality of this. However, it also points out that the failure to reach women was generally symptomatic of the failure to consider the project's target group and the dynamics of the local farming system.

Project Eliminates Women's Source of Income

Data from a rural Guatemalan community, where a U.S. agribusiness firm operates with the help of AID loans, show how women's direct access to project benefits affects their standing in the household and the community. Women in the community -- a small mountain village -- had traditionally participated in planting activities and marketed surplus crops in a nearby town. However, when their husbands became contract farmers for the agribusiness firm, women were forced to contribute 2-3 days of agricultural labor a week for the labor-intensive vegetable crops. Moreover, they had to forego their marketing trips, which eliminated their only independently-controlled source of income. Payments from the agribusiness firm went only to the husbands, eroding women's role in household decision making and diminishing their independence.

A Project Success Story: Ecuador

When heads of households, either single, widowed, or divorced mothers of young children, constituted approximately one-fourth of applicants to the Solanda low-income housing project in Quito, Ecuador. Among these women only 26 percent had incomes high enough to qualify them for project financed housing. Even worse, only a small number (15.4 percent) of women with qualifying incomes had enough savings to make the originally required 10 percent housing downpayment. An inexpensive sex-disaggregated survey administered by ICRW in 1983 revealed these problems. The project was subsequently redesigned to require only 5 percent downpayment with low initial monthly payments based on an adjustable rate of interest. These changes in the financing mechanism meant that over 30 percent of income-eligible women heads of households who had applied to the project could actually meet the project's selection criteria.

Jamaica Women's Woodworking and Welding Project

The United Women's Woodworking and Welding Project in Jamaica exemplifies a WID-specific project that can provide lessons for mainstream, integrated development projects. Implemented by the Jamaica Women's Bureau, the project aimed to teach nontraditional skills to low-income women in Kingston.

Why did the project work? First, the Women's Bureau developed the training program in collaboration with the Vocational Training Division of the Ministry of Youth, which had prior experience in providing training in welding and carpentry. Second, the women trainees received management and accounting training which enabled them to form their own production and marketing cooperative. Third, the prerequisites included the attainment of a certain degree of literacy, rather than formal education.

Additional project features that might have strengthened the project include the provision of child care facilities, a better market feasibility study (the original decision to sell daycare furniture proved unmarketable), and more extensive training in bookkeeping and cooperative management.

National Statistics Undercount Women

An experimental population census carried out in the district of San Juan, Costa Rica in 1983 assessed the extent to which the 1973 population census and the national household surveys had underestimated women's economic participation. All women 12 years and over who had been categorized as economically inactive in the experimental population census were reinterviewed. The resulting data showed that 41 percent of the so-called "inactive" rural women had worked for the entire year. With these new figures, rural women's labor force participation rate would be adjusted upward from 23 percent to 45 percent.

Project Design Inadvertently Includes Women

The microenterprise credit program run by the Association for the Development of Microenterprises (ADEMI) in Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic (D.R.), has two components: a solidarity group credit mechanism for extremely small business, and an individual microenterprise component, which reaches slightly larger businesses. Women were not specifically targeted as beneficiaries, but many aspects of the project design proved to be conducive to women's participation. These were: eligibility requirements that include informal sector work, elimination of collateral requirements, loan sizes and interest rates appropriate for marginal businesses, and opportunities to develop skills.

ADEMI's weaknesses in regard to reaching women entrepreneurs include limited management supervision and business assistance, overly short repayment periods, and a shortage of female field staff for the solidarity group component. Nevertheless, by Spring 1984, women accounted for one-third of the participants in the ADEMI program -- 14 percent of the individual microenterprise component, and 43 percent of the solidarity group members.

During the fall of 1984, ADEMI chose to suspend the solidarity group component, thus eliminating 77 percent of the women participants. In the light of the deteriorating economic situation in the D.R., the staff felt that future loans would be risky, even though defaults were no higher among the solidarity groups than among the individual microentrepreneurs. Fortunately, a 1985 policy review led ADEMI to reinstitute the component.

Women's Labor/Women's Returns

The Guatemala ALCOSA Agribusiness Project provides insight into the importance of the distinction between increasing women's labor and increasing women's returns. In one of the project sites -- Chimachoy -- the town's (male) farmers heeded the ALCOSA processing company's calls for larger amounts of vegetables by cutting back on traditional food crops to increase the production of cauliflower. Women, who previously had helped in the fields only during planting, were pulled into 2-3 days of horticultural labor each week on top of their normally overburdened schedules. As a result they had to cut back on their marketing trips to town, the source of their only independent income. (ALCOSA payments came in the form of a check made out solely to their husbands.) Women's financial independence was therefore diminished as their workloads increased.

In another project site, San Jose Pinula, the ALCOSA processing plant provided women the opportunity to work for wages paid directly to them. Shifts were long during peak periods -- up to 16 hours -- but female employees made 100 to 300 percent as much as they could have made in market selling and domestic work, their two main alternatives. Women retained ultimate control over their incomes and gained in self-reliance and financial independence from their husbands.

Grameen Bank

The Grameen Bank, started in 1976 by Mohammed Yunus, provides loans to the landless poor in Bangladesh. The Bank successfully reaches its target group by operating branches at the village level and by focusing on group formation amongst borrowers. A week-long course is required prior to loan disbursement, more to ensure proper understanding of the loan repayment process than to upgrade business skills.

From 1981 to 1985, the Bank extended 115,000 loans through 86 branch offices to approximately 58,000 beneficiaries located in 1,250 villages. The repayment rate was 94 percent. By April 1986, the Bank operated nearly 250 branches.

Women account for approximately 69 percent of all members and receive about 55 percent of the total credit. Many women (60-65 percent) had not previously been engaged in income-generating activities.

Project design features that contribute to the Bank's success in reaching women include:

- Group formation and loan extension services at the village level: minimizes the amount of time female borrowers must spend away from their households and income-generating activities. It should also be noted that travel beyond the home village is particularly difficult for women in Bangladesh because of cultural constraints.
- Branch staff members living in the village where the branch is located: provides greater opportunities for interaction between staff and clients. This is especially important for women who often rely on informal contacts for information and technical assistance. In addition, at least two staff members of each branch are women.
- Standard training for all borrowers: increases the self-confidence of women.

KEY ISSUES CONCERNING THE INVOLVEMENT OF WOMEN IN FORESTRY PROJECTS

1. How projects can maximize returns on investment by involving women?
 - If women's species and product preferences are taken into consideration, they will be more likely to cooperate in pursuing overall project objectives.
 - Women are often a stronger lobby for the protection of common property resources, because they depend on them more heavily than men.
 - If activities are planned around women's schedules, they will have more time to devote to these.
 - Female-headed households (or households without adult males) may form a large percentage of households in the project areas. If they can participate, project returns will increase.
 - Women can generate significant household income if raw materials for home-based industries are available.
 - Rural women have been shown to be better loan repayers than men. Ensuring for them access to institutional credit for planting or land improvement may have higher returns and may lead to more family income going directly to meeting subsistence needs and raising household living standards.

2. How project objectives can fail to be achieved?
 - If women do not perceive project activities to be in their interest, they will not (or only reluctantly) provide labor for tree watering and tending and will not cooperate in recommended resource management practices such as rotational grazing, hand-cutting and stall-feeding, and restrictions on cutting.
 - If forest produce from plantations is not channeled to the women who need it, the pressure on existing forest resources from women gathering wood (and sometimes marketing) may increase rather than decrease.
 - If forest produce goes primarily to men's (cash-generating) enterprises and exacerbates shortages of products required by women for either subsistence needs or market-oriented activities, the net income accruing to the household may decline rather than increase.

- If women are responsible for key project activities such as nursery work, tree planting and tending, but do not receive the extension messages and requisite technical know-how, seedlings may not survive and thrive.

3. When women probably fail to benefit?

- When women's access to project activities and outputs is more limited than men's due to their inferior legal and/or traditional rights.
- When women are de facto heads of households in a patriarchal society and are confronting male-oriented public institutions.
- When there is a conflict between the forest products and project benefits women need and want and those that men or the male-dominated communities prefer: e.g., fuelwood and fodder vs. lumber/cash, grazing areas vs. closed-canopy plantations.

4. How women can be harmed?

- If women are expected to provide their labor to an extent that conflicts in quantity and/or timing with their other work responsibilities.
- If project activities interfere with women's supply of, or access to, formerly available facilities and/or products.

Guatemala

In 1985, Blumberg followed up a 1980 study by Kusterer, et al. (1981) of the impact of an agribusiness enterprise on people in four research sites: three villages of poor, largely Indian, contract growers, and the mainly Ladina women who worked in the firm's processing plant. The villagers grew broccoli, cauliflower, and snowpeas for the subsidiary of a U.S.-based multinational corporation. The female processing plant workers froze and packed the vegetables for export to the U.S. The firm paid these women the minimum wage. During the 8-9 month "high season," shifts of 12-16 hours a day, 6 days a week, were not uncommon. The result was a wage level as high as an urban male blue collar worker (150-300 above female domestics or market traders' earnings). This transformed their lives. The women controlled their earnings and, by 1985, the fertility impact was unmistakable. Among 15 "1980 veterans" in the 1985 sample (median age = 32.5 years) only 13 babies had been born between 1980-1985. These 15 women averaged only 2.2 children each and had taken control of their fertility: 7 said they will not have any more children (at median age = 37, mean = .3 children). In contrast, in 1985, 20 women from the only contract grower village with a substantial Ladina population (Patzicia) averaged 5.2 children at median age 33.5. Even though half of these women helped their husbands in the fields, the company's check was made out to the man. When asked about further fertility, Patzicia women often replied: "I don't want any more but my husband does, so I'll have to continue."

In summary, an increase or decrease of income in the hands of the woman can be expected to have more direct consequences for family fertility.

A Successful Project Adaptation to Gender Concerns

The Arid and Semi-Arid Lands project in Kenya intended to improve production and preserve the agricultural resources base in the Semi-Arid highlands by popularizing bench terracing and water conservation. The Social Soundness Analysis pointed out that women are the principal farmers and that, because of high male out-migration, women's self-help groups would be the main source of labor for project works such as construction of terraces and water catchments. The SSA warned that if women were expected to supply free labor for soil and water conservation during the peak agricultural seasons, targets would not be met. The recommendation was for the project to pay for the labor or suspend the work during the peak season.

The original project design ignored the recommendation. Targets were set on the assumption that work would be carried on throughout the entire year. Ultimately, project management recognized that the original targets were not feasible and suspended work during the peak season so that women could finish the plowing and planting. The economic responsibilities and time constraints of women were a critical factor in securing their unpaid labor. Women were willing to work on terracing and water catchments when they could. Gender analysis led to project adaptation which led to achievement of project objectives. The Government of Kenya assessed the value of the women's unpaid labor contribution to the project at US\$1.8 million.

The Gambia - Irrigated Rice:

A project developed by male Taiwanese technicians was targeted to men, even though women were the traditional cultivators and income beneficiaries of swamp rice. In order to assure women's labor on irrigated rice, men blocked women from owning and or cultivating irrigated rice on their own account. As a result, rice production decreased under the project as women held back their labor.

TRANSPORT

In much of the developing world, women, unaided by even a cart or wheelbarrow, transport most of the water and fuelwood and a good deal of the harvest. Women, especially in Africa, often carry crops on their heads from field to home to market. Carr and Sandhu cite two studies where the provision of animal transport enabled women to use this saved time for income-generating activities.

North India

Following the introduction of mules, which freed time women had spent carrying fuel, they began such income-generating activities as knitting and tomato growing (Cecelski 1984, in Carr and Sandhu).

Burkina Faso

This example is particularly relevant for the present paper because both men and women benefitted. Donkey carts were introduced and men, who traditionally would not carry wood, water, or harvested crops, used them to transport water and wood for sale. Women used the freed time to engage in cotton spinning, which is often an income-generating activity, and for rest.

In the following case, the project managed to reach women farmers but, because of a poorly conceived evaluation, failed to document this success.

Evaluation Obscures Project's Success in Reaching Women

The Caribbean Agricultural Extension Project Phase I and II (CAEP) was a large regional project that focused in improving the economic and social wellbeing of small farm households through an increase in agricultural production and generation of agricultural employment. The project papers stated that government targets for increased food production would not be met unless women received more technical assistance in crop production, and specified project components that would reach women farmers. An evaluation that focused on WID concerns found that the project had exceeded the minimal gender-specific requirements established in the project papers, primarily because the project staff recognized and operationalized key gender concerns. The staff emphasized and operationalized key gender concerns. The staff emphasized the creation of linkages with agencies dealing with women and the training of women extension agents. Two subregional training workshops on women and agriculture were held, and a special WID component was added to the Extension Diploma course of the University of the West Indies.

The original AID project evaluation, however, failed to present systematic data on women's participation as extension agents in in-service training or as farmers in extension contacts. It focused almost entirely on women within the farm household and women's traditional, home economics activities. Since the project had successfully incorporated gender concerns into the design and implementation stages, the lack of mechanisms to document its progress was even more regrettable. Future evaluations should include gender-disaggregated data on participation in training and extension and on farmer contacts.

Male/Female Farmers' Response to a New Road in Cameroon

Henn (1986), an economist, studied two Beti villages in the cocoa-growing region of southern Cameroon. She found that, even though they already were working over 60 hours a week, women were more responsive to improved marketing conditions and rising prices for food crops than men, who worked only half as many hours. Henn's random samples involved 40 households (21 in one village and 19 in the other).¹

A major new road opened in 1982, which significantly improved marketing access for the village of Bilik Bindik. Farmgate prices also rose. Meanwhile, Mgbaba remained quite isolated. Henn found that both men and women in Bilik Bindik increased output of market food, but women's response was much greater:

Women in Bilik Bindik reported increasing their food production and processing labor after the road opened... (spending) 4.6 more hours a week producing food than women in market-isolated Mgbaba. Women's total work week was nearly sixty eight hours in Bilik Bindik vs. sixty one hours in Mgbaba... (a difference) significant at the 10% confidence level. Women in Mgbaba worked less than five hours a week producing food for the market while women in Bilik Bindik spend 10.75 hours. The effects of the additional labor on women's incomes, enhanced by the lower marketing costs in Bilik Bindik were dramatic: women from Bilik Bindik made an average net income of \$570 from sales of processed and unprocessed food, while women from Mgbaba made only \$225 (p. 323, emphasis added).

The contrast with men is sharp. Men's main source of income was cocoa. Only 24% of the men sold food crops in contrast to 94% of the women. But this small group of men received an exceptionally high rate of return (an average of \$3.80 per hour) for their production of plantains and bananas, the only two food crops grown by males. In contrast, cocoa brought them an average of \$1.70 per hour for the 1984 crop. Women received only \$0.71 per hour for food crops grown on their own account (including peanuts, corn, melons, leafy vegetables, onions, tomatoes, cassava, plantain, banana and cocoyam).

Continued...

¹She surveyed each married adult in both villages. In Bilik Bindik, this involved 21 households representing 23% of total households. In the second village, Mgbaba, her 19 households represented 17% of the village total. She studied 34 men and 47 women. There were more women due to polygyny.

Male/Female...

The Bilik Bindik men devoted nearly one hour per week to increased plantain and, especially, banana production in contrast to the Mgbaba men's average of only twenty minutes labor per week on these highly perishable food crops which were difficult transport them from Mgbaba to the market without spoilage. At the same time, the men in Bilik Bindik:

...cut back on the amount of time they spent helping their wives produce food for the family. Women in Bilik Bindik, therefore, were obliged to make up for disappearing male labor in the subsistence sector (Ibid. p. 324, emphasis added).

Given the small male sample size, these data must be seen as merely preliminary. But it seems that men, despite an average work week of under 32 hours, proved less responsive than women, working twice those hours, to fairly lucrative new income opportunities for marketing food crops.

The women, with a crushing work schedule double that of the men, described themselves as overworked. The women devoted 26 hours/week to agriculture and 31 to "domestic" activities, vs. their husbands' 12 hours/week in agriculture and 4 in "domestic" tasks. For both genders, the remaining work time was devoted to other income-producing activities. Clearly, the women's additional labor was approaching physiological limits. Moreover, they ran the risk that their husbands would shift more of the burden of family maintenance costs onto women as female income rose -- a pattern that was occurring, according to Henn's inference from cross-sectional data. The women's response speaks for itself. Their need for income was so strong that it outweighed the constraints of a daunting labor burden.

Given African women's importance as own-account food crop cultivators and the seriousness of the African food crisis, it should be of critical policy importance that these African women farmers, more than men, seem willing to grow additional own-account food crops for the market when their constraints are eased and farmgate prices rise. Thus far, the opacity of the "black box model of the household" seems to have prevented policy makers from recognizing that gender is a crucially important variable vis-a-vis African food production.

CTTA

There have been positive motivational changes among all participants in the CTTA process. These changes seem to relate to the fact that the process increases personal self-esteem for a lot of people. They are given a vision; there are no empty promises; and knowledge transfer produces immediate, tangible results. (see following sections.)

The apparent success of this project and the enthusiasm it has generated among all players in the public agricultural technology system of Honduras and Peru is both explained and illustrated by reference to five key components of the CTTA approach.

- A fundamental emphasis on farmer participation
- Tight integration of researchers, extensionists, and farmers
- Careful and systematic planning and execution of an overall TT approach
- Design and utilization of extremely client-sensitive communications strategies
- Continual attention to monitoring and feedback mechanisms

Farmer Participation

Farmer participation is the core of the CTTA process. While other models give rhetorical recognition to this element, the Honduras and Peru projects have actually operationalized it as both the beginning and iterative endpoint of the technology transfer process

Farmer participation begins in the developmental investigation where, as members of a *Comite Agricola* interviewed in Honduras pointed out, "For the first time, someone asked us what our problems were; before this, we thought that our government was deaf."

After problems are prioritized with farmers and potentially appropriate technologies have been selected in consultation with researchers, farmers then participate in validating the technologies. This is accomplished through in-depth interviews, focus groups, and collaborative farmer -- or cooperative-managed experiments. This process often leads to innovative adjustments in the application of the technology so as to give it a better "fit" with producers' economic, social, and cultural realities. An instructive case example follows.

Transferring Planting Techniques for Maize in the Andes

CTTA diagnostic work revealed that most Huaraz farmers in the target population did not take advantage of the benefits of controlled spacing and plant densities for maize. Planning is traditionally done by women, who follow along behind the plow, dropping a continuous line of seeds. Researchers and extensionists recommended that farmers instead plant by hand as is done in coastal Peru, dropping three seeds into carefully spaced pockets made with a spade. Some researchers indicated that this technique alone could increase production by 15%.

Participating producers noted a number of drawbacks to this recommendation, however. For one thing, people are unfamiliar with the metric system in which researchers and extensionists measured distance. More serious, the proposed technique entails the back-breaking work of repeatedly gouging out pockets and then bending over to seed them (an estimated total of some 21000 times in order to sow a single hectare). The personpower for this technique simply is not available in Andean, as versus coastal, Peru. In any event, such heavy work would have to be done by men. Yet throughout the Andes, a profound ideological analogy between female fertility and agricultural productivity stipulates that women must sow the seed.

Based on these inputs from participating farmers and further consultations by CTTA personnel with researchers, technology recommendations were revised and a creative compromise was struck. Men continued to plow and women to plant, but with a difference. Women now carry a light staff cut to the exact distance for spacing between plants, which they lay down as they proceed, carefully dropping only three seeds at each interval.

CTTA formative evaluations indicate that this new planting technique has one of the highest adoption rates of all the technologies proposed by CTTA to date.

Once a technology is validated, the next step is to design and test effective and intelligible communications strategies to extend it. Farmers are necessarily key participants in this process, too. Via focus groups, survey, in-depth interviews, consumer panels, etc. they critique every aspect of the print and broadcast media under preparation. Even after CTTA media are put into play, farmer reactions to them are continually monitored and assessed via formative evaluations; and refinements are made to the communications strategies ... needed.

Further, producers also participate in the broader dissemination of media and information, as they share and discuss materials and broadcasts with peers. Likewise for technology diffusion. Indeed, in radio broadcasts, their voices and views are often incorporated directly into programming. Whether as voices on the radio, demonstration farmers, or merely as enthusiastic practitioners of a new technique, producers themselves are everywhere the single most credible source of agricultural information among their peers (Lionberger et al. 1975, McCorkle et al. 1988). CTTA has widely put this principle into practice.

Indeed, in both Honduras and Peru, participating families and communities have been approached by neighbors who want to learn how they, too, can join in and benefit from the CTTA process.

SESSION 5: GENDER CONSIDERATIONS IN PROGRAMMING

INTENDED OUTCOMES

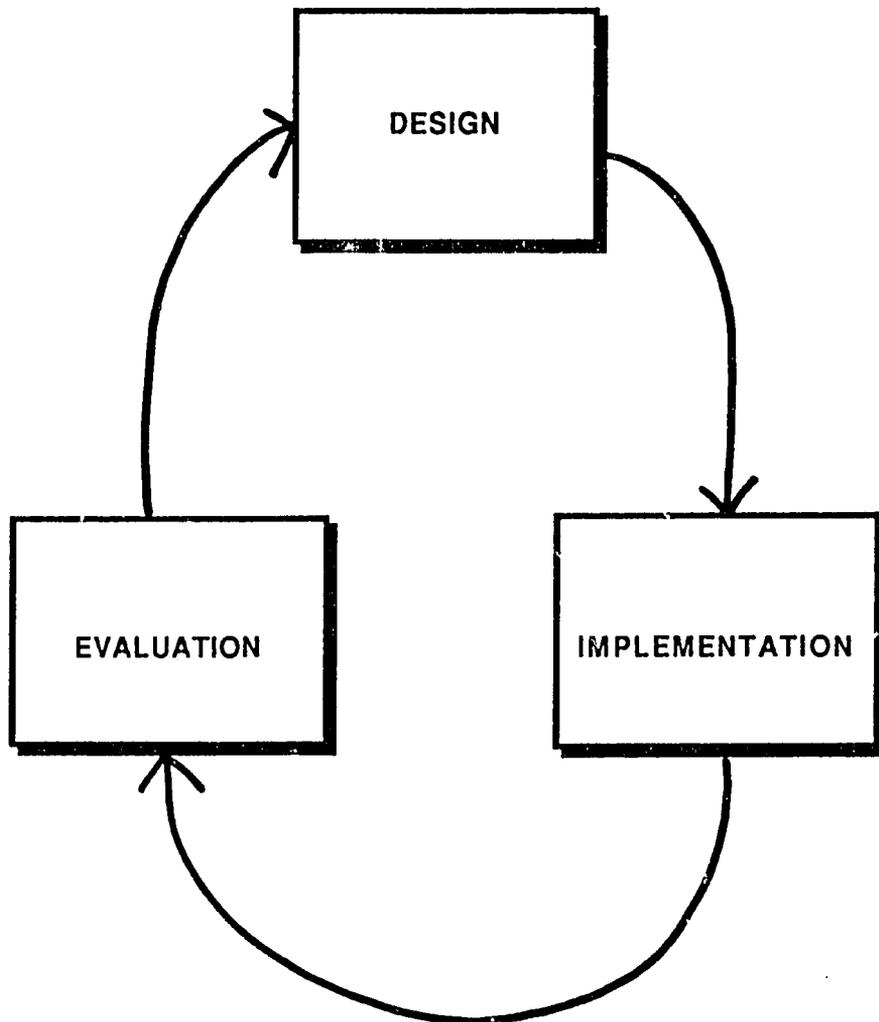
At the conclusion of this session, participants will:

1. have briefly reviewed the basic concepts of the Gender Information Framework;
2. have briefly reviewed the components of AID's project cycle and some very gender-specific issues related to each;
3. have identified specific aspects of their work to be examined in terms of gender.

ACTIVITIES

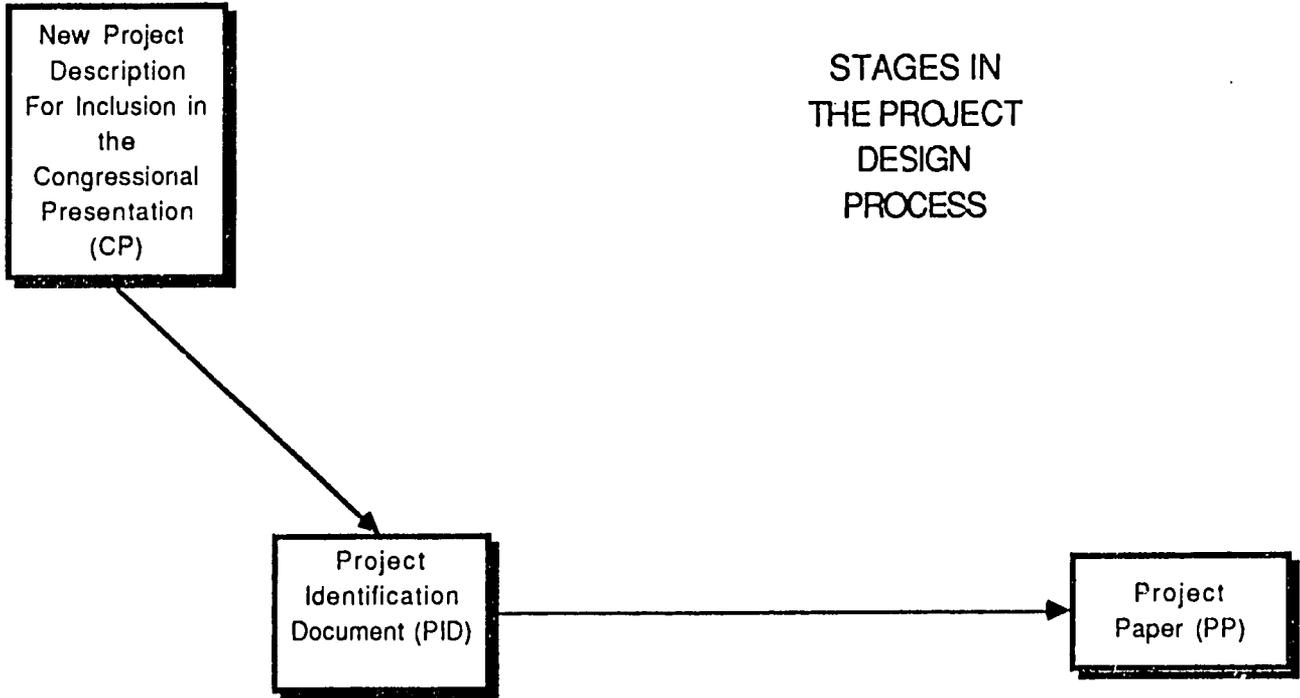
- Lecturette Reviewing the GIF and the AID Project Cycle
- Work Group Exercise: Review specific projects to identify areas in the project cycle where gender data are required.
- Discussion of Gender Issues Affecting Each Component of the Project Cycle

**GENDER ISSUES AND
PROJECT DESIGN**



THE PROJECT
CYCLE

STAGES IN
THE PROJECT
DESIGN
PROCESS



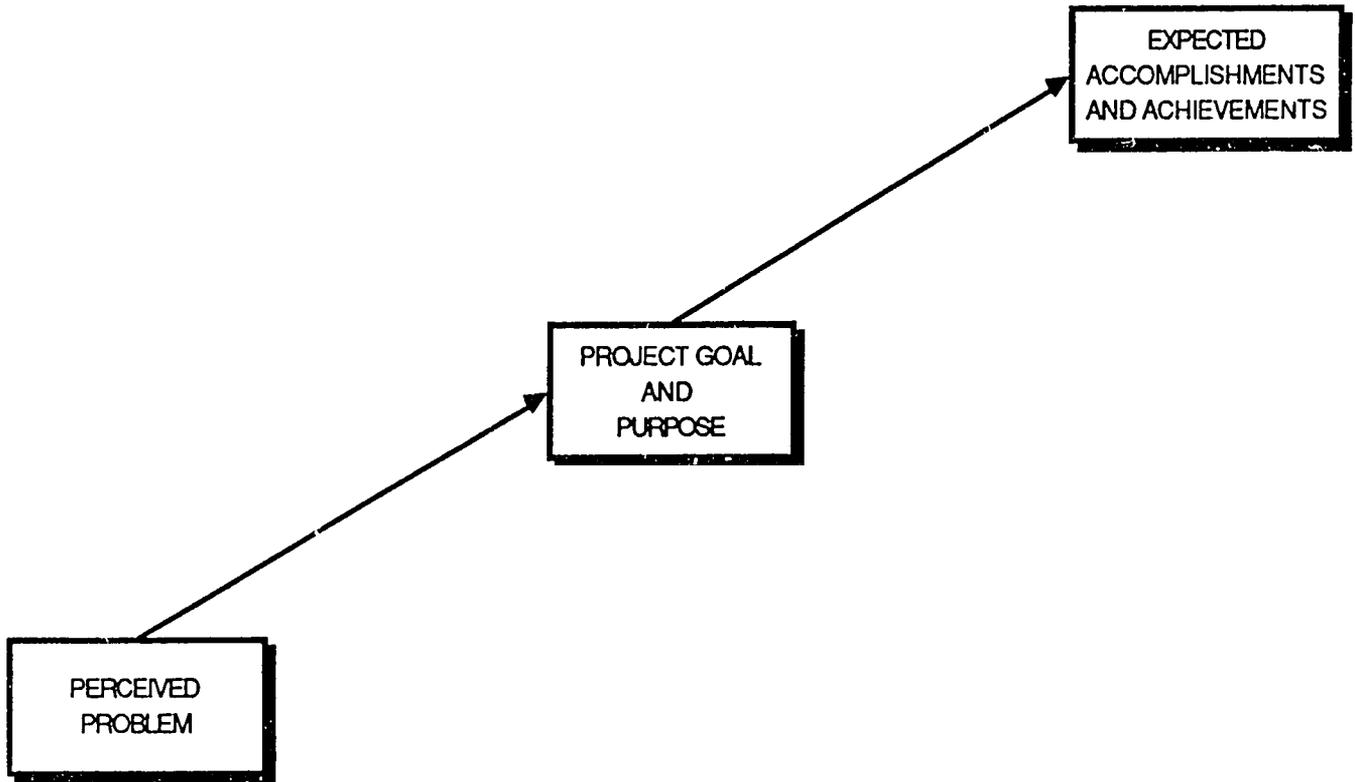
HOW EARLY IN THE
DESIGN PROCESS
SHOULD WOMEN IN
DEVELOPMENT/GENDER
CONSIDERATIONS BE
INTRODUCED?

AS SOON AS
POSSIBLE

BASIC
PROJECT
COMMITMENTS
ARE MADE
EARLY

A NEW PROJECT DESCRIPTION
INCLUDES:

- * PROJECT PURPOSE AND
MAJOR OUTPUTS
- * SUSTAINABILITY REVIEW
- * LINK TO STRATEGY
- * BENEFICIARIES
- * PROJECT FUNDING



THE PID LAYS OUT THE FULL LOGIC OF A PROJECT
FOR THE FIRST TIME

KEY QUESTIONS TO BE ASKED ABOUT GENDER ISSUES
AT THE PID DEVELOPMENT STAGE OF DESIGN
HAVE BEEN ARTICULATED
AND ARE BEING TAUGHT
AS PART OF A.I.D.'S
PROJECT DESIGN COURSE

GENDER CONSIDERATIONS: PROJECT IDENTIFICATION DOCUMENT (PID)

1. PROJECT DESCRIPTION

1.1 Problem Statement: consider how gender affects social and economic aspects of the problem to be addressed.

- o How do men and women participate in activities the project will affect?
- o How do division of labor, income, expenditure patterns by gender affect the problem?
- o How do gender-based constraints on access to resources affect the situation?
- o How do both men and women participate in defining the problem?

1.2 Statement of Expected Project Achievements: assess the feasibility of achievement of objectives, given gender differences in roles and responsibilities as well as access to project resources and project benefits.

- o To what extent will participation of both men and women affect project achievement? For example, will achievement of project objectives require contribution of family labor or group self help labor? If yes, does project design enable and encourage participation of and benefits to both men and women?

2. OUTLINE OF THE PROJECT AND HOW IT WILL WORK

2.1 Project Elements

2.1.1 Identify strategies that are appropriate to male and female roles and responsibilities where project will affect women's and men's activities.

- o What kinds of approaches to solving the problem would draw upon the skills and knowledge of men and women?

2.1.2 Identify technical issues in the project design that will affect/be affected by men's and women's roles and responsibilities.

- o Whose labor/financial responsibilities are supported by the proposed technical package or technical assistance?
- o Do new technologies take into account gender division of labor, women's and men's separate or joint crop production, and/or gender-specific constraints to increased productivity?

- o Have host country women and men participated in designed strategies to address development constraints?
- 2.1.3 Review project components for consistency with the social and economic organization of activities the project will affect as well as constraints and opportunities entailed in that organization.
- 2.1.4 Include strategies to obtain gender-disaggregated data and feedback from both men and women in project monitoring and evaluation systems where their activities will be affected by the project.

3. FACTORS AFFECTING PROJECT SELECTION AND FURTHER CONSIDERATION

3.1 Social Considerations

- 3.1.1 Include known information about key gender variables in analysis of factors affecting project activities.
- o What information is available and what is needed on gender differences in key socio-cultural factors including:
 - Division and seasonality of labor;
 - Intra-household incomes and expenditures and their control; seasonal variations in income and expenditures;
 - Access to and control of resources;
 - Access to project benefits;
 - Key constraints.
- 3.1.2 Consider who benefits from the project and how they benefit.
- o Are beneficiaries appropriate, given the social organization of activities the project will affect?
 - o Will project benefits and their allocation provide sufficient incentive to encourage participation?
- 3.1.3 Identify gender considerations related to ability to participate in project.
- o What are prerequisites to participation (e.g., literacy, land) and how do these affect men's and women's ability to participate and benefit?
- 3.1.4 Assess differential impact of project by gender.
- o Will the project have differential short or long term impact on women and men?
 - o How might this impact affect project sustainability?

- 3.2. Economic Considerations: examine how the proposed approach will affect men's and women's economic roles and improve family well-being.
- o Are economic benefits consistent with income and expenditure patterns of women and men?
 - o How will project interventions affect these patterns?
- 3.3 Technical Considerations: assess the technical expertise and experience of proposed recipient country implementing agency in reaching women; consider developing such capacity as part of the project, if needed.
- o What is the experience of the implementing agency in reaching women and men in their separate and joint economic (productive) roles?
 - o What linkages exist to ensure feedback from both men and women to researchers, extensionists, planners, etc. involved in project implementation?
- 3.4 Budget Consideration: examine budget estimates for consistency with needs and opportunities described in Social and Economic Considerations sections.
- o Where gender is a factor in activities to be affected by the project, does the budget include the funds necessary for appropriate staffing, gender disaggregated data collection, monitoring project impact on men and women, and outreach to both men and women?
- 3.5 Design Strategy:
- 3.5.1 Summarize gender disaggregated data needs for Project Paper (PP) or pre-PP study.
 - 3.5.2 Indicate how such data will be collected and analyzed.
 - 3.5.3 Recommend PP team composition necessary to ensure that gender issues are effectively addressed.

**TOOLS EXIST THAT CAN HELP
PROJECT DESIGN TEAMS
CONSIDER GENDER ISSUES
AS THE DESIGN PROCESS PROCEEDS**

THE GENDER INFORMATION FRAMEWORK

A TOOL FOR ANALYZING SITUATIONS

THE LOGICAL FRAMEWORK

**A.I.D.'S BASIC TOOL FOR DEFINING THE
LOGIC OF A PROJECT**

THE GENDER INFORMATION FRAMEWORK (GIF)

AT THE PID STAGE OF DESIGN
THE GIF HELPS TEAMS

- * IDENTIFY CONSTRAINTS THAT AFFECT MEN AND WOMEN IN DIFFERENT WAYS
- * DEFINE OPPORTUNITIES FOR EACH GENDER IN A SPECIFIC SECTOR OR FIELD

THE GIF HELPS DESIGN TEAMS ANALYZE SITUATIONS
BY DRAWING ATTENTION TO FOUR FACTORS THAT
TEND TO BE USEFUL IN IDENTIFYING WHERE
GENDER DIFFERENCES EXIST

	<p>THE ALLOCATION OF LABOR</p> <p>WHO DOES WHAT?</p>	
--	--	--

	<p>SOURCES OF INCOME</p> <p>WHO RECEIVES PAY AND OTHER REVENUE?</p>	
--	---	--

	<p>FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITIES</p> <p>WHO IS RESPONSIBLE FOR WHAT?</p>	
--	---	--

	<p>ACCESS TO RESOURCES</p> <p>WHO CONTROLS VARIOUS RESOURCES?</p>	
--	---	--

ANALYZING A SITUATION TO DETERMINE
GENDER ISSUES IS NOT SUFFICIENT

A CDIE ASSESSMENT OF
A.I.D. PROGRESS IN
IMPLEMENTING ITS
WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT
INITIATIVE SHOWED THAT
EVEN WHERE SOUND ANALYSES OF
GENDER CONSIDERATIONS
HAD BEEN UNDERTAKEN

THIS KNOWLEDGE WAS
NOT SYSTEMATICALLY
USED TO
GENERATE
PROJECT
DESIGNS

**THE LOGICAL FRAMEWORK
IS A BASIC TOOL
A.I.D. USES EARLY IN THE DESIGN PROCESS
TO DEFINE PROJECT PURPOSE,
IDENTIFY MAJOR OUTPUTS,
SPECIFY BENEFICIARIES
AND
DEFINE FUNDING LEVELS**

GENDER ISSUES NEED TO BE CONSIDERED AS EACH
ELEMENT OF THE LOGICAL FRAMEWORK IS DEVELOPED

NARRATIVE SUMMARY:

CLEAR STATEMENT OF OBJECTIVES

OBJECTIVELY VERIFIABLE
INDICATORS:

INDICATORS OF PERFORMANCE AND
SPECIFIC TARGETS WITH RESPECT
TO PERFORMANCE (QUANTITY,
QUALITY AND TIME)

MEANS OF VERIFICATION:

THE METHODS THAT WILL BE USED
TO OBTAIN DATA ON PERFORMANCE

ASSUMPTIONS:

FACTORS WHICH LIE OUTSIDE THE
"MANAGEABLE INTEREST" OF THE
PROJECT TEAM -- BUT WHICH ARE
IMPERATIVE FOR PROJECT SUCCESS

A Successful Project Adaptation to Gender Concerns

The Arid and Semi-Arid Lands project in Kenya intended to improve production and preserve the agricultural resources base in the semi-arid highlands by popularizing bench terracing and water conservation. The Social Soundness Analysis pointed out that women are the principal farmers and, because of high male out-migration, women's self-help groups would be the main source of labor for project works such as construction of terraces and water catchments. The SSA warned that if women were expected to supply free labor for soil and water conservation during the peak agricultural seasons, targets would not be met. The recommendation was for the project to pay for the labor or suspend the work during the peak season.

The original project design ignored the recommendation. Targets were set on the assumption that work would be carried on throughout the entire year. Ultimately, project management recognized that the original targets were not feasible and suspended work during the peak season so that women could finish the plowing and planting. The economic responsibilities and time constraints of women were a critical factor in securing their unpaid labor. Women were willing to work on terracing and water catchments *when they could*. Gender analysis facilitated project adaptation which resulted in achievement of project objectives. The Government of Kenya assessed the value of the women's unpaid labor contribution to the project at \$US1.8 million.⁷

THE DESIGN PROCESS WHICH
BEGINS WITH
A
NEW PROJECT DESCRIPTION
AND A PID
CONTINUES WITH THE DEVELOPMENT OF
A PROJECT PAPER (PP)

AND ONCE AGAIN

GENDER ISSUES MUST BE CONSIDERED

FOR THIS PURPOSE

SPECIFIC PP STAGE DESIGN QUESTIONS

HAVE BEEN DEVELOPED AND ARE BEING

TAUGHT IN A.I.D.'S PROJECT DESIGN COURSE

GENDER CONSIDERATIONS: PROJECT PAPER (PP)

1. PROJECT RATIONALE AND DESCRIPTION

1.1 Problem: Consider how gender affects the problem to be addressed.

- o How do men and women participate in the activities the project will affect, directly or indirectly? How is the problem different for men and women? Have both men and women participated in defining the problem and identifying solutions?

1.2 Project Elements.

1.2.1 Develop strategies to incorporate women (based on technical, financial, economic, social soundness, and administrative analyses) where women or both women and men play a role(s) in activities.

- o Where women play a major role in project-related activities, how do proposed strategies utilize and expand women's productive capacities?
- o What strategies address the constraints to participation that result from gender differences in roles and responsibilities? For example, will outreach strategies, timing, and location, scope and scale of project elements (e.g., size of loans, kind of training, type of equipment) enable the participation of both men and women?

1.2.2 Assess the consistency between project elements, purpose, inputs, outputs, social, and other analyses.

- o Are actions to be taken consistent with significant gender differences in the organization of activities, income, and expenditure patterns the project will affect?

1.2.3 Indicate strategies to collect gender disaggregated baseline data where they are unavailable.

1.3 Cost Estimates: Estimate funds needed for collection of gender disaggregated baseline data, training and materials development, project personnel, and other project elements that enable participation of both women and men.

1.4 Implementation Plan.

1.4.1 Identify male and female training participants, criteria for eligibility, and strategy for recruitment, where project analyses indicate female personnel are important.

- 1.4.2 Include appropriate project personnel to provide technical assistance to both men and women.

2: SUMMARIES OF ANALYSES

- 2.1 Technical Assessment: include gender as variable in technology needs assessment, analysis of cultural suitability, and potential impacts of the technical package.
- o Needs Assessment: What provisions are made for local men's and women's participation in selecting technologies?
 - o Access: Does the technical package (technology, information, credit, etc.) take into account gender and class differences in access to labor, cash, land, or other resources that might affect access to the technology?
 - o Suitability: Where women play a major role in project-related activities, how will the project determine whether proposed technological innovations or assistance are acceptable to them? What provisions are made for women's participation in testing technologies and evaluating results?
 - o Impact: Given allocation of tasks by gender:
 - Will the technical package increase labor differentially for women and men?
 - Will it affect male versus female access to resources?
 - How will changes from the technology affect both men's and women's domestic responsibilities and their ability to provide income or food for their families?
- 2.2 Financial Analysis: review intra-household differences in incomes and expenditures; examine women's and men's financial ability to participate in project.
- o Are there gender-based constraints in ability to pay for project inputs or participate in project? If yes, what are the implications for overall project impact and success?
 - o How will the project affect incomes of both male and female family members?
- 2.3 Economic Analysis: specify costs and benefits for male and female household members in terms of opportunity costs of labor, access to productive resources, status, and ability to meet family expenses.
- o How will the project affect gender-based patterns of income, labor, access to productive resources, and male/female ability to meet family expenses for food, health care, education, etc. and other family expenses?

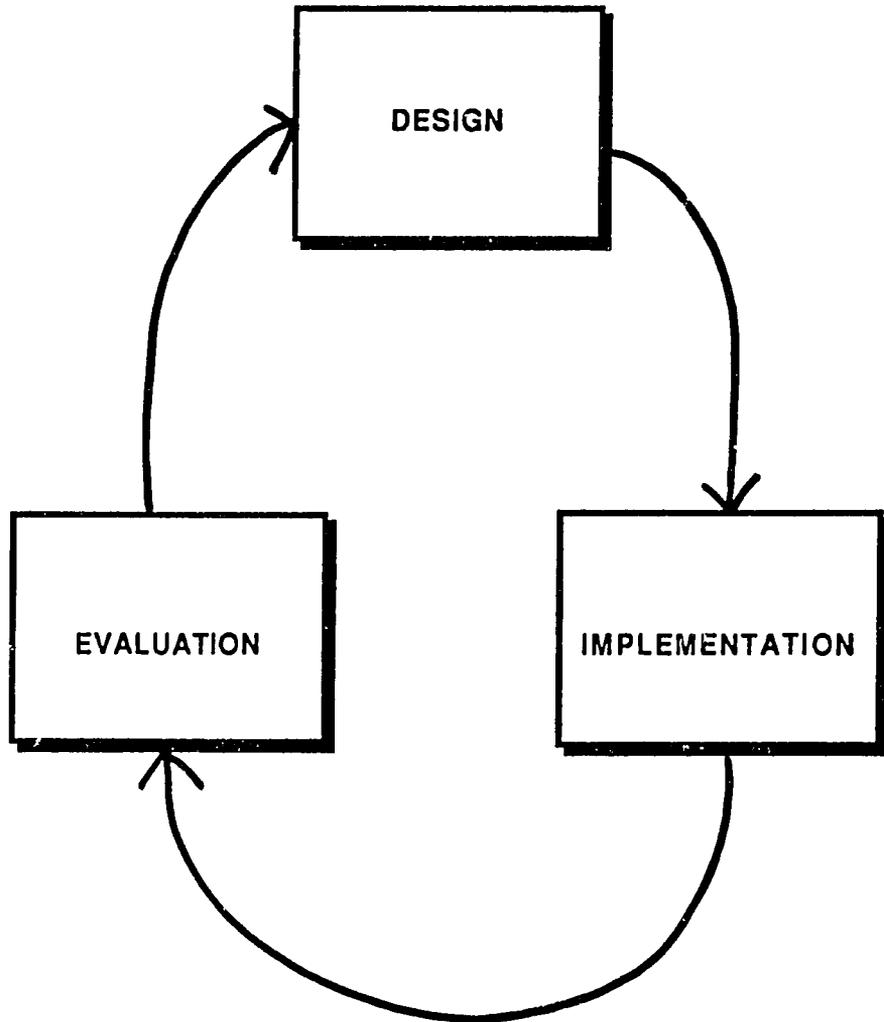
2.4 Social Soundness Analysis.

- 2.4.1 Examine men's and women's roles in activities the project will affect and assess whether project inputs are appropriate according to the social and economic organization of activities.
- o What is the division of labor/time by gender in activities the project will affect? How does the division of labor affect activities the project is trying to implement?
 - o What opportunities for increasing productivity are offered by the differences in roles and responsibilities among male and female household members?
- 2.4.2 Examine prerequisites for participation in project and how gender-based constraints will affect ability of appropriate household members to participate.
- o What are the formal/informal prerequisites to participation (e.g., literacy, collateral, access to labor)?
 - o How does gender affect access to and control of resources (land, labor, capital) necessary to participate in the project?
- 2.4.3 Examine the distribution of benefits to women and men and how benefits affect incentives to participate.
- o Which household members benefit and how?
 - o Do benefits to individual household members provide sufficient incentive to participate?
 - o Do benefits offset any additional work might be required?
- 2.4.4 Assess impact, short and long term, direct and indirect on: women's and men's income, expenditure patterns, division of labor, allocation of land and other productive resources.
- o How will the project affect patterns of labor allocation, income, expenditures, and status?
 - o What are the implications of these changes for project sustainability and long term development goals?

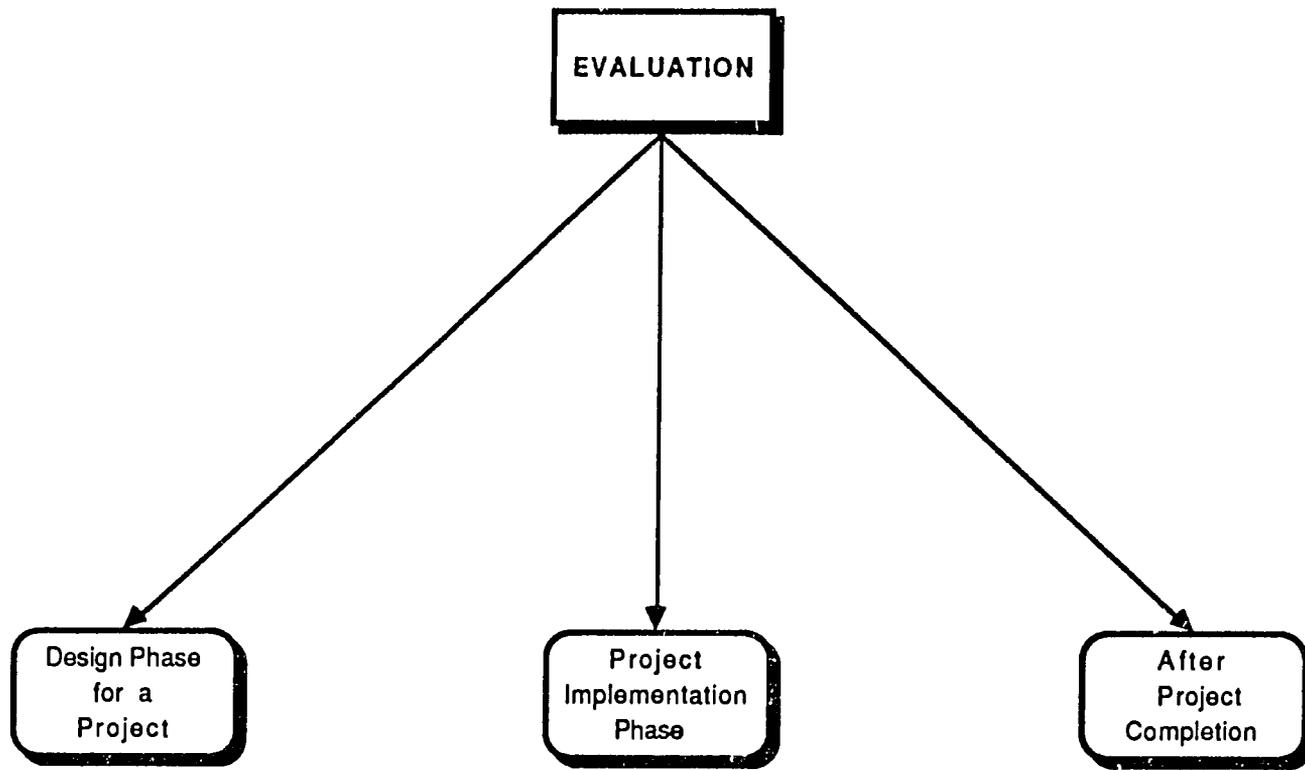
Advantages and Disadvantages of Three Methods of Including Women in Projects

Type of Project	Advantages	Disadvantages
Women-only	<p>Women receive all of the project's benefits. Beneficiaries may acquire leadership skills and greater self-confidence in gender-segregated environment. Skills training in nontraditional areas may be much easier without male competition.</p>	<p>These projects tend to be small scale and resources and underfunded. Implementing agencies often lack technical expertise in raising productivity or income. WID-specific income-generating projects rarely take marketability of services into account and thus fail to generate income. Women beneficiaries may be required to contribute their time and labor with no compensation. Women become further marginalized or isolated from mainstream development.</p>
Women's Component	<p>These projects as a whole enjoy more resources and higher priority than WID-specific projects, which can benefit the WID component. Women are ensured of receiving at least part of the projects resources. Women can "catch up" to men through WID components.</p>	<p>The WID component usually receives far less funding and priority than do the other components. These components have tended to respond to women's social roles; thus, domestic activities may be emphasized to the exclusion of any others. Awareness of the importance of gender in the project's other components may be missing.</p>
Integrated	<p>Women can take full advantage of the resources and high priority that integrated projects receive. If women form a large proportion of the pool of eligibles, their benefits will probably be high even without detailed attention given WID issues.</p>	<p>Unless information on women's activity and time use is introduced at the design stage, projects may inadvertently exclude women through promotion mechanisms, location, and timing of project resources, etc. If women form only a small proportion of the eligibles, they may not be included in the project. Women may be competing with men for scarce project resources and lose out because of their lack of experience in integrated groupsettings and their relatively low status in the family and community.</p>

**GENDER ISSUES AND
PROJECT EVALUATION**



THE PROJECT
CYCLE



- Define Project Objectives and Performance Indicators
- Develop M&E Plan
- Collect Baseline Data

- Routinely collect basic data on project performance, all levels, i.e., monitor project
- Midterm evaluations examine project

- Post project evaluations of impact
- Post project assessments of long term sustainability

EVALUATION IS NOT A ONE SHOT ACTIVITY

GENDER CONSIDERATIONS IN
EVALUATION ACTIVITIES
DURING THE DESIGN PHASE
FOR A PROJECT



DO NOT COLLECT BASELINE DATA
BEFORE DEFINING WHAT IT IS YOU NEED TO KNOW
ABOUT A SITUATION "BEFORE" AND "AFTER"
A PROJECT INTERVENES

DURING THE DESIGN PHASE
THE LOGICAL FRAMEWORK

IS A
BASIC TOOL

THAT HELPS TEAMS IDENTIFY HOW
GENDER CONSIDERATIONS SHOULD
BE INCORPORATED INTO A

**PROJECT'S MONITORING AND
EVALUATION PLAN**

GENDER ISSUES NEED TO BE CONSIDERED AS EACH
ELEMENT OF THE LOGICAL FRAMEWORK IS DEVELOPED

NARRATIVE SUMMARY:

CLEAR STATEMENT OF OBJECTIVES

OBJECTIVELY VERIFIABLE
INDICATORS:

INDICATORS OF PERFORMANCE
AND SPECIFIC TARGETS WITH
RESPECT TO PERFORMANCE
(QUANTITY, QUALITY AND TIME)

MEANS OF VERIFICATION:

THE MEANS THAT WILL BE USED
TO OBTAIN DATA ON PERFORMANCE

ASSUMPTIONS:

FACTORS WHICH LIE OUTSIDE THE
"MANAGEABLE INTEREST" OF THE
PROJECT TEAM - BUT WHICH ARE
IMPERATIVE FOR PROJECT SUCCESS

**DEFINE PROJECT OBJECTIVES AND
ESTABLISH PERFORMANCE INDICATORS**

**AT THIS STAGE OF THE DESIGN PROCESS
IT IS IMPORTANT TO ENSURE THAT GENDER
IS CONSIDERED AS THE PROJECT'S
LOGICAL FRAMEWORK IS DEVELOPED.**

**REVIEW THE NARRATIVE SUMMARY AND THE
OBJECTIVELY VERIFIABLE INDICATORS**

**ARE SEPARATE INDICATORS OR TARGETS ON
A GENDER SPECIFIC BASIS WARRANTED?**

DEVELOP A MONITORING AND EVALUATION PLAN

THE MEANS OF VERIFICATION COLUMN
IN A PROJECT'S LOGICAL FRAMEWORK
SHOULD AGREE WITH
WHAT IS SAID IN A FORMAL
MONITORING AND EVALUATION PLAN

PLANS TO DISAGGREGATE DATA BY GENDER
SHOULD BE SPECIFIC.

THEY SHOULD BE TIED TO INDICATORS WHERE WE
ANTICIPATE DIFFERENT RESULTS ON THE BASIS
OF GENDER

THE GENDER INFORMATION FRAMEWORK (GIF)
IS A TOOL THAT CAN BE USED TO
FRAME MONITORING AND EVALUATION QUESTIONS

ALLOCATION OF LABOR

ARE CHANGES IN GENDER ROLES WITH RESPECT TO SPECIFIC KINDS
OF WORK EXPECTED TO RESULT FROM THE PROJECT?

WHAT KINDS OF M&E MEASURES WOULD CAPTURE
INFORMATION ON SUCH CHANGES?

SOURCES OF INCOME

ARE WOMEN EXPECTED TO BENEFIT FROM THE PROJECT
IN INCOME TERMS?

WHAT KINDS OF M&E MEASURES WOULD CAPTURE
INFORMATION ON SUCH CHANGES?

FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITIES

IS IT ANTICIPATED THAT WOMEN AND MEN'S ROLES
WITH RESPECT TO FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITIES WILL
BE ALTERED AS A RESULT OF THE PROJECT?

WHAT KINDS OF M&E MEASURES WOULD CAPTURE
INFORMATION ON SUCH CHANGES?

ACCESS TO RESOURCES

WILL WOMEN GAIN NEW ACCESS TO RESOURCES AS
A RESULT OF THIS PROJECT?

WHAT KINDS OF M&E MEASURES WOULD CAPTURE
INFORMATION ON SUCH CHANGES?

Sources of Information and Data for AID Evaluations

Internal Sources	External Sources
<p><u>Secondary and Contextual Data</u></p> <p>(Usually available in AID/ Washington or at the USAID Mission)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - AID Policy Papers (as pertinent) - CDSS and Regional Strategies - PIDs and Project Papers - Project files (monthly reports, prior evaluations, memos, letters, cables) - Project Papers and evaluations of similar AID projects - Sector Assessments 	<p><u>Secondary and Contextual Data</u></p> <p>(Often available at the USAID Mission, the U.S. Embassy, or from counterpart agencies, other donors, etc.)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Host country development plans and policies - Host country project records, reports - Private sector organizations' reports - Books, periodicals, and journals - Research studies - Other bilateral/multilateral donor project and program documentation - Informant reports/expert opinions - World Bank reports/studies
<p><u>Primary Data</u></p> <p>(Available at the USAID Mission or can be obtained through the host government)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sector survey data - Periodic data collected against key indicators - Host country, USAID Mission, contractor, and project beneficiary interviews 	<p><u>Primary Data</u></p> <p>(Often unavailable or inadequate, unless the project design specifically provides for collection during project implementation)</p> <p><u>Observation</u> Participant or nonparticipant; could be developed as part of regular site visits by project staff</p> <p><u>Survey</u> Through interviews or by using structured questionnaires</p> <p><u>Other</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Case studies of before/after conditions - Record-keeping by project staff in the form of journals, etc. - Group sessions to stimulate discussion on project experience and lessons learned

Source: Asia Near East Bureau Procedural Guidelines for Evaluation, February 1986, p. 12.

COLLECT BASELINE DATA

**LINK BASELINE DATA COLLECTION
TO THE PERFORMANCE INDICATORS
IN A PROJECT'S LOGICAL FRAMEWORK**

**BASELINE DATA SHOULD TELL US
ABOUT CONDITIONS "BEFORE" THE PROJECT
AND BE COMPARABLE TO DATA COLLECTED
"AFTER" THE PROJECT INTERVENES
IN A DEVELOPMENT SITUATION**

DURING IMPLEMENTATION
MONITORING AND EVALUATION
SERVE DIFFERENT FUNCTIONS

EVALUATION

CHALLENGES DESIGN

DRAWS CONCLUSIONS AND
MAKES JUDGEMENTS

FOCUSES ON RELEVANCE

FREQUENCY:
IMPORTANT MILESTONES
OR DECISIONS

MONITORING

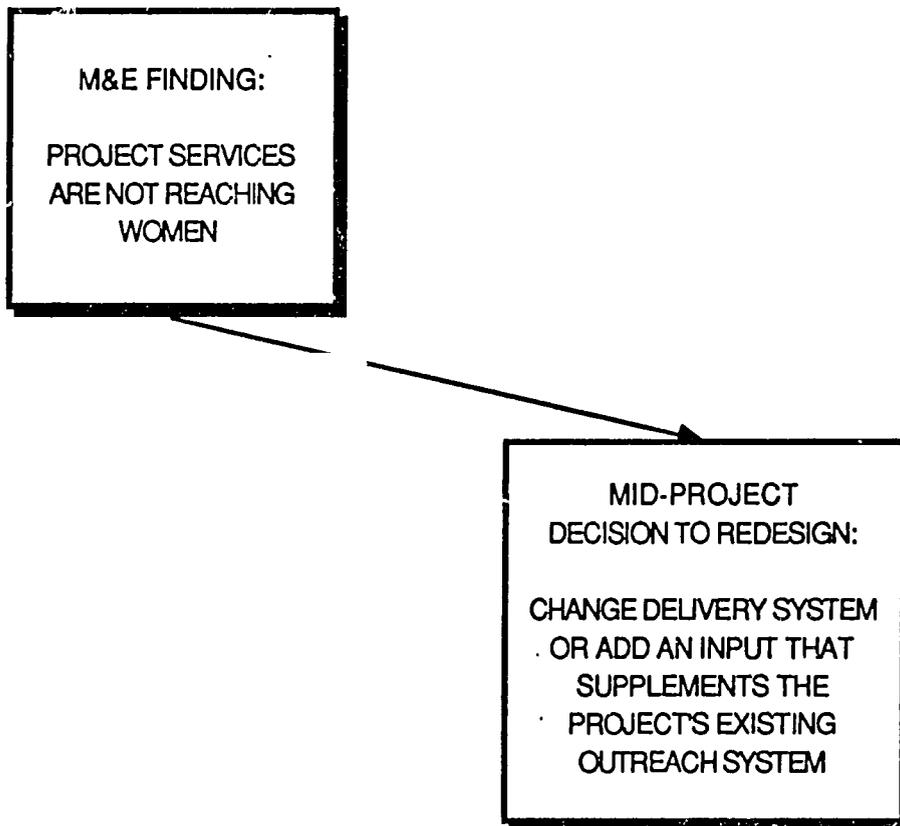
ACCEPTS DESIGN AS GIVEN

MEASURES PROGRESS

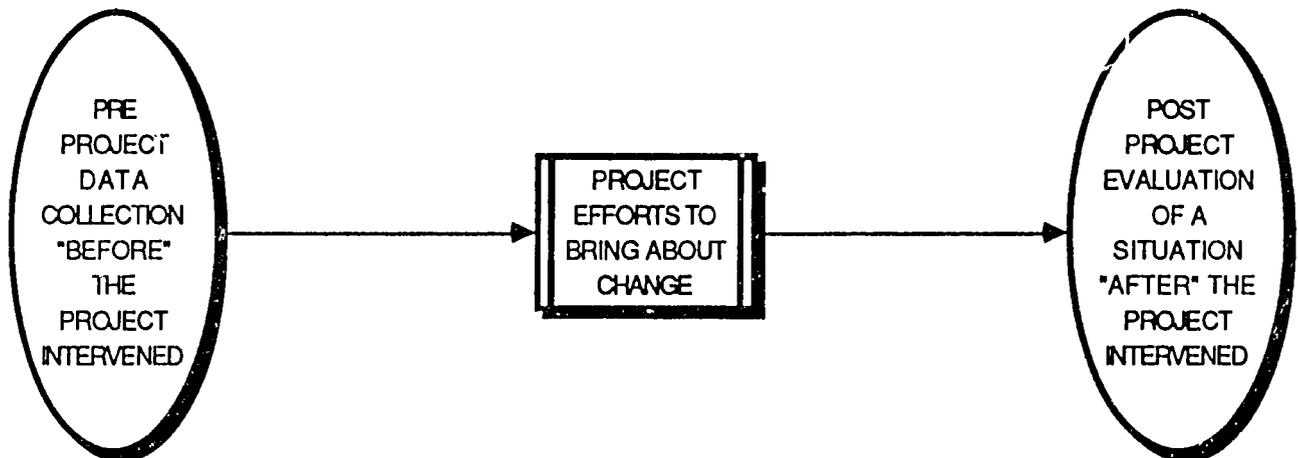
FOCUSES ON COMPLIANCE

FREQUENCY:
CONTINUOUS

BOTH MONITORING AND EVALUATION
INFORM THE
DECISION MAKING PROCESS
DURING A PROJECT'S LIFE



A.I.D. ENCOURAGES MID-TERM REDESIGN DECISIONS WHICH
HELP ENSURE THAT PROJECTS ACHIEVE THEIR PURPOSE



POST PROJECT EFFORTS TO EVALUATE
THE IMPACT OF A DEVELOPMENT PROJECT
DEPEND HEAVILY UPON AN ABILITY TO COMPARE
"BEFORE" AND "AFTER" DATA
ON THE PROJECT SITUATION

SESSION 6: CONCEPTUAL AND PRACTICAL ISSUES OF GENDER DISAGGREGATED DATA

INTENDED OUTCOMES

At the conclusion of this session, participants will be able to:

1. identify the types of gender disaggregated data that are legally required for the projects with which they work;
2. recognize that data collection methodologies and use of data sources that ignore gender may prevent the collection of valuable information relevant to development projects and programs;
3. identify the gaps in gender disaggregation in existing data sources relevant to the project(s) with which they work;
4. recognize when they can work with existing data sources and when they need to collect new data that give correct gender disaggregated information.

ACTIVITIES

- Lecturette on Data Issues Related to Gender
- Work Group Exercise

SESSION 7: IDENTIFYING AND REFINING GENDER DISAGGREGATED INDICATORS

INTENDED OUTCOMES

At the conclusion of this session, participants will be able to:

1. identify whether gender considerations affected the type of indicators chosen for the project with which they work;
2. evaluate whether the indicators chosen for their project incorporate gender considerations appropriately, and if they do not, suggest how these might be improved;
3. evaluate whether existing data sources enable them to adequately measure and monitor gender disaggregated indicators;
4. in the case where data sources are inadequate, identify the types of data that would better measure and monitor gender disaggregated indicators.

ACTIVITIES

- Lecturette on the Log Frame and Indicators
- Questions and Answers
- Lecturette - Gender Issues Affecting Indicators
- Work Group Exercise

II. BACKGROUND AND METHODOLOGY

OVERVIEW

Development approaches have traditionally been based on the assumption that economic growth can bring about a more equitable and efficient distribution of resources to populations in poor countries. Recent experience has shown, however, that in spite of an increase in economic output, inequalities of class, gender, and ethnicity prevail. To increase access to benefits and to further equality of opportunities for those groups most in need, specific policies need to be developed and implemented with these aims in mind. USAID/Guatemala's development strategy reflects these concerns. The Mission's "Revised Country Impact Matrix," Action Plan, and Country Development Strategy Statement include "spreading the benefits of growth" as a major goal. (See Annex C for the "Revised Country Impact Matrix.")

Of special concern to the Mission are the Maya of the Highlands of Guatemala. The Maya comprise 55% of the Guatemalan population but are the most politically and economically disenfranchised component of the population. The economy of the Highlands depends largely on farming, micro-enterprises, and a nascent tourist trade. The region is temperate and mountainous, with a high population density and extensive poverty. The official national language is Spanish, but many of the Highland Maya speak only their native tongue, which may be any one of the 21 distinct Mayan languages of Guatemala. The plurality of languages presents a unique challenge to development efforts in Guatemala.

The Mission's recent Cross-Cutting Evaluation (Smith, 1989) and other assessments of USAID/Guatemala projects suggest that the women of the Highlands have not been adequately addressed by the Mission's Projects. Consequently, the Mission has made a commitment to include Maya women as project participants and beneficiaries. It has done so both to equitably address the needs of women and because experience has shown that including women as project participants leads to higher project success rates.

To effectively include women as project participants and beneficiaries it is necessary to have appropriate and accurate information about women and the effect of projects on women. As a step toward meeting this need, this report provides a Gender Indicator System that can be used by the Mission in project planning, implementation, and evaluation.

Source: Falvey, M. Christine. "Improving Statistics and Indicators on Women in Guatemala. Final Report" MUCIA/WID Project Management Office, Office of Women in International Development, Michigan State University, East Lansing, June 1990.

TECHNICAL AND CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND ON WID INDICATORS

Indicators in General

An indicator is a way to quantify a variable that is difficult to measure directly; indicators are also used to track changes over time in variables. Indicators, in a sense, "operationalize" variables. For example, if one is interested in malnutrition, how is the variable "nutritional status" to be operationalized to monitor changes. In this particular case, a number of indicators have been suggested and used by experts in the health field, including weight for age, weight for height, height for age, and arm skinfold thickness. Often there is no single "correct" indicator: each one may have advantages and disadvantages. The task is to choose one that both provides a reasonable approximation of the variable of interest and that is practical to implement.

Indicators of Access and Equity

The concepts of access and equity are useful in designing a system to measure progress toward the Mission goal of "spreading the benefits of growth." In Guatemala the concepts are particularly useful in examining the case of Maya women. Access refers to how many people of an eligible group have a particular resource or are able to achieve a particular goal. Access is an intra-group issue. For example, the ratio of number of Maya girls graduating from 6th grade to number of Maya girls eligible to go to school is an indicator of access.

Equity refers to the amount of access one group has relative to another group. Equity is an inter-group issue. In the case of gender equity, for example, an indicator is the ratio of number of Maya girls to Maya boys who graduate from sixth grade. This indicator is adequate where the sex ratio in the population is near one. If this were not the case, the indicator should be ratio of Maya girls graduating to Maya girls eligible divided by ratio of Maya boys graduating to Maya boys eligible.

In this report, we usually indicate equity by ratio of number of women to total number of persons. In other words, we use "total persons" instead of "men" as a base (or denominator) for the indicator. On the one hand, an advantage of using the base "men" is that in a situation of perfect gender equity the value of the indicator would be 1 (one). Where the target goal is equity it is easy to note movement over time in the indicator toward or away from the value (one). On the other hand, using "men" as a base has a disadvantage: the indicator value may be misinterpreted. For example, where there were 50 women teachers to 100 men teachers, the indicator value would be 0.5. This may be misinterpreted to mean that 50% of the teachers are women when in fact only 33% are (50 women teachers to 150 teachers total).

In any case, technically speaking, either base may be used; but indicators with the base "total persons" are not as subject to misinterpretation as indicators with the base "men." For this reason, most of the indicators in this report use as a base the "total number of persons" in a given category.

Equity and access concerns are not limited to those of gender. In Guatemala a particularly salient dimension is ethnicity. About half the population of Guatemala is Maya; historically they have been oppressed and exploited. And it is well known that today there is inequity between Maya and Ladinos. The Maya generally live in rural areas and Ladinos are more likely to live in urban areas where they earn higher incomes and receive more government services. As the Mission notes in its Country Development Strategy Statement Update, FY 1990-FY 1994, the Maya are a "bypassed...long-neglected and oft-abused segment of the nation's populace..." (p. 5). Gender issues in Guatemala, then, are compounded by ethnicity and socioeconomic class, with Maya women being the most disadvantaged of the disadvantaged. The Mission is addressing these issues by directing much of its development efforts toward the people of the Highlands.

In Section III of this report, we will suggest some indicators that track equity by ethnic group as well as by gender. These indicators will be useful for examining equity and access where the base population includes both Maya and Ladinos. For example, the ratio of the percentage of literate Maya women to the percentage of literate Ladino women is an indicator of equity between ethnic groups of women.

It is important to analyze both access and equity because it is possible to have high gender equity but low access; that is, equal numbers of boys and girls may be receiving some good (a situation of high gender equity), but the total number children receiving the good may be low (a situation of low access for both girls and boys). And, since women often have less access to resources than do men, equity is monitored as well to assure that women have the same access relative to men. Monitoring both equity and access provides more complete information about the distribution of the "benefits of growth."

Indicators of Women's Participation, Project Task Manageability, and Project Outcomes

WID objectives and their indicators should measure women's participation in projects, the extent to which project demands are manageable by and acceptable to women, and the impact of projects on women.

Indicators of women's participation

There are three reasons for including the objective of women's participation in projects and for developing indicators to evaluate the achievement of that objective.

First, a number of investigations have shown that projects are more efficient when they explicitly address the issue of women's participation. As Carloni's 1987 report Women in Development: AID's Experience, 1973-1985 found:

Mainstream projects that ensure women's participation in proportion to their roles and responsibilities within the project's baseline situation are more likely to achieve their immediate purposes and their broader socioeconomic goals than are projects that do not. (p. xiv)

Second, not only are projects more successful if they include women, but women are more likely to benefit if they are explicitly included as participants. Projects that result in general, overall economic or social gains do not necessarily benefit women. In fact, our review of projects in Guatemala and our field visits have led us to conclude that women benefit from projects only where the project design specifically addresses them or where Mission staff are intent on including women as participants. Women's participation is a project-specific objective that will help women achieve improved access to and an equitable share in the benefits of development.

Third, achieving the objective of women's participation is particularly problematic in Guatemala because of gender stereotypes held by project implementers, especially about Maya women. The Mission implements many of its programs through the Guatemalan government's various regional offices of health, agriculture, or education. The staff of these offices tend to assume that Maya women are subordinate to their husbands, that they avoid agricultural labor, and that they operate only in the domestic sphere. Establishing participation objectives in projects and indicators to monitor them is an effective way to assure that women are included.

Our recommendations include both direct and indirect indicators of participation. An example of a direct indicator of participation is the ratio of number of women health promoters to total number of health promoters. An indirect indicator of participation is the amount of project benefits that go to women, for example, the ratio of number of loans extended to women to total number of loans extended. These two types of indicators, women's participation and amount of benefits going to women, are extremely useful. Not only are they good indicators of access and equity but, in most cases, collecting the data for the indicators is fairly straightforward, making it more likely that the indicators will be used.

In summary, women's participation as a project objective and as an indicator is recommended because women's participation is an indirect indicator of general project success and of project success at favorably reaching women. Women's participation is a goal in itself and is relatively easy to measure.

Indicators of task manageability

Project task manageability refers to the extent to which the project affects women's day-to-day lives. Since much of women's work is "hidden" or less immediately obvious than men's work, extra care must be taken to see that women can mesh their traditional responsibilities with new ones. Women have responsibilities in both domestic and public spheres. In farming communities, women care for children and husbands in the home, prepare food, fetch water and firewood, and make clothes, among other domestic tasks. They also contribute to provisioning the family and so operate in the public domain as well--working in the fields, preparing products for market, transporting products to the market place, and selling them. Here the primary indicators are those of women's time use. In an agricultural setting, for example, indicators should analyze women's use of time so that project planning can take time constraints into account. Indicators can also be used to monitor the project in process so that modifications can be made if necessary.

Indicators of project outcome for women

Project outcome for women refers to the effect of a project on the women of the target population. By using indicators, the actual project outcome can be compared with the desired outcome. For projects targeted to the Maya, for example, outcome indicators should be used to assess bilingualism, literacy, education level, income, and health (e.g., mortality, morbidity rates, etc.). Bilingualism, literacy, and higher levels of education are all associated with women's increased well-being. Health is another aspect of general well-being. For those in economically impoverished circumstances, increases in income are a measure of improved well-being and therefore a measure of program success. The choice of impact indicators will, of course, vary from project to project.

Indicators of participation, task manageability, and project impact are recommended in Section III and in Annex E on specific projects.

The Relationship between Indicators and Objectives

Throughout this discussion, we have noted that indicators are tied to objectives and goals. Indicators measure changes in variables, and, in the case of AID projects, there is always an intention of bringing about changes in a specified direction in specific variables. A project can be evaluated only when the variables and the desired direction of change in them (project objectives) are specified. Thus, it is necessary to specify a project's WID objectives before selecting the appropriate indicators. In addition to the "technical logic" of designing the system to include WID objectives, there is a second strong rationale. Specifically, projects are usually successful at reaching women only when they are explicitly designed to do so.

Indicators, Enumeration Data, and Complex Data

After the indicators are chosen, data must be collected to specify the indicators. The indicator itself implies the necessary data. In some cases the indicator requires only enumeration. For example, the ratio of number of women promoters to total promoters requires simply enumeration; the indicator ratio of number of loans extended to women to total number of loans extended requires counting number of loans by gender. Indicators requiring enumeration data are fairly easy to design and use. Record keeping can be done as part of normal project record documentation by directing those responsible to record the gender of the promoter, of the loan receiver, and so forth.

Other equally important indicators require data that are more complex to gather and evaluate. For example, data on women's income require visiting households and interviewing women. Income can be approximated by noting the type and condition of the dwelling and family possessions, by asking about expenditures, and by inquiring directly about income sources and amounts. However, direct questions about income are not sufficient in themselves since the answers depend on retrospection and approximations by the interviewee. Similarly, information on women's time use, family diet, and allocation of resources within the family require special techniques. These data are more costly and time-consuming to collect, but they provide invaluable information about women, women's involvement in projects, and projects' impact on women. To distinguish them from enumeration indicators, we will refer to these as "complex data" indicators. Often the "complex data" can be collected using rapid appraisal techniques. As an aid to program planners, managers, and evaluators, we have assembled a short "User's Guide" bibliography of sources on the technical aspects of data collection, indicators, and assessing WID issues, including sources on rapid appraisal techniques (Annex F). Generally outside consultants with technical expertise will be engaged to carry out data collection to specify the "complex" indicators, but AID staff need to be familiar with the techniques

to insure that the projects include the appropriate indicators and data collection plans.

IV. IMPLEMENTING THE GENDER INDICATOR SYSTEM: CONSTRAINTS AND RECOMMENDED SOLUTIONS

This section deals with problems that might be encountered in implementing the Gender Indicator System and suggests solutions to overcome the problems. Here the concern is complex data indicators, that is, those that go beyond enumeration and concern the context of women's day-to-day lives. This section documents the crucial nature of complex indicators in sound project planning, monitoring, and impact analysis.

In the first portion of this section, we discuss observations during five days of field visits in the Highlands where we noted the degree of women's participation in projects and constraints due to the "culture" of projects themselves. In the second portion we suggest ways to overcome these constraints.

Our task was to define gender indicators for the Mission, that is to identify variables that would show how the programs and projects of the Mission affected women. There is, however, a problem with the strategy of focusing primarily on indicators as a way to attain the goal of favorable project impact on women; in Guatemala, projects that are not specifically designed to include gender considerations systematically exclude women. This is true for two reasons. First, the Western cultural beliefs about the gender roles of the indigenous population categorize males as the income earners, as heads of household, as the only ones capable of hard physical labor, and as the family contact with the public world; concomitantly, they categorize indigenous women as confined to the domestic sphere as wives, helpmates, and mothers. These beliefs tend to result in projects that consider women as recipients of exclusively domestic-related services and training (e.g., receiving potable water at the home or lessons in cooking non-traditional foods). Second, there is a gender division of labor among the Maya (the primary target of projects in the Highlands where the Mission is devoting much of its effort). Wherever there is a gender division of labor, development projects will not be entirely successful unless both women's and men's roles in project related activities are taken into account.

Thus, focusing solely on gender indicators, rather than on project design to include women, is not an effective way to achieve the goal of favorable project impact on women. This point has been well documented in AID/Washington's review of women in development experience from 1973-1985 (Carlson, 1987). Contrary to Carlson's expectations at the start of her study, she found:

Gender analysis by itself...failed to show the expected relationship to achievement of project objectives....Low levels of analysis were often associated with failure to achieve objectives, but better analysis of gender differences was no guarantee that objectives would be achieved....the

projects that did the best job of gender analysis nevertheless rarely made appropriate adaptations to overcome barriers to women's participation or to increase the benefit to women. (p. 13)

There is another, more technical problem with developing useful gender indicators. In many cases, the data needed to specify the indicator are difficult and costly to collect. It is a fairly straightforward task to collect enumeration data, e.g., on how many homes have water, how many miles of new roads were constructed, or how many women received credit. Collecting data on income, health, literacy or diet may be much more difficult. This is the type of data, however, that is needed for baseline information to design projects and for subsequent project monitoring and evaluation.

This leads us to three recommendations:

- o Consideration of women should be incorporated into the design of every project. This should be done not just in the social soundness analysis, but in the project objectives and log frame.

- o The Mission should contract studies to assess the current condition of women in various geographic areas where the Mission is focusing its efforts. Such studies would document the needs of women (and men), yield information on skills that women already possess or want to obtain to increase income, assist in including women in project planning, and provide a baseline against which to measure project WID success.

- o The Mission should contract follow-up studies in project areas to assess how the project has affected women.

It is only through the type of studies suggested above that the Mission can get genuinely useful information on women, that is, information useful for incorporating gender considerations in project design, designing programs that reach women, and evaluating the impact of those programs on women.

Until such studies can be completed, the best short-term strategy is simply to disaggregate by gender the data that are currently being collected as part of project monitoring and evaluation. Earlier in this report we referred to such data as "enumerative" to distinguish them from complex indicators. The difficulty is in specifying and collecting data for the complex indicators. Here one must consider the constraints on data collection that exist in Guatemala. These constraints include the geography, ethnic differences, and the "culture" of the projects themselves.

ANNEX K: PROCEDURES FOR IMPLEMENTING THE GENDER INDICATOR SYSTEM

1. Planning for Evaluation in the Project Design Stage

1.1. Make a general determination of what the gender issues are relative to the project. For assistance, consult documents cited in the bibliography of Annex F of this report, particularly the "Gender Information Framework" (AID, PPC/WID, n.d.). Consult with the Mission WID officer and WID committee members.

1.2. Gather information on the roles of women in activities that the project will address. The information collected during this stage is baseline data and assists in identifying women's needs and helps in determining how women can be effectively reached by and incorporated into the project. Methods for gathering baseline information include:

- (a) reviewing available ethnographic literature and reports from AID and non-AID sources. See Annex G for a bibliography of such sources.
- (b) making field visits to the target area and conducting informal interviews with women likely to be affected by the project
- (c) interviewing regional government personnel (e.g., in agricultural extension, education), Peace Corps Volunteers and others currently working with women in the target areas
- (d) if the information gathered by the above three methods is insufficient, contracting studies on the roles of women in the target area

1.3. Consider the information gathered in the previous steps and do an analysis of how women could be included in project, how they might benefit, constraints to their participation, and how these constraints might be overcome. See Gender Issues in Agriculture and Natural Resource Management (Russo, et al., 1989), especially pages 15 and 16, for guidance in doing a gender analysis.

1.4. Once the project goals have been specified, use the above gender analysis for guidance and specify project goals and objectives for targets for women's participation, receipt of project benefits and desired outcomes for women. See Table 2 and Annex E of this report for lists of possible WID objectives; select and modify to make them project appropriate.

1.5. Identify indicators for the WID objectives. See Tables 3 through 8 for the recommended indicators appropriate to the area of project endeavor.

1.6. In the project plan, specify a strategy for collecting data for the indicators.

1.6.1. Enumerative Indicators. Many indicators are enumerative indicators, for example, they indicate proportion of women to total participating in the project or receiving project resources or benefits. Enumerative indicators can usually be obtained from routine project record keeping activities if one specifies that records are to be kept noting gender. In the evaluation section of the project plan, specify who is responsible for record keeping and the necessity of noting the gender of the project participant or beneficiary.

1.6.2. Complex Indicators. Other indicators (e.g., changes in women's income) require special studies for their data. What special studies will need to be done (see item 2.2 below)? What is the cost? In the project proposal specify the contracting of these studies.

2. Doing Monitoring and Evaluation

Usually contractors will carry out project monitoring and evaluation. Mission staff will oversee the process and ensure that the appropriate data are collected and the necessary studies are conducted as specified in the project design stage. Keep in mind that the purpose of the indicators is to monitor women's ability to manage project task demands and to evaluate the impact of the project on women.

2.1. Data for Enumerative Indicators. As noted above, some aspects of project will be evaluated using the data from routine project record keeping. Good planning in the project design stage will ensure that the enumerative data necessary for the WID indicators are available for project monitoring and evaluation. Generally indicators of this sort will involve simply summing up number of women relative to total and reporting the proportion. Where "averages" are needed for indicators (e.g., "average" value of credit received by women relative to "average" received by men) it is advisable to use the median rather than the mean as the measure of central tendency. This is the case when the distribution of benefits to any group is skewed.

2.2. Data for Complex Indicators. Complex Indicators (such as those on women's time use, income, household consumption patterns, and allocation of household resources) require special studies for their data. In Guatemala, in almost all cases, these studies require home visits and interviews with women.

2.2.1. Guidelines for conducting interviews with women. These interviews should:

- (a) focus on samples of women in the target areas

- (b) include women from the various Maya ethnic groups in the target area
- (c) sample women from both in town and rural areas
- (d) if the project expects to reach women who are involved in different sectors (e.g., agriculture vs. micro-enterprise) the samples should include women from those sectors
- (e) use native Maya language speakers of the ethnic groups in the area
- (f) where possible, use women as interviewers
- (g) interviewers should be trained in using the questionnaire designed for the study, in using open-ended questions, probing, maintaining objectivity and in recording answers
- (h) once the first version of the questionnaire has been developed, each interviewer should interview a small sample of women; then, the interviewers, trainer and questionnaire constructor should meet to discuss problems and suggest modifications. Construct a revised form of the questionnaire and use this for subsequent interviews. Only the data from interviews obtained with revised questionnaire should be used in the actual study.

2.2.2. Special studies and sources of information on them.

Refer to Section IV of this report for recommendations about data collection on Maya women. Among the data collection strategies that may be used are direct observation, community interviews, informal surveys, consumption-focused surveys and household record keeping surveys. Where information about these techniques is needed, consult the documents in Annex F, particularly the following:

Kumar, K. (1987). Rapid, Low-Cost Data Collection Methods for AID. (PN-AAL-100).

Dixon, R. (1980). Assessing the Impact of Development Projects on Women.

Kumar, K. (1987). Conducting Group Interviews in Developing Countries. (PN-AAL-088).

Norton, M. and Benoliel, S.P. (1987). Guidelines for Data Collection, Monitoring, And Evaluation Plans for AID Assisted Projects. (PN-AAL-089).

The above are available at the USAID/Guatemala Program Office.

girls and young women the message that their efforts to become educated will be rewarded with further opportunities.

At a more complex level, the gender question is whether the instructional materials used and the training programs themselves (for teachers, promoters, etc.) are designed to appeal to women and girls. Here we suggest a qualitative review of programs and materials, rating each as to the extent to which it includes females and shows them in a variety of roles, including roles of authority.

See Annex E3 for a discussion of a particular education project, the BEST project.

SESSION 8: COLLECTING AND APPLYING GENDER DISAGGREGATED DATA AND INFORMATION

INTENDED OUTCOMES

At the conclusion of this session, participants will:

1. identify the range of data collection methodologies and their advantages and disadvantages in terms of time, cost and accuracy;
2. identify important factors to consider when choosing a method to collect data with a gender component or gender disaggregated data;
3. identify the most important factors to consider when interpreting gender data that have been newly collected;
4. identify the best mix in terms of time, cost, accuracy relevant to the collection of gender data and information for the project(s)/ program(s) with which they work;
5. plan a strategy for the collection of new gender data and/or information that is an acceptable trade-off in terms of time, cost and accuracy.

ACTIVITIES

- Lecturette on Data Collection Methodologies, Cost and Accuracy
- Questions and Answers
- Small Group Work

PROJECT FEATURES TO CONSIDER

for

MOST COMMONLY IDENTIFIED GENDER DIFFERENTIAL CONSTRAINTS

- CHOICE OF PROMOTION STRATEGY
- CHOICE OF TECHNICAL PACKAGE
- TIMING AND DURATION OF ACTIVITIES
- DELIVERY SYSTEMS
- LOCATION OF PROJECT ACTIVITIES OR SERVICES
- DESIGN OF CREDIT COMPONENT
- ELIGIBILITY CRITERIA
- NATURE & DISTRIBUTION OF BENEFITS

GENDER DISAGGREGATION OF DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Mari Clark, Research Coordinator
Office of Women in Development
Agency for International Development

Background

The 1985 Nairobi conference marked the close of the United Nations Decade for Women (1976-1985) with the consensus of 158 countries on the "Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women." The "Strategies" stress the importance of accurate statistics on women as a means to improve their status by identifying inequalities and providing a means to monitor progress. For example:

Governments should help collect statistics and make periodic assessment in identifying stereotypes and inequalities, in providing concrete evidence concerning many of the harmful consequences of unequal laws and practices and in measuring progress in the elimination of inequities (UN 1985, [1], para.58).

Today in 1990, many governments and international agencies recognize that the full and effective integration of women in the development process is necessary for national and international economic growth and democratic pluralism. For the effective use of a nation's human resources, it is necessary for all social groups to participate in the development effort and to share in the distribution of benefits. Exclusion of one half of the population - women - represents a dramatic loss of human potential.

However, a great deal remains to be done in the statistical documentation of women's economic contributions and women's full integration in the development process. There has been heavy criticism of the most common indicators of economic production - labor force statistics and systems of national accounts - for their under-reporting and under-valuing of women's economic contributions.

There are several reasons for the lack of readily accessible, accurate data on women's economic roles and status:

- o Data have not been collected and/or published in a gender disaggregated form in all cases;
- o The instruments used to collect census and survey data do not accurately measure women's economic inputs;
- o Data are often difficult to access from developing countries;
- o The economic roles of women in most developing countries are changing so quickly that data analyses are outdated before they are completed.

Rationale for Improved Gender Disaggregated Data:

Reliable gender disaggregated statistics on economic participation and status are needed because:

- o All officially published data should be as accurate as possible;
- o It is essential to have data on women's situation in relation to that of men in order to give fair, equitable treatment to women;
- o Improvement of methods for collection of data on women will improve the overall quality of data collection, particularly for labor force participation;
- o Policy making must be based on accurate data.

Use of biased economic indicators produces a distorted picture of the nature of the economy and a country's human resources. For example, errors on the size of occupational distribution of the labor force by gender lead to erroneous assumptions about labor trends and inaccurate projections. Inaccurate and contradictory data make it difficult to understand the composition of the labor force or to make cross-country comparisons.

For example, in Egypt, two successive national labor force surveys produced almost identical results for the male labor force and large differences for the female labor force (69 thousand female farm workers in 1982 (2% of total farm labor) and 794 thousand in 1983 (17% of total farm labor)). The difference in results was due to a conscious effort to improve measurement non-productive domestic work done in farm households by women. While the lower 1982 figure for women's farm labor is consistent with the results of earlier censuses, the higher 1983 figure is consistent with a detailed rural labor record survey and recent time-use surveys (Dixon-Mueller and Anker 1988, pp. 27-28).

Comparison of censuses and household surveys in four countries in Latin America indicated that the census data reported a significantly lower rate of female participation. In Sao Paulo Brazil, the census under-enumeration of women's labor varied by age group from 14% to 33% (UN and INSTRAW 1988, p.65).

Historical analysis of changes in questions used to elicit economic activity for the Nigerian census showed a reclassification of women's work from economically active to inactive as their activities were re-labeled as housework. In 1931 men and women were reported as equally economically active. By 1952, only one-tenth of the women were reported as economically active (Nuss 1989, p.18).

Census Data Coverage on Women

Three general types of limitations of census data:

- o subject coverage (eg. rarely include measures of income or wealth);
- o quality (eg. inaccurate measurement of women's labor force

- participation);
- o availability (eg. data on economic activity may be available only for males)

The data on women are relatively accurate and detailed for:

- o fertility,
- o education,
- o mortality.

The deficiencies are greatest in:

- o economic activities (limited statistical information and research on women's productive activities in different spheres of the economy; differential access to resources at household, community, and national levels by gender, and institutional constraints on women's participation in development.
- o household headship and intrahousehold allocation and control of resources.

Factors That Influence the Quality of Survey Data on Women (in addition to survey design):

- o Survey Organization Factors
 - Sex composition of survey organization team
 - Sponsorship of the survey (nationally and locally)
 - Publicity for the survey
 - Rewards for participation in the survey
 - Timing of the survey during the agricultural cycle
- o Interviewer Effects
 - Sex of interviewer
 - Training of interviewer
 - Previous experience of interviewer (on other surveys)
 - Social background of interviewer
- o Respondent Effects
 - Sex of respondent
 - Use of proxy respondents
 - Perception of the use of the survey
 - Sex differential in language facility of respondents

(from UN and INSTRAW 1988, p.22).

Improving and Using Census Data:

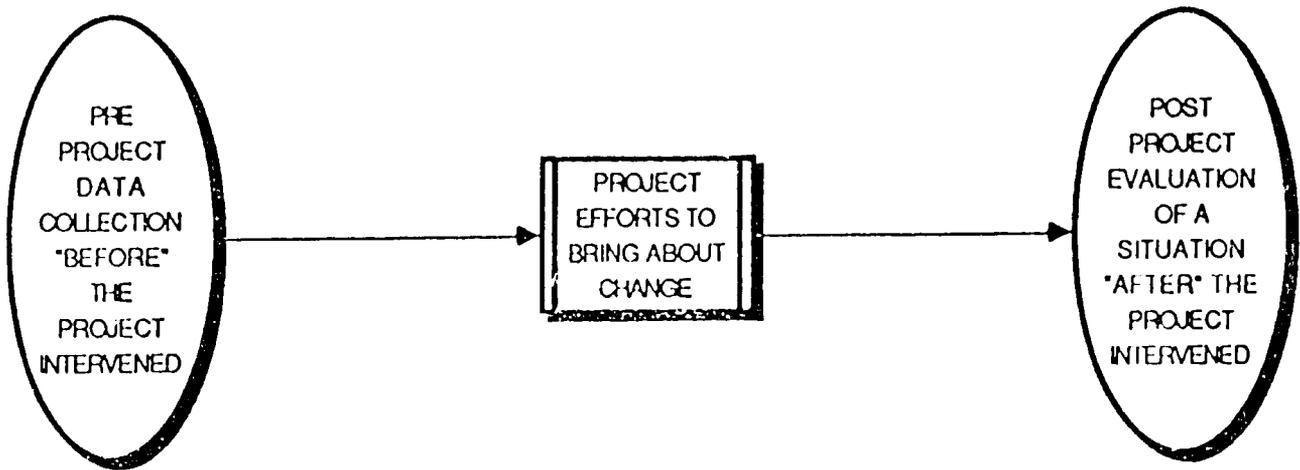
There is a need to:

- o collect relevant information by gender (as well as other relevant characteristics such as age, ethnicity, class);
- o analyze to monitor progress and identify problems;
- o incorporate findings on gender differences in planning and policy making at local and national levels.

Sources of Information and Data for AID Evaluations

Internal Sources	External Sources
<p><u>Secondary and Contextual Data</u></p> <p>(Usually available in AID/ Washington or at the USAID Mission)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - AID Policy Papers (as pertinent) - CDSS and Regional Strategies - PIDs and Project Papers - Project files (monthly reports, prior evaluations, memos, letters, cables) - Project Papers and evaluations of similar AID projects - Sector Assessments <p><u>Primary Data</u></p> <p>(Available at the USAID Mission or can be obtained through the host government)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sector survey data - Periodic data collected against key indicators - Host country, USAID Mission, contractor, and project beneficiary interviews 	<p><u>Secondary and Contextual Data</u></p> <p>(Often available at the USAID Mission, the U.S. Embassy, or from counterpart agencies, other donors, etc.)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Host country development plans and policies - Host country project records, reports - Private sector organizations' reports - Books, periodicals, and journals - Research studies - Other bilateral/multilateral donor project and program documentation - Informant reports/expert opinions - World Bank reports/studies <p><u>Primary Data</u></p> <p>(Often unavailable or inadequate, unless the project design specifically provides for collection during project implementation)</p> <p><u>Observation</u> Participant or nonparticipant; could be developed as part of regular site visits by project staff</p> <p><u>Survey</u> Through interviews or by using structured questionnaires</p> <p><u>Other</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Case studies of before/after conditions - Record-keeping by project staff in the form of journals, etc. - Group sessions to stimulate discussion on project experience and lessons learned

Source: Asia Near East Bureau Procedural Guidelines for Evaluation, February 1986, p. 12.



POST PROJECT EFFORTS TO EVALUATE
THE IMPACT OF A DEVELOPMENT PROJECT
DEPEND HEAVILY UPON AN ABILITY TO COMPARE
"BEFORE" AND "AFTER" DATA
ON THE PROJECT SITUATION

☞ WHAT DO WE MEAN BY *DATA*?

☞ WHY DO WE NEED *DATA*?

☞ WHICH *DATA* FOR WHAT PURPOSE?

☞ WHERE DO WE FIND THE *DATA*?

WHY DO WE NEED DATA?

- ☞ to describe the current situation
- ☞ to challenge assumptions
- ☞ to plan accordingly
- ☞ to monitor
- ☞ to make adaptations
- ☞ to evaluate
- ☞ accountability

IN-COUNTRY SOURCES OF DATA

1. Anthropological studies providing data on the relative importance of men- and women-managed plots.
2. Area surveys conducted as part of project designs or for other purposes (although these surveys have only occasionally disaggregated by gender).
3. Extension reports and informal judgments by extension agents.
4. Research reports, including those from farming systems projects, if available.
5. Local university personnel in departments of agriculture, rural development, sociology, and economics, including student theses as well as other research.
6. Specialized government units, such as women's bureaus in ministries of agriculture, rural development, etc.
7. A.I.D. and other donor personnel, including the women-in-development officer in the USAID mission and long-term personnel on field projects.
8. Rapid reconnaissance through discussions with village residents, local political leaders (e.g., the prefects in former French colonies), school teachers, and other local informants.
9. Employment/Unemployment Data
10. Census Data
11. Credit records for programs - lending patterns.
12. Education Data, Number of women in formal school system, training programs, etc.
13. Legal Data, Laws, regulations, licensing requirements.
14. Tax data
15. Association Membership Data, cooperatives, trade and business organizations.
16. Public assistance projects, participation in programs.
17. AID project documents, Bureau for Private Enterprise.
18. Individual Business Data, Employment by gender, for example.
19. Labor-force characteristics by sector.
20. Jobs, type of jobs available.

SESSION 9: NON-PROJECT ASSISTANCE

INTENDED OUTCOMES

At the conclusion of this session, participants will:

1. have considered some issues related to gender and their implications for non-project assistance;
2. have considered some aspects of the effects of structural adjustment on women.

ACTIVITIES

- Presentation
- Discussion

SESSION 10: CLOSURE/EVALUATION

INTENDED OUTCOMES

At the conclusion of this session, participants will:

1. have briefly reviewed the workshop's purpose and expected outcomes as initially stated;
2. have briefly reviewed the key events and activities that occurred during the workshop;
3. have an opportunity to comment on the workshop's pluses, minuses; and
4. complete written records of participation and evaluation forms.

ACTIVITIES

- Review of Workshop
- Participant's Closing Comments
- Written Evaluation of Workshop

EVALUATION

Gender Considerations in Development Workshop

December 11-13, 1990

Your considered responses to the following can help us prepare and deliver future training and will help achieve AID's development objectives. In each of the following, mark the selections with which you most agree:

1. The training achieved the intended objectives:

USAID/PERU's GCID are clarified:

- completely
- substantially
- reasonably
- partially
- inadequately

Issues affecting women in Peru:

- completely
- substantially
- reasonably
- partially
- inadequately

A development activity is analyzed for gender issues:

- completely
- substantially
- reasonably
- partially
- inadequately

Project applications of gender issues are practiced:

- completely
- substantially
- reasonably
- partially
- inadequately

Data collection techniques and issues are clarified:

- completely
- substantially
- reasonably
- partially
- inadequately

Further work needed on gender issues is identified

- _____ completely
- _____ substantially
- _____ reasonably
- _____ partially
- _____ inadequately

2. In general, I thought the pace of training activities was:

	Too Slow		About right		Too fast
December 11	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
December 12	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
December 13	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

3. In general, I thought the logistics were handled:

	Excellently		Adequately		Poorly
December 11	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
December 12	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
December 13	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

4. In general, I thought the presentations were:

	USAID/ Peru	Action Learning	Review	Project Issues	Data Issues	Non-Project Assistance
Excellent	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Good	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Adequate	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Poor	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

5. For me, the most helpful aspects of the workshop were:

6. For me, the least helpful aspects of the workshop were:

Use "A" to select the answer you would have chosen at the beginning of the Workshop and use "B" to mark your selection now.

7. In my view as a development professional, gender considerations are:

- (1) essential for planning and implementing all development activities.
- (2) often but not always relevant to planning and implementation.
- (3) an issue whose significance is not clear to me.
- (4) a rarely significant issue for planning and implementation.
- (5) an insignificant issue for planning and implementation.

8. The relevance of gender issues to the development situation in Peru is:

- (1) very high
- (2) somewhat relevant
- (3) occasionally relevant
- (4) rarely relevant
- (5) never relevant

9. The relevance of gender issues to my work on development is:

- (1) very high
- (2) somewhat relevant
- (3) occasionally relevant
- (4) rarely relevant
- (5) never relevant

10. This mission is dealing adequately and appropriately with gender issues:

- (1) strongly agree
- (2) agree
- (3) unsure
- (4) disagree
- (5) strongly disagree

11. I adequately understand the relevance of gender issues:

- (1) strongly agree
- (2) agree
- (3) unsure
- (4) disagree
- (5) strongly disagree

12. My colleagues adequately understand the relevance of gender issues:

- (1) strongly agree
- (2) agree
- (3) unsure
- (4) disagree
- (5) strongly disagree

Please add additional comments or suggestions below:

13. I am employed by _____ USAID or contractor
_____ another organization