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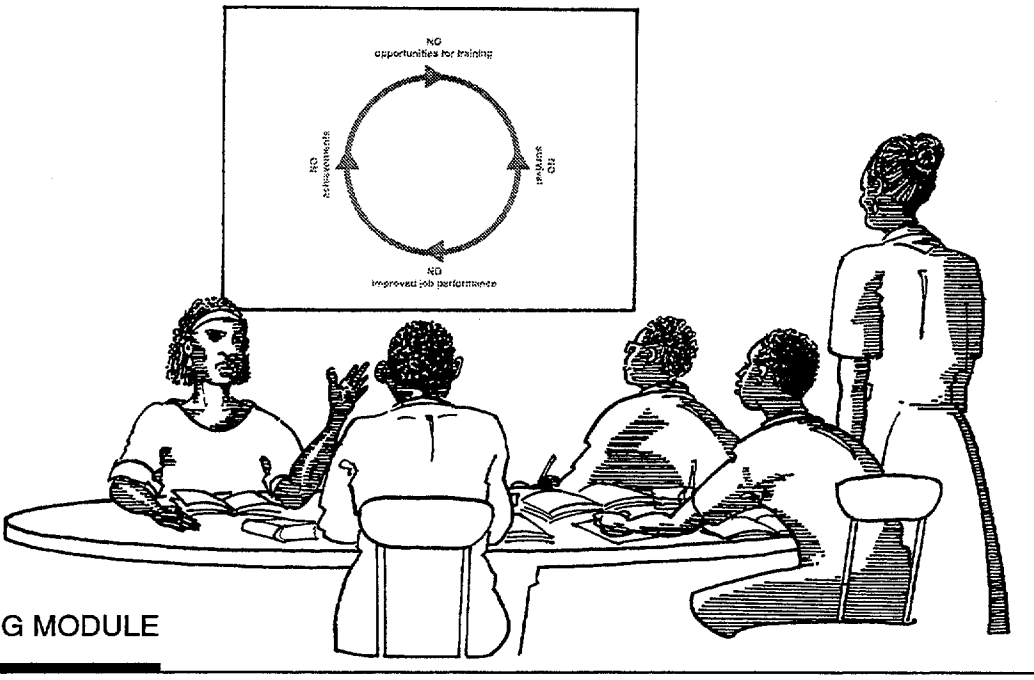

A TRAINING MODULE

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

MAY 1997

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Preface

The International Service for National Agricultural Research (ISNAR) is mandated to assist national agricultural research systems (NARS) in developing countries in strengthening their agricultural research management. Through its training unit and in collaboration with national agricultural research organizations (NAROs) and management development institutes (MDIs), ISNAR produces training modules in agricultural research management. These training modules provide "researchers-trainers" with both a training plan and training materials designed to improve the knowledge, attitudes, and skills needed to manage agricultural research effectively.

The Agricultural Research Management Training (ARMT) Project aims at institutionalizing agricultural research management training in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries as well as improving the management capacity of research leaders. The current phase of the project, sponsored by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), includes the development of a series of training modules on research management to facilitate the training of national trainers in order to ensure a sustainable capacity for training in the region.

Each draft training module comprises a curriculum, including learning objectives for each day's activities; descriptions of the training approach, methods, and techniques; and master copies of handouts, worksheets, overhead transparencies, and other training media that can easily be reproduced for distribution among participants in the workshop. In addition, the training modules include evaluation forms and a recommended bibliography for use by the trainers.

Texts and exercises from the region and from other parts of the world were collected to create the training modules. Whenever possible, the training design team has acknowledged original sources. In order to ensure the relevance of the basic materials and cases to the region, this training module was designed in partnership with NARS and tested in a draft version during two-week workshops in the SADC region.

The first week of these workshops brought together SADC trainers from MDIs and universities, and senior researchers from NAROs. ISNAR subject-matter and training specialists led the learning process and collected feedback from the participants to improve the training module. Feedback was incorporated and the module was further tested during the second week. The "new trainers," the main users of this module, led the workshop for national program leaders and senior scientists. The module was further improved by the participants.

This is the resulting version of the module, which was tailored to SADC users through this process. The trainers are expected to use the module to facilitate planning and implementation of training/workshop programs in the region. The researchers are expected to use the module to provide their colleagues with the opportunity to analyze NAROs' approaches and assessing ways of improving them within their organizations. In addition, the researchers are expected to assist national trainers in implementing training events in their respective countries.

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It is hoped that the trainers and researchers will adapt the module to respond to their specific needs and share the changes with Eastern and Southern African Management Institute (ESAMI) and ISNAR as a contribution to the improving the materials for the benefit of the region.

ESAMI and ISNAR thank all the research management specialists, national trainers, and those who participated in designing, testing, and improving the module for their very valuable contributions.

Acknowledgments

Source of material

This training module was developed for the SADC/ESAMI/ISNAR Agricultural Research Management Training (ARMT) Project. The module includes original material developed and tested by Helen Hambly Odame (ISNAR), Louise Setswhaelo (ESAMI/SACCAR), and Ntombana R. Gata (DRSS-Zimbabwe) as well as material previously compiled by Anna Wuyts (ISNAR) and used in the workshop: Gender Analysis in Agriculture and Natural Resources Technology Development and Transfer (14-18 March 1994 in Maseru, Lesotho). Contributions from various other sources are referenced in the text. All contributions are gratefully acknowledged by the SADC/ESAMI/ISNAR ARMT Project.

Sponsor

This material was produced for the SADC/ESAMI/ISNAR ARMT Project, funded by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID).

SADC/ESAMI/ISNAR

Agricultural Research Management Training Project

SADC/ESAMI/ISNAR
Agricultural Research Management Training Project

Introduction

Agriculture continues to play a major role in the economy of the SADC countries (Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe) by providing food, energy, and some income for the majority of the population and raw material for the growth and development of the manufacturing industries. However, environmental problems such as soil degradation, deforestation, and the severe drought of the recent past remain serious constraints on national development. At the same time, the increased demand for food (due to rapid population growth), raw materials, and improved technologies present new challenges to agricultural research.

The responsibility for coordinating research and training in agriculture and natural resources in attaining SADC's goal of food security is vested in the Southern Africa Co-ordinating Committee on Agricultural Research (SACCAR). Early in its formation (1984), SACCAR recognized that national agricultural research systems (NARS) could greatly enhance their efficiency and effectiveness in technology generation and delivery if their management could be improved. This is particularly true in the planning and management of human, financial, physical, and agricultural resources, as well as the procedures for prioritizing research programs and linkages with policymakers and external sources of knowledge. The ARMT Project was conceived and developed in 1987 to address these concerns. The evaluation of Phase I in 1990 recommended that one way to make training sustainable was to institutionalize it in the region. The first step in this process was the integration of the project into a regional management development institution (MDI) — Eastern and Southern African Management Institute (ESAMI). This was to be followed by institutional capacity building in the region, of which the present exercise of training module development is an integral part.

This project, which covers the period 1992–1995, is a collaborative venture among three partners: ESAMI as the main executing agency, ISNAR as a joint executing agency, and SACCAR, which provides the strategic regional perspective to the project.

The project is based in ESAMI's headquarters in Arusha, Tanzania. It is implemented through a network of SADC MDIs and individual experts from the region. This design aims to ensure adaptation and institutionalization of research management training.

Goal of the Project

The aim of the project is to *strengthen* the capacity of agricultural and natural resources policymakers and research managers in planning, organizing, and managing research systems in order to increase their efficiency and effectiveness in addressing the region's food problems.

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Objectives of the Project

The objectives of the project are fivefold:

(1) to increase understanding among high-level officials on the role of research in promoting and sustaining agricultural development;

(2) to strengthen the capacity of national research leaders to plan, program, budget, and monitor research programs of relevance to national development goals;

(3) to foster human resource development in agricultural research management within the member countries;

(4) to build the skills of middle-level research administrators in the management of agricultural research activities;

(5) to work towards building a base for a sustained capacity in management training for agricultural research within SADC.

Phase I laid the foundations for building specific skills and providing the knowledge and tools which helped SACCAR to move towards achieving its two main goals:

(1) increased cooperation in research on agriculture and natural resources;

(2) improvement in the capacities of individual countries to undertake carefully prioritized research and training projects.

This in turn enabled SADC countries to make progress towards achieving important goals in:

(1) increased agricultural productivity;

(2) higher incomes and creation of employment in the rural areas.

Phase II is concentrating on institutionalization and sustainability of the AMRT Project activities.

Target Audience

The ARMT Project aims at training the following persons:

(1) **policymakers**: board of governors, agricultural research council members, planners, executive officers in the NARS, permanent or principal secretaries, and others responsible for the long-range objectives of a NARS.

(2) **senior research managers**: senior managers and executives of the system, for example, general directors, their assistants and others responsible for overseeing the implementation of policies.

(3) **middle-level research managers**: research coordinators, station heads, and others responsible for supervising research operations at research stations, laboratories, institutes.

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The Modules

The ARMT Project strives to *institutionalize* and *sustain* management training within the SADC countries. The comprehensive action plan includes several training modules, which are to be used by ESAMI, MDIs, and NARS to implement workshops for training their local personnel. This will contribute to capacity building and, hence, sustainability and institutionalization of management training in the region. The modules aim to help MDIs and NARS develop their own capacity for gender-balanced multidisciplinary in-service training.

Eight modules form the core of the ARMT Project

1. Priority Setting for Agricultural Research Programs;
2. Planning, Monitoring, and Evaluation of Research Projects;
3. Information Management for Research;
4. Scientific Writing and Presentation;
5. Research Program Formulation;
6. Financial Management in Research on Agriculture and NRM;
7. Strategic Planning;
8. Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources.

The Workshops

The modules provide the basis for trainers to prepare and deliver workshops. Each workshop is designed to run for five days, except for Information Management for Research workshop, which is planned for ten days, and the Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources, which is planned for four days

Overview of the Module

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

Overview of the Module

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

Introduction

In recognition of the potential role of agriculture and natural resource management in bringing about sustained socio-economic growth, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) continues to emphasize the need for improved agricultural development in the region. However, as a result of many interacting and complex natural and human factors, agricultural productivity has declined, placing countries in situations of food insecurity, environmental degradation, increasing unemployment, and impoverishment of rural people.

Individual governments have tried to create appropriate policy interventions and support programs for production factors, including the need for effective management of research in agriculture and natural resources, and extension. National research organizations are crucial to the future of agriculture in SADC countries. The uptake of research in agriculture and natural resources is impossible without consideration of the people who will be the end-users of these efforts, rural people. In SADC and worldwide, women form the majority of rural populations. In some regions of Africa, 60% of the households are headed by women, although within SADC, important variations occur. For instance, in Lesotho this figure is much higher, totaling 72%, whereas in Malawi the figure is lower, at 30%. The statistic that African women produce more than 80% of the continent's food is, however, widely accepted.

The topic of women in development began to influence agricultural research in the early 1970s. Since then, many researchers and project managers from African NARS have undergone gender training courses. These aim to heighten awareness and sensitize researchers and managers to issues of which they are often personally and professionally well aware. Many projects have been started which include a component related to women and development. Sometimes this has been referred to as the "gender component." Today, many researchers are justified to ask "Has anything changed? Has agricultural and natural resource management research been able to improve rural women's lives and, therefore, food production?"

These timely questions, and many others, will arise in the workshop. The workshop starts from the perspective that research managers and scientists do not need further "sensitization" with regard to gender issues but, rather, opportunities to:

- discuss with other participants their experiences in making their research more relevant to its users;
- better understand gender policy and policy implications for gender issues;
- deal with the gender issues within their own institutions which ultimately influence research management and program or project results; and
- acquire the right tools to address gender issues in their organizations and in their work.

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Objectives

At the end of the workshop the participants will be able to do the following:

1. Review the experience of gender-related agricultural and natural resource research.
2. Identify national policies relevant to gender issues in agricultural and natural resource management.
3. Examine gender relations in national agricultural research organizations.
4. Assess their influence on organizational and administrative structures including human resource development.
5 Evaluate the research program formulation and the project management cycle form a gender-relations perspective.
6. Incorporate gender analysis in the management of agricultural and natural resource research.

Duration

The workshop will last for four (4) full days.

Topics

The workshop is divided into three main headings:

1. Gender and Policy
   - The relevance of gender for agricultural and natural resource research
   - Key gender concepts and arguments
   - Policy and gender issues in research management
2. Gender and Institutional Organization
   - Institutionalizing gender awareness research organizations
   - Operational and administrative structures
   - Human resource management
3. Gender Tools and Analysis
   - Introduction to gender analysis and relevant analytical tools
   - Engendering the research program and project management cycles
   - Incorporating gender analysis into agricultural and natural resource research management

Target Audience

The workshop is intended for agricultural research program leaders and scientists. SADC, ESAMI, and ISNAR strongly encourage a balanced selection of participants equally representing males and females.

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Training Approach

This training module provides trainers with the information, specific activities, and materials they need to effectively plan and deliver a training program. Each trainer and each training situation is unique, so planning by the trainer is critical to the success of any training program. This module encourages participation and provides hands-on, problem-solving experiences and exercises.

Applying the Experiential Learning Cycle

This training approach is based on experiential learning theory (Kolb and Fry 1975; McCaffery 1986) and is participatory by design. It is a learner-centered approach involving active experience followed by a process of reviewing, reflecting, and applying what has been learned through the experience. Participatory methods keep learners active in the learning process. They are involving and interactive and they encourage communication and group work. They are action oriented and experience based.

This experiential and participatory approach was chosen to enhance effective skill transfer, to facilitate conceptual and attitudinal development, and to encourage appropriate changes in participants' behavior. The experiential learning cycle is especially useful for skill training because most of its techniques are active and designed to involve the participants in practicing the skill. The experiential model helps people assume responsibility for their own learning because it asks them to reflect on their experience, draw conclusions, and identify applications. Participants ground the lessons in their actual work environment by considering the question "What can or should I do differently as a result of this training experience?"

To be effective, this model must be applied in both the design and delivery stages of training. The sessions, activities, and notes in this module present trainers with guidelines for reaching the training objectives by applying the experiential training methodology. An understanding of the adult learner, the role of the trainer as a facilitator, and the experiential learning cycle are important to this approach.

The Adult Learner

Understanding the adult learner is critical to the success of this training approach. The adult learner has particular needs (Knowles 1978; McCaffery 1986; Zemke and Zemke 1981). Adult learners need continual opportunities to identify their needs and recognize the relevance of their learning in terms of their own lives. Adult learners need self-directed learning opportunities in which they can actively participate. They need to actively think, do, and reflect on experiences, discuss with others, and practice and learn new skills. The adult learner needs interactive communication with both the trainer and fellow learners, which is different from one-way teacher-to-student communication. The learner needs to continually reassess the question, "Where am I now and where do I want to go?"

The Trainer

The role of trainer/facilitator is to manage or guide the training process rather than to manage the content of learning. Adult learners can share the responsibility for their learning with the trainer. The experience of adult learners should be viewed and used as a rich resource in the

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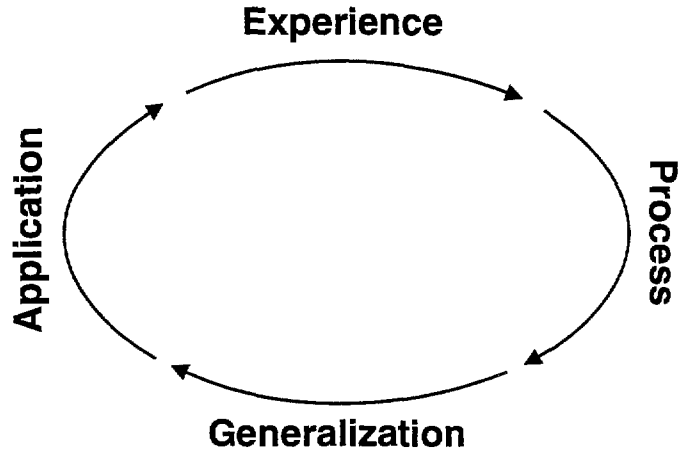
learning environment and they should be encouraged to contribute to the learning environment whenever possible.

The Experiential Learning Cycle[1]

Experiential training or *learning* is a phrase often heard in the educational world. The strength of the approach is in the completeness of its cycle, which consists of four stages, each as important as the preceding or following one. The four stages are (1) experience, (2) process, (3) generalization, and (4) application.

The term "experiential" is often misused in practice. Experiential training seems to mean letting people participate in a presentation, having a question and answer session after a lecture, or a role play or case study, without the subsequent steps of the model. The final stages are often left out of the design of the program. As a result, the power of experiential learning is significantly diminished or negated altogether. The stages of the experiential learning cycle are outlined below.

Experiential Learning Cycle



Source: McCaffery (1986) and adapted from Kolb and Fry (1975).

Experience. The experience stage is the initial activity and data-producing part of the cycle. This phase is structured to enable participants to "do" something. "Doing" includes a range of activities, such as participating in a case study, role play, simulation, or game, or listening to a lecture, watching a film or slide show, practicing a skill, or completing an exercise.

Process. In this stage, participants reflect on the activity undertaken during the experience stage. They share their reactions in a structured way with other members of the group. They may speak individually, in small groups, or as a full training group. They discuss both their intellectual and attitudinal (cognitive and affective) reactions to the activities in which they have engaged. The

1 The section on the experiential learning cycle is adapted from USDA/OICD/ITD (no date), *Agricultural Trainer Development, Training of Trainers, Instructors Manual,* and McCaffery, J.A., "Interdependent Effectiveness. A Reconsideration of Cross-Cultural Orientation and Training," *International Journal of Intercultural Relations,* 1986.

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trainer helps the participants think critically about the experience and helps them verbalize their feelings and perceptions, as well as draws attention to any recurrent themes or patterns which appear in the participants' reactions. The trainer must also help the participants conceptualize their reflections so they can move toward drawing conclusions.

Generalization. In the generalization stage, the participants form conclusions and generalizations that might be derived from, or stimulated by, the first two phases of the cycle. The trainer helps participants think critically, in order to draw conclusions that might generally or theoretically apply to "real life." This stage is best symbolized by the following questions: "What did you learn from all this?" and "What more general meaning does this have for you?"

Application. After participants have formed some generalizations, the trainer must guide the participants into the application stage. Drawing upon the insights and conclusions reached during the generalization stage (and previous stages), participants can begin to incorporate what they have learned into their lives by developing plans for more effective behavior in the future. Techniques used to facilitate the application stage can include action plans, reviewing each other's action plans, formulating ideas for action, sharing action plans with the whole group, and identifying additional learning needs. The trainer assists during this process by helping participants to be as specific as possible.

Participant Action Plan Approach

An integral aspect of the workshops is the ultimate application of the skills by the participants in the work environment. The participant action plan approach (PAPA) was developed by the United States Office of Personnel Management to help participants consider specific applications of lessons learned during training to their job sites. Participants commit themselves to action through a written plan developed at the end of the workshop. PAPA can help participants transfer to their jobs what they learned in the workshop, thus reaching the application stage of the experiential learning cycle.

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The Training Plan

How the Module is Organized

INTRODUCTION

The module provides the trainer with all the information and materials required for planning and implementing a four-day workshop. It contains suggested activities that have been field tested, with instructions for trainers. The trainer is encouraged to draw on these ideas to devise tailor-made exercises appropriate for his or her specific training situation. The training plan section is organized in the following way:

1. Pre-workshop instructions
2. Tips for trainers
3. Daily training program. For each day this section provides:
   - overview
   - schedule
   - checklist for trainers
   - instructions to trainers
   - participant handouts
   - summary of overheads
4. Overheads and reference materials are organized by day and session. These are located in a section following the daily training program.

MATERIALS

Overview: Includes the day's learning objectives and a list of required participant handouts.

Schedule: Includes suggested times. However, each trainer must consider the time frame, based on the situation and participants, and revise as appropriate.

Checklist for trainers: Helps the trainer collect and compile the materials required for each day.

Instructions to trainers: Provide the trainer with specific information on the flow of the sessions and instructions on how to facilitate activities. A sample format of the "instructions to trainers" appears on the next page.

Participant handouts: Handouts that the trainer distributes to the participants are numbered in order by day and by session. For example *Day 1/Session 1/Handout 1 (1.1.1).*

Overheads: A summary of the overheads used appears in reduced format at the end of each session. Full-size copies of the overheads are organized by session in a separate section.

Like the handouts, they are numbered *Day 1/Session 1/Overhead 1 (1.1.1)*. Overheads are available in **paper copies**.

Evaluation forms (day four): A diskette with the text of the evaluation forms in WordPerfect 5.1 is included, and, if necessary, may be adjusted to meet your needs.

A Sample Format
Instructions to Trainers

DAY TWO

Session 4
Institutionalizing Gender Concerns in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations: Part I

Instructions to Trainers

SESSION 4

14:00 – 15:30 Session 4. Institutionalizing Gender Concerns in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations: Part I

The suggested time and title of each section appears in bold face.

OBJECTIVE

By the end of this session, the participants will be able to do the following:

- Broadly define the term "institutionalization of gender concerns."

The objectives are stated in terms of participants' ability by the end of each session.

Use overhead 2.4.1 to present the objective.

PROCEDURE

Training techniques: presentation, group work, group presentations and summary of day two.

Various training techniques employed during the session are listed.

RATIONALE

The session helps research leaders to recognize the importance of their own organizational structure and professional behavior in gender relations. Research managers make decisions that affect efforts to address gender issues within their workplace.

PRESENTATION

The presentation focuses on gender issues in research management from the angle of organizational or institutional gender policy in NARS. The presentation is outlined in handout 2.4.1. Overheads 2.4.2 through 2.4.8 support the presentation. At the end be sure to allow sufficient time to ask the participants if they have any comments or questions, or if they need clarifications. Distribute handouts 2.4.1 and 2.4.2. (60 minutes)

Time: Total time for an activity appears in parentheses.

EXERCISE 4

Exercise 4. Organizational structure and gender issues in the NARS. (1 hour 15 minutes)

Each exercise is numbered chronologically. The title for each exercise appears here.

1. Distribute handouts 2.4.3 through 2.4.6. Handout 2.4.4 gives background information on mainstreaming and handout 2.4.5 gives clear instructions for the exercise. Go over the instructions with the participants step by step. Ask if clarifications are needed.

Phase 1. Group work (45 minutes)

2. Divide the participants into three groups and ask each group to elect a rapporteur.
3. *(experience)* The participants read handout 2.4.4 and share their opinions on "mainstreaming" gender issues in research management.

The stage of the experiential learning cycle is identified in italics.

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Tips for Trainers

INTRODUCTION

As a trainer, you are responsible for creating the learning environment and maintaining the flow of the workshop. You must be aware of the participants' needs and be sensitive to their concerns. Following are several tips to help you achieve a successful workshop.

TIPS FOR SUCCESS

Ten tips for your success as a trainer:

1. Begin your working day presenting
   - schedule,
   - objectives.

   Make sure that the trainees are aware of what they are expected to learn each day.
2. Manage time wisely. Time is a motivating factor in training. If you slow down, the participants will lose interest and commitment.
3. Give brief presentations. Encourage your trainees to speak up and participate actively in discussions and exercises.
4. Follow the instructions of the proposed exercises:
   - use different techniques,
   - promote active participation,
   - increase interest and level of motivation.
5. Avoid short cuts while working on topics. Keep the same level of interest while making presentations, doing exercises, and listening to reports. Remember that as a trainer you are responsible for the results of the four-day workshop.
6. Don't let your interest and willingness to teach diminish. Show care for the participants' learning and be patient!
7. Be an attentive and good listener. The participants expect you to value their ideas and look at them while speaking. These positive attitudes increase your credibility among the participants.
8. Praise your trainees for their efforts and good performance. This recognition increases their level of motivation.
9. Make sure your trainees are feeling positive and are satisfied. Ask for their feedback at the end of each day.

10. Be confident of your success as a trainer. Review the whole plan and be well prepared. Show competence and self-confidence!

MANAGING GROUPS

Many of the exercises require that the participants work together in small groups. When they work in this fashion, there must be a way to share the information with the rest of the workshop participants. The most common way is to have group presentations. You are responsible for managing the group activities and ensuring active participation. The tips below will help.

TIPS FOR FACILITATING GROUPS

Seven tips for facilitating group exercises:

1. Be attentive and supportive of the participants' needs in any situation.
2. Help them understand the steps they must take to accomplish all the tasks.
3. Manage time effectively. Be sure to remind participants of time remaining. Be firm! Keep to the schedule.
4. Show interest and be willing to assist them at all times. Circulate from group to group while they are working.
5. Follow the entire process. Remain in the classroom during all activities.
6. Provide the groups with constructive feedback.
7. Always summarize the major points made by the groups and relate them to the objectives of the session and exercise.

Pre-workshop

Pre-workshop

Instructions to Trainer

INTRODUCTION

As a trainer, you are responsible for the preparation and management of the entire program. This often requires pre-workshop actions. You must discuss the pre-workshop responsibilities with the workshop's sponsoring institute. Some things that you must be sure to arrange are included in the following list. There may be several others. Pre-planning is essential to the success of your training workshop.

ACTIONS NEEDED

You must arrange for the following points long *before* the workshop starts:

1. In pre-workshop communication, be sure to inform the participants of any information they will require prior to arriving at the workshop. This can be accomplished through a pre-workshop letter. Consult with the sponsoring institutions for plans for pre-workshop communication with participants.

2. Arrange for appropriate officials to welcome the participants.

3. Compile a notebook for each participant. This notebook will be used by the participant to organize the training materials from each session. Before it is distributed at the workshop, each notebook should contain the following items. Samples of these items appear on the following pages.
   - welcome letter
   - workshop prospectus
   - workshop overview
   - tentative schedule (four days)
   - registration form

4. Plan for implementing systematic activities. Prepare yourself to instruct participants during the opening session on the systematic activities of the workshop:
   - review of daily activities
   - daily PAPA exercise
   - daily brief evaluation

5. At the end of each day:
   - Invite a volunteer to prepare and present the following morning a brief report, reviewing the day's activities and

summarizing major lessons learned. Provide the volunteer with transparencies of the day's objectives to facilitate his/her presentation, which should be delivered in five minutes.

- Distribute the PAPA forms. Invite the participants to list major skills from the day's activities which could be applied in their job environment and request that they keep the PAPA forms in their own notebooks. They will review these forms during the last day when they will fill out the action plan for the follow-up process.
- Distribute the evaluation form and invite the participants to briefly evaluate the day's activities. The participants should evaluate the diverse features of the day's activities. Collect the forms and summarize the results to report back to participants the following morning. Note that it is necessary to cluster the answers. There is a guideline to facilitate
  - the participants' evaluation of the diverse features of the day's activities. Provide the participants with a copy and/or present it on the overhead during the evaluation session;
  - your task of clustering the results of the daily evaluation to report and discuss with the participants in the morning.

6. Arrange for the certificates to be ready for distribution at the end of the workshop.

Dear Participant,

Welcome to the Workshop on Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources, which has been organized by SADC/ESAMI/ISNAR.

We hope you will enjoy the coming four days. In this workshop we will focus on gender issues and their impact on and relevance to research management in agriculture and natural resources at various levels. Subjects will include gender policy and the institutionalization of gender analysis in NARS and research management. You will be able to discuss with the other participants their experiences in making their research more relevant to its users. Also, there will be practical work to do using up-to-date techniques.

We realize that there are many facets to issues related to gender and research management in agriculture and natural resources. We hope that this workshop will help to provide you with the right tools to address gender aspects in your working environment.

Best regards,

SADC/ESAMI/ISNAR Trainers
Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

Workshop Prospectus

Introduction

In recognition of the potential role of agriculture and natural resource management in bringing abut sustained socio-economic growth, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) continues to emphasize the need for improved agricultural development in the region. However, as a result of many interacting and complex natural and human factors, agricultural productivity has declined, placing countries in situations of food insecurity, environmental degradation, increasing unemployment and impoverishment of rural people.

Individual governments have tried to create appropriate policy interventions and support programs for production factors, including the need for effective management of research in agriculture and natural resources, and extension. National research organizations are crucial to the future of agriculture in SADC countries. The uptake of research in agriculture and natural resources is impossible without consideration of the people who will be the end-users of these efforts rural people. In SADC and worldwide, women form the majority of rural populations. In some regions of Africa, 60% of the households are headed by women although within SADC, important variations occur. For instance, in Lesotho this figure is much higher, totaling 72%, whereas in Malawi the figure is lower, at 30%. The statistic that African women produce more than 80% of the continent's food is, however, widely accepted.
The topic of women in development began to influence agricultural research in the early 1970s. Since then, many researchers and project managers from African NARS have undergone gender training courses. These aim to heighten awareness and "sensitize" researchers and managers to issues of which they are often personally and professionally well aware. Many projects have been started which include a component related to women and development. Sometimes this had been referred to as the "gender component." Today, many researchers are justified to ask, "Has anything changed?" Has including the gender component led to better research? Has

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agricultural and natural resource management research been able to improve rural women's lives and therefore, food production?"

These timely questions, and many others, will arise in the workshop. The workshop starts from the perspective that research managers and scientists do not need further "sensitization" with regard to gender issues but, rather, opportunities to:

- discuss with other participants their experiences in making their research more relevant to its users;
- better understand gender policy and policy implications for gender issues;
- deal with the gender issues within their own institutions which ultimately influence research management and program or project results; and
- acquire the right tools to address gender issues in their organizations and in their work.

Goal of the workshop

The overall goal of the training is to enhance the capacity of senior research mangers and program leaders to incorporate gender concerns into agricultural and natural resources research at the levels of policy formulation, planning, implementation, and evaluation of research programs and projects.

Workshop objectives

The specific objectives of the workshop are as follows:

At the end of the workshop the participants will be able to do the following:

- Review the experience of gender-related agricultural and natural resource research.
- Identify national policies relevant to gender issues in agricultural and natural resource management.
- Examine gender relations in national agricultural research organizations.
- Assess their influence on organizational and administrative structures including human resource development.
- Evaluate the research program formulation and the project management cycle form a gender-relations perspective.
- Incorporate gender analysis in the management of agricultural and natural resource research.

Program Content

The workshop is divided into three main headings:

1. Gender and Policy
   - The relevance of gender for agricultural and natural resource research
   - Key gender concepts and arguments
   - Policy and gender issues in research management
2. Gender and Institutional Organization

- Institutionalizing gender awareness in research organizations
- Operational and administrative structures
- Human resource management

3. Gender Tools and Analysis
   - Introduction to gender analysis and relevant analytical tools
   - Engendering the research program and project management cycles
   - Incorporating gender analysis into agricultural and natural resource research management

Duration of the Workshop

The workshop will last for four days.

Workshop Format

At each event, the trainers will train a maximum of 20 program leaders/senior managers per training session in Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources. The workshop is designed to provide an interactive learning environment. Sessions generally include a brief presentation and participatory training method. The participant action plan approach (PAPA) is introduced and integrated throughout the workshop to encourage participants to consider and plan for the application of newly acquired knowledge and skills.

Expected Output

The expected outputs of the workshop are the following:

1. Improved knowledge and skills on gender issues and analysis for agricultural and natural resource research management.
2. Action plans by the program leaders and senior managers to improve the implementation and follow-up of the knowledge and skills developed in this workshop.
3. Improved commitment from program leaders and senior managers to work as a team towards improved research and effective research management.

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources - Workshop Schedule

Day One	Day Two	Day Three	Day Four
08:30 - 09:00 *Welcome* **09:00 - 09:30** *Session 1. Objectives of Workshop. Participant Action Plan Approach* **09:30 - 10:30** *Exercise 1*	**08:30 - 09:00** *Opening of the day's activities* **09:00 - 10:30** *Session 3. Approaches to Gender Policy. Exercise 3*	**08:30 - 09:00** *Opening of the day's activities* **09:00 - 09:45** *Session 5. Institutionalizaing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations: Part II.* **09:45 - 10:45** *Exercise 5*	**08:30 - 09:00** *Opening of the day's activities* **09:00 - 09:15** *Session 7. Incorporating Gender Analysis into a Research and Extension Project.* **09:15 - 10:30** *Exercise 7A or 7B*
Tea/coffee break	**Tea/coffee break**	**Tea/coffee break**	**Tea/coffee break**
10:45 - 13:00 *Session 1. Background and overview Pre-test activity*	**10:45 - 13:00** *Session 3. (Continued)*	**10:45 - 13:00** *Session 6. Gender Analysis and Engendering the Research Program Formulation Process and Project Management Cycle. Exercise 6*	**10:45 - 12:00** *Exercise 7. (Continued)* **12:00 - 13:00** *Session 8. Operational Plan for Institutionalizing Gender Analysis in Research Management. Exercise 8*
Lunch	**Lunch**	**Lunch**	**Lunch**
14:00 - 15:00 *Session 2. Gender Analysis in Research Management: Concepts and Arguments.* **15:00 - 15:30** *Exercise 2*	**14:00 - 15:00** *Session 4. Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations: Part 1.* **15:00 - 15:30** *Exercise 4*	**14:00 - 15:30** *Session 6. (Continued)*	**14:00 - 15:30** *Session 8. (Continued)*
Tea/coffee break	**Tea/coffee break**	**Tea/coffee break**	**Tea/coffee break**
15:45 - 16:30 *Exercise 2. (Continued) and Closure* **16:30 - 17:00** *Feedback on the day's activities, PAPA*	**15:45 - 16:30** *Session 4. (Continued)* **16:30 - 17:00** *Feedback on the day's activities, PAPA*	**15:45 - 16:30** *Session 6. (continued)* **16:30 - 17:00** *Feedback on the day's activities, PAPA*	**15:45 - 16:00** *Exercise.Test your knowledge again* **16:00 - 17:00** *Session 9. Participant Action Plan Approach (PAPA) and Workshop Evaluation* **17:00 - 17:15** *Final remarks and closing*

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SADC/ESAMI/ISNAR Workshop on Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

Registration form

Instructions: We would like your help in making this activity as beneficial to you as possible. In order to do this we request you to provide us with some information. Below you will find a number of questions relating to your background and expectations for the workshop. Most questions can be answered simply by placing a check in the appropriate space. Where a written answer is required, please print your reply clearly in the space provided. Please consider your responses carefully and answer truthfully. Everything you say will be held in strictest confidence. The information will be used only to help us make our activities more responsive to your needs.

Last name		First name	

Function in this meeting	❒ Participant ❒ Facilitator/presenter ❒ Organizer ❒ Observer ❒ Other _____

Title	❒ Dr. ❒ Mr. ❒ Mrs. ❒ Miss. ❒ Ing. ❒ Other _____

Gender	❒ M ❒ F

Date of birth	m d y / /19

Degree		Year
	❒ Diploma	19....
	❒ B.Sc.	19....
	❒ M.Sc.	19....
	❒ Ph.D.	19....

Other degree	
Year of other degree	19....

Position (type)	❒ Policymaker ❒ Senior manager ❒ Middle manager ❒ Researcher ❒ Information specialist ❒ Technician ❒ Other _____

Position (type)	
Department	

Institute	
Name of your immediate supervisor	
Your institute's address	

Telephone no.		Telex no./ Fax no.	
E-mail address			

Expectations	Participants are requested to fill in the two items on the reverse side of this sheet.

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What particular topics would you like emphasized in this workshop?	

What other management topics would you like to see covered in future events?	

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DAY ONE

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

DAY ONE — Overview

Objectives

By the end of the day the participants will be able to do the following:

1. Identify the trainers and the trainees.
2. Discuss the background, rationale, objectives, and schedule of the four-day workshop.
3. Explain the use of the participant action plan approach (PAPA).
4. Broadly define the terms "sex," "gender," "feminization of poverty," "gender roles," and "gender relations," "gender analysis," "institutionalization of gender," "engendering the project cycle."
5. Identify some initial gender-related problems in agricultural and natural resource research management.
6. List some of the specific benefits of adopting a gender perspective in research management and distinguish between a gender perspective and a woman's perspective.

Participant Materials

Workshop notebook (includes welcome letter, tentative four-day schedule, and the workshop prospectus).

Handouts

1.1.1 Overview
1.1.2 Tentative Schedule
1.1.3 Participant Action Plan Approach
1.1.4 Exercise 1. Interactive Exercise
1.1.5 Exercise 1. Cards
1.1.6 Background and Overview (summary of presentation)
1.1.7 Activity: Pre-test Your Knowledge
1.1.8 Pre-test Activity. Worksheet
1.2.1 Gender Analysis in Research Management: Key Concepts and Arguments (summary of presentation)
1.2.2 Exercise 2. Concepts and Arguments
1.2.3 Exercise 2. Worksheet
1.2.4 Strengths and Weaknesses of Day One
1.2.5 Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop
1.2.6 PAPA Form— First Stage
1.2.7 Gender and Development: a Relational Approach (text)
1.2.8 The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (text)
1.2.9 Let's *Not* Forget about the Men (text)

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Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

DAY ONE — Tentative Schedule

08:30 – 09:00	Welcome
09:00 – 10:30	**Session 1. Introduction to the Workshop** – Workshop introduction, objectives, and schedule – Overview of day one – Introduction of PAPA – Interactive exercise
10:30 – 10:45	**Tea/Coffee Break**
10:45 – 13:00	**Session 1. (Continued)** – Presentation on background and overview – Pre-test your knowledge

13:00 – 14:00 Lunch

14:00 – 15:30	**Session 2. Gender Analysis in Research Management: Concepts and Arguments** (Exercise and participatory presentation)
15:30 – 15:45	Tea/Coffee Break
15:45 – 16:30	**Session 2. (Continued)**
16:30 – 17:00	**Feedback on the Day's Activities and PAPA**

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Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

DAY ONE — Checklist for Trainers

Pre-workshop preparation

1. Compile a notebook for each participant. The participants will use the notebook throughout the workshop to organize the training materials.
2. Cut out the cards (handout 1.1.5) that need to be used for exercise 1.

Handouts

		Yes ✓	No ✓
1.1.1	Overview	❒	❒
1.1.2	Tentative Schedule	❒	❒
1.1.3	Participant Action Plan Approach	❒	❒
1.1.4	Exercise 1. Interactive Exercise	❒	❒
1.1.5	Exercise 1. Cards	❒	❒
1.1.6	Background and Overview (summary of presentation)	❒	❒
1.1.7	Activity: Pre-test Your Knowledge	❒	❒
1.1.8	Pre-test Activity. Worksheet	❒	❒
1.2.1	Gender Analysis in Research Management: Key Concepts and Arguments (summary of presentation)	❒	❒
1.2.2	Exercise 2. Concepts and Arguments	❒	❒
1.2.3	Exercise 2. Worksheet	❒	❒
1.2.4	Strengths and Weaknesses of Day One	❒	❒
1.2.5	Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop	❒	❒
1.2.6	PAPA Form — First Stage	❒	❒
1.2.7	Gender and Development: a Relational Approach (text)	❒	❒
1.2.8	The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (text)	❒	❒
1.2.9	Let's *Not* Forget about the Men (text)	❒	❒

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Overheads

		Yes ✓	No ✓
1.1.1	Workshop Goal	☐	☐
1.1.2	Workshop Objectives	☐	☐
1.1.3	Expected Outputs	☐	☐
1.1.4	Objectives of Day One	☐	☐
1.1.5	Schedule of Day One	☐	☐
1.1.6	Objectives of Session 1	☐	☐
1.1.7	Why PAPA?	☐	☐
1.1.8	Uses of PAPA	☐	☐
1.1.9	Steps in PAPA	☐	☐
1.1.10	Step 2: In-course Activities, Stage 1	☐	☐
1.1.11	Step 2: In-course Activities, Stage 2	☐	☐
1.1.12	Step 3: Follow-up Activities	☐	☐
1.1.13	PAPA Questionnaire, First Stage	☐	☐
1.2.1	Objectives of Session 2	☐	☐
1.2.2	Sex and Gender	☐	☐
1.2.3	Sex Roles and Gender Roles	☐	☐
1.2.4	Gender Roles	☐	☐
1.2.5	Myths or Truths?	☐	☐
1.2.6	Gender Relations	☐	☐
1.2.7	Feminization of Poverty	☐	☐
1.2.8	Gender Issues	☐	☐
1.2.9	How to Take Gender into Consideration?	☐	☐
1.2.10	What Should Research be?	☐	☐
1.2.11	Gender Analysis	☐	☐
1.2.12	Tools	☐	☐
1.2.13	Key Areas of Attention	☐	☐

Materials

•	Cards	☐	☐
•	Overhead projector	☐	☐
•	Projector screen	☐	☐
•	Flipchart stands (minimum 2)	☐	☐
•	Flipchart paper/pads (about 10 per day)	☐	☐
•	Markers for writing on newsprint	☐	☐
•	Markers for writing on transparencies	☐	☐
•	Blank transparencies	☐	☐
•	Stapler	☐	☐
•	Tape (strong masking tape and regular tape)	☐	☐
•	Push pins	☐	☐
•	Glue	☐	☐

- Pencils/notepads/pens ❐ ❐
- Pencil sharpeners ❐ ❐
- Extension cords ❐ ❐
- Certificates ❐ ❐
- Photocopying facilities ❐ ❐
- Spare bulbs for overhead projector ❐ ❐
- Extra notepads and pens ❐ ❐
- Scissors ❐ ❐

DAY ONE

Welcome and Session 1 Introduction to the Workshop

Instructions to Trainers

PRE-SESSION

Distribute notebooks to participants. Make sure you have all overheads for the presentation and the cards ready for the interactive exercise.

SESSION 1

08:30 – 09:00 Welcome

09:00 – 10:30 Session 1. Introduction to the Workshop

10:30 – 10:45 Tea/Coffee Break

10:45 – 13:00 Session 1. Continued

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this session, the participants will be able to do the following:

- Identify the trainers and trainees.
- Discuss the background and rationale for the workshop: goals, general objectives and expected outputs. The prospectus provides this information.
- Describe the workshop schedule for the four days. A copy of the schedule is in their notebooks.
- List the objectives of day one. Copies of the objectives and schedule are distributed.
- Explain the use of the participant action plan approach (PAPA).

PROCEDURE

Training techniques: interactive exercise, presentation, PAPA, pre-test activity.

PRESENTATION

(*experience*) Briefly introduce the workshop objectives, schedule, and topics to the participants. Distribute handouts 1.1.1 and 1.1.2. Use overheads 1.1.1 through 1.1.6 to guide your presentation. (15 minutes)

PAPA

Introduction of Participant Action Plan Approach (PAPA)

PRESENTATION

(*experience*) Introduce the participant action plan approach (PAPA) to the participants using overheads 1.1.7 through 1.1.13. Distribute handout 1.1.3 on the PAPA. The key points are listed below, and you will find handout 1.1.3 very useful. Encourage the participants to begin formulating action ideas as the workshop progresses. (15 minutes)

Five basic steps

PAPA requires that participants develop action plans at the end of the workshop. They will prepare a list of activities that they want to try when they return to their jobs. The plans should be based on the awareness, knowledge and skills they gain at the workshop. After some time has elapsed (usually six months), the participants are contacted to evaluate what changes they have actually been able to implement. The five steps involved in carrying out this process are as follows:

Step 1. Planning for PAPA

In this step, the person conducting the workshop determines the specific activities needed to apply PAPA, considering the available resources and the needs of the organizations involved. The trainer assigns and schedules the tasks necessary to carry out the approach.

Step 2. In-course activities

This step consists of two stages. At the beginning of the workshop, participants are introduced to the idea of an action plan. They are asked to record, throughout the workshop, new ideas they may want to try when they return to their jobs.

At the end of the workshop, participants are asked to write an action plan. This is an edited list of new, workshop-related activities which they plan to try when they return to their jobs.

Step 3. Follow-up activities

At a scheduled time after the training (usually six months), participants are interviewed or contacted by questionnaire. They are asked which of their planned activities they have been able to achieve up to that time, and what other activities they have attempted as a result of the workshop. Participants are also asked what effect their new activities have had on their work environment, and what problems, if any, they encountered in trying them.

Step 4. Analysis and conclusions

In this step, the data collected during the follow-up are categorized and displayed to show the extent and type of change resulting from the implementation of the action plan. The information can be displayed in the form of descriptions of behavior change. It can be summarized numerically (e.g., how many of the participants changed in certain ways). It can also be reported using a combination of narrative experience and numbers.

Step 5. Report

The findings from the analysis, conclusions, and recommendations regarding the workshop are reported in a form that meets the needs of the involved organization. The format may be an oral report but a written document is preferred.

Information that can be collected

PAPA gathers information about participants' behavioral changes on the job due to the workshop. Since the trainer can ask different questions during the follow-up, data can also be obtained on the following:

reaction — how well participants liked and accepted the workshop (viewed six months after its completion)

learning — the skills, knowledge, attitudes, etc., participants felt they acquired during the workshop

results — the impact the participants felt that the workshop had on their organization or work environment

Uses of PAPA

Participants commit themselves to action through a written plan developed at the end of workshop. They leave a copy of the plan with the trainer for follow-up purposes.

Participants know that someone will be asking about efforts they have made to implement the action plan. This can motivate individuals to actually try new activities on the job. Thus, PAPA can help participants transfer to their jobs what they learned in a workshop — PAPA becomes a part of the workshop itself.

Besides directly helping participants with the transfer of skills and knowledge, the action plan process can play a role in supervisor/subordinate discussions of workshop utilization. In working with their employees after the workshop, supervisors can help them implement the action plans and thus encourage and support the transfer of learning to the job.

Resources needed to use PAPA

No complex skills or knowledge are required for using PAPA. It does not require previous evaluation experience. No statistical tests are employed in the analysis. If interviews are used to collect follow-up information, interviewing skills are needed. A general ability to synthesize data and draw logical conclusions is also important.

The major resource required is time, mainly time to collect the data about changed job behavior and time for analysis. However, the trainer can take shortcuts in using the ap-

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proach and still produce valuable information about the workshop.

Reference

United States Office of Personnel Management. (no date.) Assessing Changes in Job Behavior Due to Training: A Guide to the Participant Action Plan Approach. Washington, D.C.: Productivity Research and Evaluation Division, United States Office of Personnel Management.

EXERCISE 1

Exercise 1. Interactive exercise. (60 minutes)

The trainer can open with a quick introduction to the interactive exercise such as: "Well, I'm sure that you have many, many questions on your mind. I hope that "What am I doing here?" is not one of them! But maybe you are wondering, Who am I sitting next to? So before we go any further, let's do a first exercise to learn more about each other."

The exercise is to allow participants to meet one another and to discover each other's familiarity with the subject of gender analysis and gender issues in the management of research in agriculture and natural resources.

Phase 1. Individual work (15 minutes)

1. (*experience*) Distribute handouts 1.1.4 and 1.1.5 (a card) to each participant. Each participant should answer the question on handout 1.1.4, writing their answer on the card and including their name and institution.

Phase 2. Group work (30 minutes)

2. Invite the participants to paste their cards on the board. Assist them to find others who have an answer similar to their response. Invite them to form groups accordingly.
3. Each group elects a rapporteur.
4. The rapporteurs write on a flip chart three major lessons learned by their group.

Phase 3. Reporting and discussion (15 minutes)

5. The rapporteurs introduce the members of their group, and present their group's results. Each rapporteur should take about five minutes.
6. (*process*) After the presentations, ask the participants how they felt doing this exercise. What have they learned about themselves, others?

7. (*generalize*) How will this information/experience be useful to them during this workshop?

10:30 – 10:45 Tea/Coffee Break

PRESENTATION

(*experience*) Give a brief and interactive presentation on the background and overview of gender analysis in the management of research in agriculture and natural resources. Invite participants to ask questions and share their views on the topic. This should be a very participatory Session. Distribute handout 1.1.6. (1 hour 25 minutes)

PRE-TEST

Activity: Pre-test your knowledge. (45 minutes)

(*experience*) Distribute handouts 1.1.7 and 1.1.8 to the participants. Handout 1.1.7 gives clear instructions for the pre-test activity. Explain that this is not a test as much as it is a means of measuring the knowledge each participant will gain from the workshop. Completing this activity will also give them some guidelines for determining new knowledge and skills gained by the end of the training course. Each participant gives their answer a secret code to ensure anonymity, . The trainer should mark the pre-test results as soon as possible, using the answer sheet which has been provided.. The exercise is repeated at the end of the course to measure knowledge gained during the workshop.

CLOSURE

Closure (5 minutes)

1. Make transition to next session.

13:00 – 14:00 Lunch

Answers to "pre-test your knowledge" activity

1. **(1 point) What does the term "gender" mean?**

   Gender is the social construction of sexual differences. It is culturally specific and changes over time.

2. **(1 point) What is the difference between the term "gender" and "women?"**

   Gender is a relational concept which analyzes women in relation to men and vice versa. A woman's perspective would not necessarily consider their relation to men.

3. **(1 point) What is the meaning of "feminization of poverty?"**

   A negative trend or process whereby women experience (relative to men) an inability to meet their strategic and basic needs. Women increasingly bear the burden of poverty.

4. **(1 point) What is the difference between gender equality and gender equity?**

   Equality refers to an equality between men and women. For example, an equal number of women and men involved in a research project. Equity refers to the fair treatment of women and men, regardless of equal number. Equity ensures access and control over a process or resources.

5. **(1 point) Define gender analysis.**

   Gender analysis is the term used to refer to the process of analyzing issues involving gender roles and relations.

6. **(1 point) Name three areas where gender analysis influences the research project management cycle.**

   Some areas could include program planning, project planning, monitoring and evaluation, project impact assessment, project objective or priority setting; any step in program formulation or the project management cycle.

7. **(2 points) Name two examples of gender analysis tools.**

   Seasonal labor calendars, engendered logframe, gender impact analysis, gender indicators, sex-desegregated data, gender needs and constraints analysis, gender roles analysis.

8. **(3 points) Name two ways gender concerns can influence institutional organization and management.**

   - human resource management (staffing, training, recognition, promotion)
   - structure and organization (gender unit, focal point, mainstreaming, ad hoc committee)
   - program formulation
   - project management cycle
   - policy formulation

   (Total 10 points)

DAY ONE

Session 1
Summary of Overheads

Workshop Goal

The overall goal is to enhance the capacity of senior research managers and program leaders to incorporate gender awareness at the levels of policy formulation, planning, implementation and evaluation of research programs and projects.

1.1.1

Workshop Objectives

1. Review the experience of gender-related agricultural and natural resources research
2. Identify national policies relevant to gender issues
3. Analyze the impact of policy on gender relations in agricultural research
4. Examine gender relations in NARS
5. Assess their influence on program and project implementation
6. Evaluate the research program formulation and the project management cycle from a gender relations perspective
7. Incorporate gender analysis research management

1.1.2

Expected Outputs

1. Improved skills in gender issues and analysis
2. Action plans by program leaders and senior managers to improve implementation
3. Improved commitment from managers and program leaders to work as a team toward improved research and effective research management

1.1.3

Objectives of Day One

1. Discuss background, rationale, objectives, and schedule
2. Discuss the use of participant action plan approach - PAPA
3. Define: sex, gender, feminization of poverty, gender roles and relations gender analysis, institutionalization of gender, engendering the project cycle
4. Explain difference between gender perspective and women's perspective
5. Identify initial gender-related problems in management of research in agriculture and natural resources
6. List specific benefits of adopting a gender perspective in research management

1.1.4

Schedule of Day One

08:30 – 09:00	Welcome
09:00 – 10:30	Session 1. Introduction to the Workshop
Tea/Coffee Break	
10:45 – 13:00	Session 1. (Continued)
Lunch	
14:00 – 15:30	Session 2. Gender Analysis in Research Management: Concepts and Arguments
Tea/Coffee Break	
15:45 – 16:30	Session 2. (Continued)
16:30 – 17:00	Feedback on the Day's Activities and PAPA

1.1.5

Objectives Session 1.

1. Discuss the background, rationale, objectives, and schedule for the 4-day workshop
2. Discuss the use of participant action plan approach - PAPA

1.1.6

Why PAPA?

- Systematic and continuous planning of future activities by trainees as training evolves
- Formal link between trainees and trainer for follow-up activities
- Further involvement of trainee in improving the training material after training event

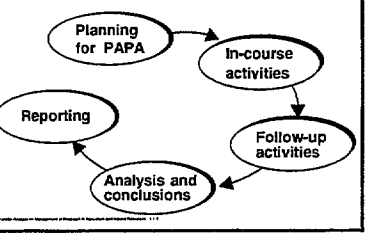
1.1.7

Uses of PAPA

- Assess the transfer of skill to work place
- Determine the impact of change introduced
- Identify problems of implementation
- Decide how to modify the course
- Evaluate the most useful parts/quality of training

1.1.8

Steps in PAPA



1.1.9

Step 2: In-course Activities

Stage 1

Objectives:
- introduce PAPA to participants
- identify possible action ideas to be tried on the job

Procedure:
- Jot down action ideas during the training
  - use format provided
  - do it at end of last session each day
  - confer with other participants/trainers periodically

1.1.10

Step 2: In-course Activities

Stage 2

Objectives:
- develop action plan

Procedure:
- prepare preliminary list of action items
- confer with partner
- finalize and prioritize list of action items
- report individual action plans
- make copy and submit to trainer

1.1.11

Step 3: Follow-up Activities

Trainers	Participants
• Formulate and send questionnaire →	• Fill out and return questionnaire
• Analyze and interpret data	
• Prepare report →	• Receive report and send feedback
• Modify course content	

1.1.12

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PAPA Questionnaire, First Stage
Ideas for action items

Date :

Workshop title :

Date/Venue :

Name :

Organization :

Ideas I would like to try when I return to work at my research institute, based on what I have learned in this training workshop

1.1.13

Special note to trainers

1. Make sure that copies of notebook materials are made and that the notebooks are ready for distribution. Remember that the notebooks are composed of the following:

   - welcome letter
   - workshop prospectus

   - tentative schedule (four days)

   - registration form

2. Make sure that the cards for the interactive exercise (handout 1.1.5) are cut out.

3. Note that a diskette is enclosed in the module with the evaluation forms in WordPerfect 5.1 to use if necessary.

Handout—Overview of Day One

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

Objectives

By the end of the day the participants will be able to do the following:

1. Identify the trainers and the trainees.
2. Discuss the background, rationale, objectives, and schedule of the four-day workshop.
3. Explain the use of the participant action plan approach (PAPA).
4. Broadly define the terms "sex," "gender," "feminization of poverty," "gender roles," and "gender relations," "gender analysis," "institutionalization of gender," "engendering the project cycle."
5. Identify some initial gender-related problems in agricultural and natural resource research management.
6. List some of the specific benefits of adopting a gender perspective in research management and distinguish between a gender perspective and a woman's perspective.

Participant Materials

Workshop notebook (includes welcome letter, tentative four-day schedule, and the workshop prospectus).

Handouts

1.1.1 Overview
1.1.2 Tentative Schedule
1.1.3 Participant Action Plan Approach
1.1.4 Exercise 1. Interactive Exercise
1.1.5 Exercise 1. Cards
1.1.6 Background and Overview (summary of presentation)
1.1.7 Activity: Pre-test Your Knowledge
1.1.8 Pre-test Activity. Worksheet
1.2.1 Gender Analysis in Research Management: Key Concepts and Arguments (summary of presentation)
1.2.2 Exercise 2. Concepts and Arguments
1.2.3 Exercise 2. Worksheet
1.2.4 Strengths and Weaknesses of Day One
1.2.5 Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop
1.2.6 PAPA Form — First Stage
1.2.7 Gender and Development: a Relational Approach (text)
1.2.8 The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (text)
1.2.9 Let's *Not* Forget about the Men (text)

Handout — Tentative Schedule of Day One

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

08:30 – 09:00	Welcome
09:00 – 10:30	**Session 1. Introduction to the Workshop** – Workshop introduction, objectives, and schedule – Overview of day one – Introduction of PAPA – Interactive exercise
10:30 – 10:45	**Tea/Coffee Break**
10:45 – 13:00	**Session 1. (Continued)** – Presentation on background and overview – Pre-test your knowledge

13:00 – 14:00 Lunch

14:00 – 15:30	**Session 2. Gender Analysis in Research Management: Concepts and Arguments** (Exercise and participatory presentation)
15:30 – 15:45	Tea/Coffee Break
15:45 – 16:30	**Session 2. (Continued)**
16:30 – 17:00	**Feedback on the Day's Activities and PAPA**

Participant Action Plan Approach (PAPA)

As part of this training, you will do an exercise designed to help you apply what you have learned. You may not find everything taught in the training appropriate to your specific situation. In some cases, you may want to adapt some of the materials to fit your particular job or work setting.

To do this, the participant action plan approach (PAPA) was developed by the United States Office of Personnel Management. PAPA is an easy-to-use method for determining how you changed your job behavior as a result of your attendance at a training course or program. The method generates data that enables the trainers to answer questions such as the following:

1. What happened on the job as a result of the training?
2. Are changes that occurred the ones intended by those providing the training?
3. What may have interfered with participants trying to use on the job what they learned in the training?

With the information from PAPA, trainers (as evaluators) can also decide if the training course should be modified, and in what ways. Managers can use the information to determine the worth of the training and make informed decisions about its future.

Workshop Activities

The method consists of two stages. At the beginning of the training you are introduced to the idea of an action plan and are asked to consider throughout the workshop tasks that you might want to do differently when you return to your job as a result of the training. Then, at the end of the training you are asked to write an action plan. This is a list of new, workshop-related activities that you plan to try when you return to your job.

Follow-up Activities

At a scheduled time after the workshop (usually several months), you will be interviewed or contacted by questionnaire. You will be asked which of your planned activities you have been able to implement up to that time, and what other new activities you have attempted as a result of having attended the training. You will also be asked what effect your new activities have had on your work environment, and what problems, if any, you encountered in trying them.

PAPA — FIRST STAGE

Ideas for action items

Date : _____

Workshop title : SADC/ESAMI/ISNAR Workshop on Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

Date/Venue : _____

Name : _____

Organization : _____

Ideas I would like to try when I return to work at my research institute, based on what I have learned in this training workshop.

_____

_____

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Note: You can use the workshop objectives, what you learn during the workshop, handouts, conversations with participants and trainers, etc., to come up with ideas.

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Exercise 1. Interactive exercise

The objective of this exercise is to get to know each other better and to identify the reasons for gender analysis in research management.

"What do you think is the most important (only one) reason for incorporating a gender perspective into your work as a researcher or research manager?"

Phase 1. Individual work (15 minutes)

1. Write your answer to the question above as briefly as possible on the card provided, using a felt-tipped pen, and include your name and institution. Make sure that the words are legible to other participants across the room when the cards are posted on the board or wall.

Phase 2. Group work (30 minutes)

2. Go to the board and paste your card with other cards with answers similar to yours.
3. Identify the participants who described a similar "most important reason" and form a group.
4. Introduce yourself to the others, giving your name and institution.
5. Each group elects a rapporteur.
6. Discuss and summarize the results of your exercise.
7. The rapporteur writes a list of three major lessons learned on a flipchart or transparency to present to the audience.

Phase 3. Reporting and discussion (15 minutes)

8. The rapporteurs introduce the members of their group and then present their list to the audience. Each rapporteur has five minutes to present. A brief discussion follows.

Forms for Interactive Exercise

Note to trainer:

Be sure to photocopy and cut the forms as indicated before session 1 begins.

Cut here

Cut here

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Background and Overview (summary of presentation)[1]

Most of you here today know that the topic of women and development has been much talked about in recent years. Actually, studies on women's role in agriculture started to gain strength in the early 1970s. Because of this early research, we now know that 80% of food produced in Africa has been the direct result of women's role in agriculture. We also know that in the various sectors of natural resource management — such as livestock management, soil conservation, and social forestry — women and women's groups can be very important. In the management of research and development activities, many researchers and project managers from African NARS have already undergone gender training courses. Gender training aims to heighten awareness and "sensitize" us to issues of which we may already be personally and professionally well aware. Have any of you been involved in gender-related courses before this workshop? (*ask participants to raise their hands*)

Since the 1970s, many activities in NARS have been started which include a component related to women. Sometimes this has been referred to as the "gender component." We are going to be talking later about the difference between *women* and *gender* (or whether or not there is a difference) so I won't define these terms right now. This workshop is concerned with the questions that research leaders are now asking, in the 1990s, 20 years after the first research projects on women and agriculture began. We will ask some tough questions, such as, "Has anything changed? Has including the gender component led to better research? Is adding a line about gender in a proposal or plan just a better way to get more resources? Has agricultural and natural resource management research been able to improve rural women's lives and rural food production in the southern African region?"

These questions, and many others, will arise in this workshop. The workshop starts from the point that research managers and scientists do not need further "sensitization" on gender issues but, rather, opportunities to do the following:

- Discuss with other participants their experiences in making their research more relevant to its users.
- Better understand gender policy and policy implications for gender issues.
- Deal with the gender issues within their own institutions which ultimately influence research management and program or project results.
- Acquire the right tools to address gender issues in their organizations and in their work.

Goal and Objectives

The overall goal of this training is to enhance the capacity of senior research managers and program leaders to incorporate gender concerns into agricultural and natural resources research

1 The trainer can include in the presentation some further data or information on the status of women in southern Africa and worldwide.

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at the levels of policy formulation, planning, implementation and evaluation of research programs and projects.

The specific objectives of the workshop are as follows:

- Review the experience of gender-related agricultural and natural resources research.
- Identify national policies relevant to gender issues in agricultural and natural resource management.
- Analyze the impact of policy on gender relations in agricultural research.
- Examine gender relations in national agricultural research organizations.
- Assess their influence on program and project implementation including operational and administrative structures and natural resource management.
- Evaluate the research program formulation and the project management cycle from a gender relations perspective.
- Present and provide tools for gender analysis in agricultural and natural resource research management.

Over the next four days we are going to be able to deal with all of these questions. I hope that you will be able to bring up more. The workshop is designed to use a participatory approach to training, and we will use a wide range of exercises and practical learning activities. As explained, we will also be using the participant action plan approach (PAPA) to encourage participants to consider and plan for the application of newly acquired knowledge and skills.

Pre-test Your Knowledge

Briefly write the answers (in point form) to the following questions on handout 1.1.8. Indicate where you are unable to offer a response or feel that you need to learn more in order to answer the question. Give your answers a two-digit secret code (so only you know your test). Then hand it in to the trainer who will compile the results.

1. (1 point) What does the term "gender" mean?
2. (1 point) What is the difference between the terms "gender" and "women?"
3. (1 point) What is the meaning of "feminization of poverty?"
4. (1 point) What is the difference between gender equality and gender equity?
5. (1 point) Define gender analysis.
6. (1 point) Name three areas where gender analysis influences the research project management cycle.
7. (2 points) Name two examples of gender analysis tools.
8. (2 points) Name two ways gender concerns can influence institutional organization and management.

(Total 10 points)

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Pre-test Your Knowledge. Worksheet

Question: **Participant Secret Code:_____**

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

DAY ONE

Session 2
Gender Analysis in Research Management: Concepts and Arguments

Instructions to Trainers

SESSION 2

14:00 – 15:30 Session 2. Gender Analysis in Research Management: Concepts and Arguments

15:30 – 15:45 Tea/Coffee Break

15:45 – 16:30 Session 2. Continued

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this session, the participants will be able to do the following:

- Broadly define the terms "sex," "gender," "feminization of poverty," "gender roles," "gender relations," "gender analysis," "institutionalization of gender," and "engendering the project cycle."
- Identify some initial gender-related problems in agricultural and natural resource research management.
- List some of the specific benefits of adopting a gender perspective in research management and distinguish between a gender perspective and a woman's perspective.

Use overhead 1.2.1 to present the objectives.

PROCEDURE

Training techniques: presentation, group work, "trip around the tables" technique, group presentations.

RATIONALE

Research leaders are busy people. They have to remain up to date in their area of technology development as well as with the administration and management of their programs and projects. They need vision to do their work and an openness to ideas and challenges which they may or may not have previously encountered. The topic of gender analysis in research management is one of these challenges. It is not actually very recent. In this session a brief history of the gender perspective in agricultural and natural resources research is presented. Some key terms such as "sex," "gender," "the feminization of poverty," "gender roles," and "gender relations" are introduced.

The session then helps research leaders to recognize the importance of day-to-day decision making that affects and is affected by gender relations. Research leaders are leaders because their decisions affect the success of various programs and projects, the allocation of resources, and efforts to follow up on certain issues within their workplace. There

is a need for leadership in the area of promoting a gender perspective. This means, in effect, promoting research which will lead to equitable development. Development that meets the needs of all people, whether male or female, rich or poor, educated or uneducated, urban or rural.

PRESENTATION

(experience) Give a presentation focusing on the context in which gender issues emerged in research and development work, key concepts, and rationale for gender analysis in agricultural and natural resource research management. Make the presentation as participatory as possible. You will find the information in handout 1.2.1 very useful. Overheads 1.2.2 through 1.2.13 support the presentation. At the end of the presentation be sure to allow sufficient time to ask the participants if they have any comments or questions, or if they need clarifications. Distribute handout 1.2.1. (60 minutes)

EXERCISE 2

Exercise 2. Concepts and arguments ("trip around the tables" technique). (1 hour 15 minutes)

1. Distribute handouts 1.2.2 and 1.2.3. Handout 1.2.2 gives clear instructions for the exercise. Go over the instructions with the participants step by step. Ask if clarifications are needed.

Phase 1. Group Work (50 minutes)

2. Divide the participants into four groups and ask each group to elect a rapporteur.
3. Groups read, discuss and respond to the questions assigned to them on handout 1.2.2.
   Remind the groups to take a break for tea/coffee and then return to their groups to continue the exercise.
4. (*experience*) As the groups work, circulate from group to group to check progress. Clarify any concerns they may have while working. Be sure to remind the groups of the time remaining in the exercise. (20 minutes)
5. (*experience*) Invite the rapporteurs to make the "trip around the tables," spending five minutes at each table. (20 minutes)
6. (*process*) Rapporteurs return to their own group and discuss the responses, including the inputs collected during the "trip." The rapporteur writes the results on a flip chart for presentation. (10 minutes)

15:30 - 15:45 Tea/Coffee Break

Phase 2. Reporting and discussion (20 minutes)

7. (*process*) The rapporteurs present their group's results to the audience. Each rapporteur has approximately five minutes to present. (20 minutes)

8. (*process, generalize*) Provide feedback on the content of the presentations. Ask the participants questions, such as "How did you feel doing this exercise?" and "What did you learn?" to facilitate discussion of the process.

CLOSURE

Closure (5 minutes)

1. *(application)* Ask the participants to tell one of their neighbors two things they might do differently in their job as a result of what they have learned. Ask volunteers to give examples.

2. Make a transition to the feedback session.

3. Remind participants to read the background information articles (handouts 1.2.7, 1.2.8, and 1.2.9), "Gender and Development," "Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women," and "Let's *Not* Forget about the Men."

16:30 – 17:00 Feedback on the Day's Activities and PAPA

OBJECTIVES

By the end of the day participants will be able to do the following:

- Evaluate the day's activities.
- Consider possible actions they would like to implement in their own organizations.

PROCEDURE

Training techniques: individual exercise.

Distribute handouts 1.2.4 through 1.2.6. Invite participants to reflect on any positive or negative points of the day. Note areas that may need additional attention in the workshop. Participants should write some strengths and weaknesses of the day on handout 1.2.4. Remind participants to use the guidelines (1.2.5) to provide feedback on the day's activities. (5 minutes)

PAPA

(application) Ask participants to jot down some "action ideas" they may have for themselves as a result of today's activities. They can use handout 1.2.6. (10 minutes)

READING

Distribute handout 4.7.3, the Livestock Project case study. Ask participants to read the case study as it will be used in an exercise on the fourth day of the workshop.

DAY ONE

Session 2
Summary of Overheads

Objectives Session 2.

3. Define: sex, gender, feminization of poverty, gender roles and relations, gender analysis, institutionalization of gender, engendering the project cycle
4. Identify initial gender-related problems in agricultural and natural resource research management
5. List specific benefits of adopting a gender perspective in research management and distinguish between a gender perspective and a woman's perspective

1.2.1

Sex and Gender

SEX	*GENDER*
Biological	Social result of "process of socialization"
Male or female	Boy or girl; man or woman
Universal	Not universal
Does not change over time	Changes over time
Does not differ across cultures	Differs between and within cultures

1.2.2

Sex Roles and Gender Roles

SEX ROLES	*GENDER ROLES*
Biological basis for role or activity	Social basis for role or activity

1.2.3

Gender Roles

Negative or positive

Changes over time

{ Respect — Authority — Power }

1.2.4

Myths or Truths?

- gender is too controversial and confrontational
- gender is less controversial and confrontational than women
- gender is the same as women
- gender is the same as sex
- gender and women are pushed by feminists in the North on the South
- gender is token, add-it-on and you get funding
- don't worry, gender is a fad and fads always end
- gender training leads to gender awareness

1.2.5

Gender Relations

- Gender relations recognize that men and women have biological differences and society treats men and women differently.
- More often than not, women are discriminated against in favor of men.

1.2.6

Feminization of Poverty

Access to ....

Power-sharing
Decisionmaking
Recognition
Support at all levels

Legal
Economic
Structures and status

Health
Education
Other services

1.2.7

Gender Issues

Conditions —— Position

Basic needs —— Strategic needs

1.2.8

How can agricultural and natural resource research take gender into consideration?

1.2.9

What Should Research Be?

effective — Responds to national development policy and objectives, users' needs, potential for adoption
- national development and research plans
- user perspective

efficient — Realistic objectives in terms of resources
- avoid waste of human resouces
- value women's work

1.2.10

Gender Analysis

- Analyzing issues which involve gender roles and relations
- Gender becomes an analytical variable in research and policy formulation

1.2.11

Tools

- Gender tools are used in gender analysis
- Tools used to "engender" research program formulation and the project management cycle.

1.2.12

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Key Areas of Attention

- ☐ Institutionalizing gender awareness in research management
- ☐ Gender policy for agricultural research management
- ☐ Gender analysis in agricultural research management

1.2.13

Gender Analysis in Research Management: Key Concepts and Arguments
(summary of presentation)

1. Consider the two terms "sex" and "gender"

   - "**sex**" refers to *biological* characteristics of who we are; as individual human beings we are biologically either male or female; in research we use the term "sex" to disaggregate data on the basis of responses from males or females (i.e. sex-disaggregated data). A common mistake is to use the phrase "gender disaggregated" data, this is actually an incorrect usage of the term.
   - "**gender**" refers *not* to our biological characteristics but to our *social* characteristics and the socialization process which we are exposed to as human beings. This process of socialization takes place in a specific society, in a specific time and place. While there may be similarities from family to family, or country to country, there can also be major differences because the conditions of history, environment, and culture make "gender" a concept that is difficult to generalize.

2. The socialization process of girls or boys, men or women, in our society creates specific *gender roles.* This is not the same as *sex roles.* An example of a *sex role* is the capacity of women to give birth to children. This is a biological role which men cannot fill. In contrast, *gender roles* are roles which society assigns to women or men. For instance, in some parts of the world, women are given responsibility for tasks such as cooking, preserving food, and storing seed. These tasks are not done by women everywhere around the world. Men, on the other hand, are given social roles such as hunting or taking care of livestock but, again, these *gender roles* are not universal.

3. Our society and biology both have an impact on what we can or should do as men or women. The difference is that biology does not change, society does. Therefore our *sex roles* may remain the same but our *gender roles* can and do change. Think about some ways that gender roles have changed in the areas where you live and work. We can expect that gender roles change in both our personal lives and our professional lives. *(Ask the group for examples.)*

4. Why do people feel uneasy talking about gender and gender roles? This is because society tends not to treat everyone in the same way. Society represents certain *power* interests. In this way gender is like other social relations such as class, race, ethnicity, and age. Consider the difference between a poor person and a wealthy person. How do you treat an elderly person? Who receives more respect? Respect leads to *authority*, and authority often leads to *power.*

5. Many studies have shown that, in the past, women and men in southern Africa both had their own sense of *authority* and *power* based on the gender roles which they assumed in their particular society. As you well know, this has changed dramatically in this century. New forms of education, technologies and economies have altered gender roles. Changing gender roles has not always brought positive changes to society. In fact, in many cases, changed gender roles have brought a negative impact for men but particularly, for women.

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Many of these changes occurred during colonialism in Africa. However, they continue into the present day. *(Ask the group for examples, time permitting.)*

6. One of these negative trends is referred to as the *feminization of poverty*. This concept refers to the persistent and growing burden of poverty on women, especially rural women. The *feminization of poverty* leads to inequalities in access to education, health, and related services. These limitations further reduce women's access to legal and economic structures and status (their position in society). It is argued that obstacles such as women's rights to own property (either individually or jointly with men) or to compete equally in the job market harm the opportunities for women to reach their personal goals and productive capacity as well as to address their conditions and position of poverty and their basic and strategic needs. Inevitably, legal and economic obstacles lead to reduced access to *equitable power-sharing* with men, less authority in national and local *decisionmaking,* and a lack of full *recognition* and *support* at all levels of society.

7. Concern over the *feminization of poverty* led development and research organizations to talk about "gender and development." As you probably know, there have been many versions of "women in development" (WID), "women and development" (WAD), and now "gender and development" (GAD). The differences between these various approaches are going to be dealt with in the session tomorrow morning. What is important for us to consider is that gender and development has progressed to the point where issues such as power, decisionmaking, recognition and support are now recognized as being at the base of gender roles which may treat women as less important and less valuable than men.

8. However, it is also necessary to point out that gender and development has been used recently to make the idea of a "women's focus" for development more easy to digest. In other words, the term "gender" may be less confrontational than "women." <u>This is really not the case</u>. Here is a list of points about gender. Are they myths or truths *(Ask participants to explain.)* In summary, the term "gender relations" recognizes that men and women may be different biologically, but society also treats women and men differently and, more often than not, unfairly.

9. Now we come to the question of what this means for those of us who are research leaders or involved in some capacity in research management. Why do we need to have a gender perspective? Let's begin by reviewing the fundamental and ideal characteristics of agricultural and natural resources research:

   - Research should be *effective:* it responds to national development policy and objectives, to users' needs, and has potential for adoption.
   - Research should be *efficient:* objectives are realistic in terms of resources; resources are allocated on the basis of relative importance of reaching objectives.

10. If agricultural and natural resource research is going to be *effective* it must respond to national *policy* and *users' needs.*

    We need to know what our national development plans and even our national agricultural (or forestry, fisheries or environmental) research plans say about gender and development issues. We also need to know how these policies influence gender issues.

11. As researchers and research leaders, you may have a direct impact on how these policies are designed and implemented. You are, therefore, in a position to understand how these policies may benefit the *users* of research results, both men and women. Through the programs and projects you plan and manage, you can make a difference in terms of

including a *user perspective* in the methodology and analysis you carry out. You can also incorporate tools of *gender analysis* into your work whether as a manager/administrator or as a research team leader. "Gender analysis" is the term used to refer to the process of analyzing issues which involve gender roles and relations. In this way, gender becomes an analytical variable in research. Certain tools are used in gender analysis; some are more participatory in nature, such as calendars of gender roles in agriculture, others, such as sex-disaggregated, data may be more conventional in nature. These tools can be used in existing research program formulation and project cycles. When gender is used in program or project diagnosis, planning, monitoring and evaluation, we refer to it as *engendering the project cycle*. We will be discussing *gender analysis and its tools* in the research project cycle in the next few days.

12. Research resources must be used *efficiently*. One point often neglected by research leaders is the extent to which gender discrimination in research institutes or in research programs and projects *wastes* human resources and *undervalues* women's work.

    Women and men can bring different skills to their work. When women are neglected to the advantage of men, women's skills are underutilized.

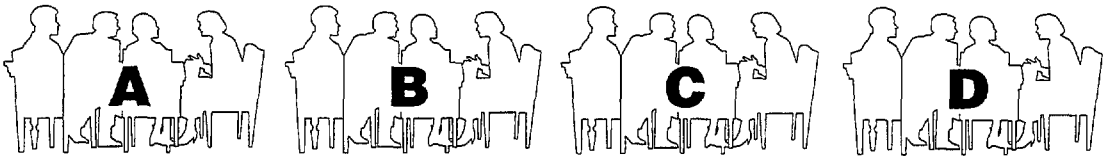
13. However, sometimes women's skills are seen as inferior to those of men. Men may take on leadership and decisionmaking without consulting women colleagues at work. This management behavior leads to an inefficient, not to mention inequitable, use of human resources. This type of management style leads to demoralized staff and further distrust can arise (even among men) in the organization. This is one reason that the *institutionalization of gender awareness* has become an important topic in research management. This involves a process of structuring or restructuring power and opportunity within the administration. Only by institutionalizing gender awareness can gender policy and analysis transform gender inequalities and inequities.

14. Over the next few days we are going to be discussing gender issues and approaches to research management. We will address the tools that can be used to implement and evaluate gender issues, and the various difficulties that can be encountered. But first, to give you a chance to discuss and apply this presentation, we will use a brainstorming exercise to become more familiar with the concepts presented today and the work which you are doing in your institutes.

Exercise 2. Concepts and arguments
("trip around the tables" technique)

Phase 1. Group work (50 minutes)

1. Form four groups of participants.



2. Each group elects a rapporteur.
3. Share your experience in gender issues in research management in your institution with other members of your group. Each group has one question to discuss. Develop answers on the worksheet provided (handout 1.2.3).(20 minutes)

   Group A
   What are the priorities for gender-related research in the countries represented in the group?

   Group B
   At what stage of planning or operation is gender-relevant work being addressed in your institution?

   Group C
   What part of your own work is most relevant and least relevant to the topic of gender issues in agricultural and natural resource management?

   Group D
   List criticisms that you have heard about gender-related research work, and state ways you could overcome these criticisms.
4. The rapporteurs compile their group's inputs on the worksheet (1.2.3).
5. The rapporteurs begin their "trip around the tables." They have five minutes to visit each table. They present their group's inputs and collect contributions to improve their list of responses. (20 minutes)
6. The rapporteurs return to their own group. They share the contributions collected during the "trip" and identify the key points raised by each group. The rapporteurs write the results on the flipchart and prepare to present their group's results. (10 minutes)

Phase 2. Reporting and discussion (25 minutes)

7. The rapporteurs present the results to the audience. Five minutes are available for each presentation.
8. The trainer analyzes the responses, after which you will be invited to participate in a discussion.

Exercise 2. Worksheet

Strengths and Weaknesses

- **Please list what you consider to be three strengths of day one**

1.
2.
3.

- **Please list what you consider to be three weaknesses of day one**

1.
2.
3.

- **Suggestions for improvements**

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Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop

1. **The Module**

   Content

   - usefulness/relevance
   - amount of information

   Structure

   - sequence
   - duration
   - balance between trainers' and trainees' participation
   - instruction to trainers
   - visual aids
   - handouts
   - extra readings
   - PAPA
   - evaluation

2. **Process: training techniques and direction**

   - usefulness/relevance/effectiveness
   - group interaction
   - clarity of questions/exercise instructions
   - opening and closure of the days

3. **Trainers', facilitators', and trainees' performance**

   - presentation/communication skills
   - interaction/effective participation
   - punctuality/interest/commitment/willingness to facilitate learning/willingness to participate
   - other attitudes

4. **Logistical support**

   - organization
   - accuracy
   - punctuality
   - willingness to assist participants
   - services provided in general

5. **Workshop environment**

   - physical (training facilities, training material, hotel facilities in general)
   - psychological (personal feelings such as self-motivation, interest, satisfaction, self-achievement)
   - social (development of friendship, relaxed, comfortable among participants, etc.)

6. **Workshop results/outputs**

   - personal and professional assessment
   - recommendations

7. **General comments**

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PAPA — FIRST STAGE

Ideas for action items

Date: _____

Workshop title : SADC/ESAMI/ISNAR Workshop on Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

Date/Venue : _____

Name : _____

Organization : _____

Ideas I would like to try when I return to work at my research institute, based on what I have learned in this training workshop.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Note: You can use the workshop objectives, what you learn during the workshop, handouts, conversations with participants and trainers, etc., to come up with ideas.

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Gender and Development: A Relational Approach[1]

In this essay I want to present an account of what I see as the main features of the gender and development (GAD) approach. It has to be borne in mind, however, that the approach is not yet fully developed and that there are a number of loose threads and unclarified areas. I shall divide the presentation into two main parts, the first dealing with gender and gender relations, and the second dealing with development and the gender approach to it. The first section is subdivided into seven subsections: 1) the main focus of the approach; 2) its rejection of essentialism; 3) its holistic focus; 4) its emphasis on particular social arenas; 5) its concern with relations, not roles; 6) its critical operator — the sexual division of labor; and 7) the tension between structural causation and individual agency. The second section is also divided into seven subsections: 8) the meaning of development; 9) the agents of development; 10) identifying women's needs; 11) types of development efforts for women; 12) strategies; 13) the role of the state; and 14) the need for a holistic approach.

Gender

1. Main Focus of the Approach

The focus in gender and development is not primarily upon women per se, but on gender relations. Gender relations are those socially constituted relations between men and women, which are shaped and sanctioned by norms and values held by members of the society concerned (but not necessarily with the same degrees of firmness). Central to these relations are culturally specific notions of masculinity and femininity, of the sexes' different capacities, aptitudes, and predispositions; on these notions appropriate behaviors for each of the genders are based. Gender thus involves both sets of ideas and sets of behavior — or, to put it another way, both ideology and material practices.

A central contention of the gender approach is that although the ordering of behavior of men and women is represented ideologically as the result of the biological or natural capacities of the sexes, it is in fact a social product. This goes against popular or common sense accounts of male and female difference. Thus, at a general analytical level, to use the concept of gender involves operating with a social rather than a biological concept and avoiding commonsense categories in favor of a relational approach.

2. Rejection of Essentialism

The GAD approach thus rejects biological determinism or essentialism. That is to say, it does not subscribe to the essentialist view that all women share the same characteristics of nurturance, lack of aggression, and care for others. Neither does it subscribe to the view that women are in some way unquestionably or unassailably right in all their views, ways of behavior, aims or objectives.

1 Kate Young. 1988. Institute of Development Studies (IDS), Sussex University. This paper is not an original work but has called upon the writings of many people working on problems of economic and political development, and on the preconditions for women's liberation. In particular, I mention Ann Whitehead, Shireen Huq, Maxine Molyneux, and Dorienne Wilson Smillie.

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It does not assume a homogeneity between all women nor that women share similar political or social aims as a matter of essence. Conversely, it does not assume that men are invariably wrong or wicked, aggressive and power-obsessed. The GAD approach starts from the premise that very slight biological differences have been reinforced socially to create the appearance of considerable (almost unbridgeable) differences between men and women. From the historical evidence available, it accepts that in most societies women have been less socially privileged than men and thus assumes that men are therefore unlikely to ally themselves to the cause of women's liberation without powerful persuasion.

3. Holistic Focus

First, from a GAD perspective, understanding the structure and dynamics of gender relations is central to the analysis of social organization and social process. This has two consequences. First, the GAD approach is holistic. That is, it looks at the totality of social organization, economic and political life, in order to understand the shaping of particular aspects of society. While it assumes that gender will be an important aspect of social organization, it does not assume it will be the only one, nor the most powerful, nor that gender relations will be the principal determinant of a woman's situation. As a result it looks at the culturally specific forms of social inequality and division, and tries to see how gender is related to or interlocked with a wide variety of forms of social hierarchy. This implies that the position of a given society within the wider international system must itself be part of the analysis.

The holistic perspective also means that the approach does not merely focus on the reproductive aspect of women's lives (understood here as that set of tasks around motherhood/childbearing and caring, socialization, etc.) when trying to understand the particular patterning of women's lives. Nor does it focus solely on production and the distribution of goods and services, made or produced in specialized work units such as factories or hospitals, when attempting to analyze the economic underpinning of social life. Rather it focuses on the "fit" between family, household or the domestic, and the organization of the economic and political spheres.

For example, from a gender perspective, in industrial and market economies, the structure of the working day in the sphere of production is intelligible only if the existence of the domestic sphere is taken as a given. The organization of production presupposes a form of cooperation between men and women, which takes the form of man the breadwinner; woman the housewife. From this point of view, the solution to women's double or triple burden is not so much providing domestic technology to make women more efficient at what they do, nor exhorting men to take up their share of family work, nor indeed socializing some of "women's chores" (by means of setting up crèches, canteens, etc.), but involves questioning the fit between productive market-oriented activity and reproductive family-oriented activity. Solutions to women's overwork might then be couched in terms of flexible working schedules for women and men according to age and parental responsibility; allowing for fathers' responsibility for child care/parenting by means of shortening the working day or ending overtime by raising staffing levels, as well as public provision of crèches, nurseries, etc. In short, if the next generation is going to be reared and socialized in ways appropriate to the country's needs, then the reproductive aspect of life must be made a public concern and included as an element of public planning.

4. Emphasis on Particular Social Arenas

Second, from a GAD perspective, there are a number of critical arenas in which gender is a decisive operator. One of these is the kinship or domestic arena. Within this, most of the relations between men and women are ascribed; that is, their character derives from the position of the

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parties in sets of relations largely established on the basis of kinship and marriage. Examples of ascribed relations are those of father:daughter, brother:sister, and so on. For each set there is a socially sanctioned pattern of appropriate behavior. In general these norms set the parameters of the permissible rather than the detailed content, however, the elaboration of the rules and the flexibility permitted varies widely by culture. In many societies these ascriptive relations between men and women are marked by behavioral patterns such as deference, subordination, submission, or other forms of social signaling of difference, if not inferiority. As a rule the female is the subordinate in the relation.

A particularly critical relationship between men and women in the domestic arena is that of marriage. The nature of what has been called the conjugal contract varies widely between societies. In some, marriage gives husband and wife rather minimal rights to each other's income, labor, affection, and consideration; in others, men's rights are more highly elaborated than women's; and, in yet others, they would appear to be more or less equivalent. In some societies the nature and quality of this relation appears to set the tone for all other male:female relations, in others, it appears to be less pervasive.

Outside the domestic or kinship arena lies the arena of the community, the wider society. Here relations are not typically ascriptive in modern society, but are achieved, that is, they are established on the basis of the parties' individual insertion in the economic, social or political life of the country. (There are also some ascriptive relations in the public arena such as chief:subject, lineage elder:cadet, but they are less numerous than in the domestic realm, and again, on the whole there is little inversion of the gender order.) A characteristic of many achieved relations is that when they involve some form of hierarchy, they tend to replicate the order of dominance found in the domestic arena. That is to say, where the relation is between a man and a woman, the male tends to be the superior in the relation. Such relations are in this sense gender bearing. For example, in the economic sphere one can generally guess the gender of the holder of a position by its place in the hierarchy of occupational positions, e.g. doctor:nurse; boss:secretary; university professor:lecturer; trade union leader:semi-skilled garment worker; shop supervisor:shop assistant.

In this wider field, gender is not the only social force structure in relations, but is one of a number of differentiates — class, race, ethnicity, religion — so that relations which are gender bearing are likely also to be carriers of class or race signifiers. As a result, historical and cultural specificity in analysis is always a necessity. As societies are complex unities involving multiple systems of stratification and hierarchy, it is not possible to "read off" the nature of any given social relation involving men and women merely by giving the gender of the two parties. An implication of this is that the rather crude rule of thumb sketched above (that within a single element or set of a stratification system it is likely that males will be subordinate) can be overridden by class, age, or race hierarchy.

5. Concern with Relation Not Roles

The GAD approach does not emphasize roles but rather relations, thus it eschews role theory and tries to avoid the role terminology except at a very descriptive level. There are a number of reasons behind this of which I will mention only a few. Firstly, given its focus on how the relation between men and women is constructed socially, and how this impacts upon economic, political, and social processes (what we conveniently call "development" in shorthand), and how the latter modify or restructure, undermine or reinforce gender relations, the gender approach is largely concerned with process.

Secondly, a basic assumption is that relations between the genders are structured in dominance (i.e. they are not relations between equals). As such it is assumed that gender relations are a category of power relations. As a result, the approach emphasizes the politics of gender relations, and uses concepts such as bargaining, mustering forces, resource bases, shifts in fall back positions and alliances, etc. It follows from this, thirdly, that it is a dynamic approach which, while analyzing the set of relations observed in the present, looks for the forces that brought them into being, and searches for tendencies which point to how the future is being structured in the present.

Approaches which stress roles tend to be rather static, despite many attempts to make the analysis more dynamic by talking about women balancing three roles, or juggling with seven roles. They tend to vagueness or essentialism on the question of where roles come from, or how they change, and where the norms and values supporting role conformity are derived and how and why they both change. Most serious from our point of view is that a focus on roles gives one little sense of the interaction between men and women; both men and women have their sets of roles which they may balance or shift between, both may accrete ever more roles during their lifetime. But how the different roles, or sets of roles, impinge upon each other remains unclear: Does one man's role of worker assume, involve, make obligatory one women's role of "workerwife"? Again, using role theory or a simplified version of it makes discussing male violence in terms other than role stress or breakdown difficult; in other words, violence is made invisible as an aspect of the gender power relation.

6. Critical Operator — the Sexual Division of Labor

Central to the GAD approach is the analytical concept of the sexual division of labor (SDOL) which leads to an analysis of the specific forms of inter relatedness of the genders produced by this social division. As a result, rather than focusing on roles, the GAD approach looks at the SDOL, its forms and changes over time. The SDOL has a number of interesting features. For instance, men and women are allocated to activities by the SDOL on the basis of a set of ideas about what men's and women's capacities are and what it is appropriate for them to do. The SDOL is thus the mechanism by which a set of ideas about men and women, their natures, their capacities, and their attributes, is translated into a set of material practices which ensures that men and women are constantly made aware not only of "being a woman" or "being a man," but also of the terms on which they should interrelate.

It is commonplace to state that the SDOL generally allocates men and women to rather different sets of tasks. As a rule, at the societal level it allocates men to the production for and protection of the family as well as the administration and defense of the society, while women are allocated to servicing the family (which may involve production for domestic use) and bringing the new generation into being. Within the family, men and women are also allocated different sets of responsibilities, with women again being largely responsible for bearing, caring, and maintenance of family members (bodywork) and men for overall management, regulation, and control of family members. Less common is the understanding that SDOL, in this sense, is not only a social division but also a form of social connection. That is to say, by making men and women undertake different activities, and produce different goods and services, they are made interdependent on each other.

To give a simple though crude example, in industrial and market societies, the SDOL by allocating men to the sphere of wage work and women to that of domestic or household work, ensures that a woman, in order to get access to wages or the goods that wages can command, must be in some form of relationship to a man with whom she can exchange her goods or services

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for wage goods. Conversely, a man who spends the bulk of his time earning wages can acquire things such as cooked food, clean clothes, tidy house, psychic counseling and physical relaxation, through exchanging his wage goods for a woman's services.

Such separation, but mutual interdependence, assumes that some form of recognized exchange system must exist between men and women, and that both men and women cooperate in such a system. Now there can be considerable differences in the ways that both exchange and cooperation are organized: they can be relatively unstructured and harmonious or tightly structured and harmonious, or structured and inharmonious, etc. One of the critical areas on which gender analysis focuses is precisely that of the terms under which men and women cooperate, and the specific institutions through which such cooperation is structured. One such institution is marriage, the socially elaborated terms of exchange and collaboration which are embodied in the conjugal contract.

It is reasonable to suggest that one effect of the SDOL is to make men and women artificially separate from each other. And further that it tends to make what they do incommensurable (or non-comparable). But this artificiality, the social nature of the division, is ideologically denied by systems of thought which portray the division as being based on "natural" biological differences and capacities i.e., that women are naturally more adept at caring for the young, domestic servicing, etc., that men have a natural capacity for organization, production, dispute resolution, etc. In other words, overlying the division is the gender logic — a set of ideas about the natural characteristics of men and women derived from their biological differences. If indeed the basis of the SDOL was formed by natural characteristics derived from biological difference, then one would expect to find a similar SDOL cross-culturally and historically. Yet analysis shows the SDOL changes over time and in response to a variety of forces and, furthermore, that the nature of the genders' natural attributes also changes. What the dynamic is for change is not entirely clear; in some cases it appears to be changes in economic relations, in others political. What this suggests is that the operation of the SDOL is mediated by other structures or forces within society. And this tends to reinforce the view that the SDOL itself is a social construction operating on sets of relations themselves socially constructed, and dependent upon or affected by the form of society and its economy.

A second feature of the SDOL is that it does not merely allocate tasks; built into the allocation is a set of values. Tasks are valued differently — some are given high social prominence, others are not — and those who do them are also differently socially valued. The rationale behind the valuation does not appear to be based on a single criterion; intellectual work is given greater value than manual labor, headwork greater than bodywork. Equally, work which meets male characteristics and aptitudes appears to be given greater social value than work with female attributes. Since men are ideologically privileged in most societies and thus thought to be more capable of headwork, and women are largely relegated to bodywork, it could in fact be argued that there is but one criterion. What is more pertinent is the way in which the gender logic works to ensure that much of what women do gets subsumed under the category of the natural (caring for children, even subsistence farming), while men's work is frequently categorized as being eminently social or cultural, i.e. manmade. Whatever the case, the main analytical point is that the SDOL as a form of social connection not only creates interdependence, it also reinforces the system of differential evaluation of masculinity and femininity.

7. Tension between Structural Causation and Individual Agency

An unresolved dilemma with the GAD approach is the analytical weight that should be given to structure as opposed to agency. In other words, if men, like women, are produced socially, and if certain behaviors and attitudes are expected of them as masculine beings, to what extent

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should it be argued that men are the unwitting victims of structures which are as coercive for them as they are for women? As much of the literature concerning masculinity has shown, many men do suffer from the social pressures exerted on them "to be proper men," and from other forms of stereotyping. Nonetheless the unremitting resistance men put up to prevent women from having equal access to valued economic resources and political power, and to controlling positions within the main institutions of ideological production, make it difficult to maintain that they are totally innocent of voluntary perpetuation and even furtherance of the social condition of male dominance. But in this they are all too often supported by (certain categories of) women. Equally, the catalogue of men's violence to women is not merely long but full of bizarre variations upon the single theme of men's right to punish women. Can this behavior be really seen as the product of social structure rather than individual volition? The problem of structures versus individual will is highly complex and not confined to the study of gender alone. Throughout much of social science this same difficulty runs like a persistent leitmotiv.

One of the insights that a relational approach has brought to the study of men and women in society is the importance of relations between men in the structuring of gender relations, whether these are socially prescribed or individually entered into. Equally important are the relations between women as a source of strength to resist as much as sanction any challenge to male dominance.

Development

8. Meaning of Development

Turning to the development aspect of the gender and development pair, how is development understood and analyzed from this perspective? Development is viewed as a complex process involving the social, economic, political, and cultural betterment of individuals and of society itself. Betterment in this sense means the ability of the society to meet the physical, emotional, and creative needs of the population at an historically acceptable level, and to free human labor time from an incessant treadmill of basic needs production. It thus involves increasing standards of living but not conspicuous consumption, and it implies a form of society which allows for equal distribution of social wealth. In examining the potential or actual impact of development programs on any particular society or group within a society, proponents of the GAD approach ask the questions: What economic and social changes are sought? Who is involved, with the collaboration of whom, with what objective, in benefit of whom, and against the interests of whom? More specifically it asks whether men or women are the major beneficiaries, which specific categories of men or women benefit and which lose out, what tradeoffs are involved, what the resultant balance of rights and obligations, power and privilege is between men and women, and what it is between the various social groups. Finally, it also asks whether the development options being favored will lead to sustainable forms of production and distribution, or whether economic growth is predicated upon abuse or wastage of the earth's resources, human and environmental.

9. Agents of Development

Within the development process, women and men are viewed as active agents in and not passive recipients of development. However, since men and women are located differently within the socio-economic structure, they tend to have different sets of interests and needs. The approach thus recognizes the existence of contradictions between the genders but makes no assumptions as to whether those contradictions are antagonistic or non-antagonistic. It also assumes that if

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only one gender is involved in decisionmaking about development options, the choices and solutions arrived at will differ from those agreed upon when both genders are involved. Equally, it recognizes that if both genders are involved, a much more complex process of bargaining and making tradeoffs, negotiating and reaching compromises is inevitable.

10. Identifying Women's Needs

The GAD approach does not subscribe to the view that the only thing necessary to better the situation of women is "to ask the women" themselves. While women are clearly active in trying to cope with the situation in which they find themselves, it cannot be assumed that they have perfect knowledge or understanding of the total configuration of their economic, political or social situation. Nor, as was noted above, is it assumed that women by essence have some greater power and understanding than men. What the approach does assume is that while women as individuals may well be aware of their subordinate position, the force of ideology may render this "natural" or god-given; equally even when it is recognized as social, the structural roots of discrimination and inequality may not be easily identified. Equally, individual men may be aware of the social pervasiveness of male dominance, but may themselves feel personally powerless. The implication of the approach is that consultation, discussion, experimentation, feedback, and comparison are necessary in the struggle to ameliorate the situation.

11. Types of Development Efforts for Women

To date, development efforts directed at women have been of four types: welfare (focusing on women's roles as mothers and their needs derived from this), equity (focusing on women's rights to equal opportunities for employment and political expression within the home as much as in the wider society), poverty (focusing on the fact that the majority of women in third world countries are poor (and in some cases getting poorer), and need support for their income-generating or productive activities), and efficiency (focusing on women as a neglected development resource who make the best use of the small amounts of support they get). These approaches are often seen as mutually exclusive. From the GAD perspective, welfare, anti-poverty or equity approaches are not necessarily opposed. Rather, welfare and anti-poverty programs are often necessary preconditions for equity. The critical consideration is how to subvert welfare for equity.

12. Strategies

In thinking about strategies of subversion a distinction should be made between women's condition and women's position. By "condition" is meant women's material state — their poverty, lack of education or training, excessive work burdens, low productivity because of lack of access to modern technology, etc. By women's "position" is meant their social, political, and economic standing relative to men. Much of development practitioners' work is concerned with finding ways of improving women's condition by targeting ameliorative resources either directly to them (via income generating, health, agricultural extension, intermediate technology projects) or indirectly (by improving the general living standards of the population through provision of social infrastructure, drinking water, sewage schemes, roads, electricity, etc.). The question of women's position is less frequently addressed directly, although many people working on these issues are concerned with strengthening women's ability to take part as equal partners in decisions which affect men and women alike. Strategies which emphasize organizing women into collective groupings (cooperatives, occupational associations, awareness-raising groups) may merely wish to strengthen the individual's bargaining power in the economic system, but they may also envisage more radical options.

At one level this involves, firstly, a process of "enabling" i.e., supporting the majority of women so that they can escape from the exhausting daily grind of combating poverty and meeting their families' needs. This almost inevitably means providing financial or other support, for projects and programs which seek to give women greater access to the inputs necessary for them to carry out their responsibilities successfully: credit, training, child care. But it also involves creating the space for women to be able to begin to contextualize their lives and their difficulties. Secondly, a process of "empowerment" is involved, which will lead to the more active involvement of women in defining and promoting their own political and social projects. Empowerment may involve financial support but, also, consciousness-raising with women themselves and wider public awareness campaigns to create a facilitating environment. Both enabling and empowerment involve a process of moving from discussing women's practical needs based upon their socially scripted roles as mothers, wives, domestic beings, to identification of their strategic interests as women, and taking steps to ensure that meeting these becomes part of the political agenda.

At another level Strategies of Subversion involve careful thought about mechanisms. On the whole, women and development advocates promote women's access to cash income (usually via the market), either as individuals or members of some form of collective, as their main strategy. To facilitate women's insertion into the market they also stress training and skill-building, access to credit, etc. This strategy derives both from confidence in the market and from the belief that women's economic dependence on men is the primary cause of their subordination. Those who take a GAD perspective are much less optimistic about the potential of the market to benefit women, and the power that stems from having "cash in hand." This in turn goes back to the problem of structural determination as opposed to individual agency. At the individual level it is possible that some women will benefit from entry into the market, or that some will have greater bargaining strength because they can contribute financially to their own upkeep or that of the children. What is doubtful is whether individual gains will translate into the overall betterment of women as a gender. The market has rarely been shown to be an egalitarian distributor of social wealth; indeed, some would argue it depends on inequality for its efficient functioning.

13. Role of the State

The role of the state in promoting improvement in women's condition or position is given prominence within the GAD perspective. In most less developed countries the state plays a dual role as an employer of labor (often the biggest) and an allocator of social capital to socially necessary ends. From a GAD perspective the state has a duty to provide social capital for the care and maintenance of the future generation. In so doing it implicitly rejects the view that producing — physically as well as socially — the future generation is entirely the concern of individuals for the view that it is a social matter. For women to be able to influence decisions regarding the distribution of social capital requires that they can be constituted (or constitute themselves) as influential political actors. But women almost everywhere are politically weak and have little bargaining power at any level of state intervention — local, regional or national. Thus, from this perspective, activists involved with women and development matters must go beyond concerns with economic self-sufficiency to the need for political self-reliance.

14. Need for a Holistic Approach

Given that GAD assumes that political and economic power are closely enmeshed, the first step in improving women's position in society is to provide the conditions for men and women to surmount poverty. But the main constraint here is that the poor are rarely able to tackle the

conditions which created their poverty in the first place. As a result, the GAD approach stresses building an element of consciousness-raising into welfare or basic needs programs. Welfare in this sense is seen as a means, not an end. The consciousness-raising has to encompass not only the nature of the structures creating poverty for some and wealth for others—the maldistribution of social wealth and capital, the unbalanced distribution of political power—but also the structures of inequality between men and women which weaken both in their struggle for survival and for betterment. Such work has to include the importance of organizing, of creating allegiances and coalitions, of exerting influence, of communication and public education. In other words, every attempt has to be made to create a political climate in the country enabling welfare to be subverted for equity, and reform for radical restructuring.

The second step (which could be taken simultaneously with the first) is to enlist the creativity of women in imagining the sort of future society that would inspire people to the collective effort of bringing it into being. Not an impossible utopia, but a society which provides the enabling conditions for each person to live a life of dignity in harmony with nature, and supported by a culture which enriches and enhances individual creativity and imagination. A society in which cooperation, altruism and sociability are the central values rather than competitiveness and possessive individualism.

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women[1]

The text which follows was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on 18 December 1979 (130 votes in favor, 0 against; 10 abstentions). The Convention was opened for signature, ratification and accession on 1 March 1980. The precursor to the Convention was the Declaration on Elimination of Discrimination against Women adopted unanimously by the General Assembly on 7 November 1967. For the text see the first edition of the present work, p. 183.

Reference should also be made to the H.O. Convention Concerning Equal Remuneration for Men and Women Workers for Work of Equal Value.

On the standard of non-discrimination in general international law see Brownlie, *Principles of Public International Law* 3rd ed., 1979, pp. 596-8. On sexual equality see Daw, *Malaya Law Review,* Vol. 12 (1970), pp. 308-36; McDougal, Lasswell and Chen, *American Journal of International Law,* Vol. 69 (1975), pp. 497-533.

TEXT

The General Assembly

Considering that one of the purposes of the United Nations, as stated in Articles 1 and 55 of the Charter, is to promote universal respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms without distinction of any kind, including any distinction as to sex,

Recalling the proclamation by the General Assembly, in its resolution 2263 (XXII) of 7 November 1967, of the Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women,

Taking into account the conventions, resolutions, declarations and recommendations of the United Nations and of the specialized agencies designed to eliminate all forms of discrimination and to promote equal rights for men and women,

Noting, in particular, its resolution 33/177 of 20 December 1978 concerning the drafting of a convention on the elimination of discrimination against women,

Considering that discrimination against women is incompatible with human dignity and the welfare of society and constitutes an obstacle to the full realization of the potentialities of women,

Affirming that women and men should participate and contribute on a basis of equality in the social, economic and political processes of development and should share equally in improved conditions of life,

Recognizing that the welfare of the world and the cause of peace require the full participation of both men and women in society,

1 Standard-setting by the United Nations Organization

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Convinced that it is necessary to ensure the universal recognition in law and in fact of the principle of equality of men and women,

1. Adopts and opens for signature, ratification and accession the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, the text of which is annexed to the present resolution;

2. Expresses the hope that the Convention will be signed and ratified or acceded to without delay and will come into force at an early date;

3. Requests the Secretary-General to present the text of the Convention to the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women for its information;

4. Requests the Secretary-General to submit to the General Assembly at its thirty-fifth session a report on the status of the Convention under an item entitled 'Status of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women'.

107th plenary meeting 18 December 1979

ANNEX

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women

The States Parties to the present Convention,

Noting that the Charter of the United Nations reaffirms faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person and in the equal rights of men and women,

Noting that the Universal Declaration of Human Rights affirms the principle of the inadmissibility of discrimination and proclaims that all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights and that everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth therein, without distinction of any kind, including distinction based on sex,

Noting that the States Parties to the International Covenants on Human Rights have the obligation to ensure the equal right of men and women to enjoy all economic, social, cultural, civil and political rights,

Considering the international conventions concluded under the auspices of the United Nations and the specialist agencies promoting equality of rights of men and women,

Concerned, however, that despite these various instruments extensive discrimination against women continues to exist,

Recalling that discrimination against women violates the principles of equality of rights and respect for human dignity, is an obstacle to the participation of women, on equal terms with men, in the political, social, economic and cultural life of their countries, hampers the growth of the prosperity of society and the family and makes more difficult the full development potential of women in the service of their countries and of humanity,

Concerned that in situations of poverty women have the least access to food, health, education, training and opportunities for employment and other needs,

Convinced that the establishment of the new international economic order based on equity and justice will contribute significantly towards the promotion of equality between men and women,

Emphasizing that the eradication of *apartheid,* of all forms of racism, racial discrimination, colonialism, neocolonialism, aggression, foreign occupation and domination and interference in the internal affairs of States is essential to the full enjoyment of the rights of men and women,

Affirming that the strengthening of international peace and security, relaxation of international tension, mutual co-operation among all States irrespective of their social and economic systems, general and complete disarmament and in particular nuclear disarmament under strict and effective international control, the affirmation of the principles of justice, equality and mutual benefit in relations among countries and the realization of the right of peoples under alien and colonial domination and foreign occupation to self-determination and independence, as well as respect for national sovereignty and territorial integrity, will promote social progress and development and as a consequence will contribute to the attainment of full equality between men and women,

Convinced that the full and complete development of a country, the welfare of the world and the cause of peace require the maximum participation of women on equal terms with men in all fields,

Bearing in mind the great contribution of women to the welfare of the family and to the development of society, so far not fully recognized, the social significance of maternity and the role of both parents in the family and in the upbringing of children, and aware that the role of women in procreation should not be a basis for discrimination but that the upbringing of children requires a sharing of responsibility between men and women and society as a whole,

Aware that a change in the traditional role of men as well as the role of women in society and in the family is needed to achieve full equality between men and women,

Determined to implement the principles set forth in the Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women and, for that purpose, to adopt the measures required for the elimination of such discrimination in all its forms and manifestations,

Have agreed on the following:

PART I

Article 1

For the purposes of the present Convention, the term 'discrimination against women' shall mean any distinction, exclusion of restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field.

Article 2

States Parties condemn discrimination against women in all its forms, agree to pursue by all appropriate means and without delay a policy of eliminating discrimination against women and, to this end, undertake;

(a) To embody the principle of the equality of men and women in their national constitutions or other appropriate legislation if not yet incorporated therein and to ensure, through law and other appropriate means, the practical realization of this principle;

(b) To adopt appropriate legislative and other measures, including sanctions where appropriate, prohibiting all discrimination against women;

(c) To establish legal protection of the rights of women on an equal basis with men and to ensure through competent national tribunals and other public institutions the effective protection of women against any act of discrimination;

(d) To refrain from engaging in any act or practice of discrimination against women and to ensure that public authorities and institutions shall act in conformity with this obligation;

(e) To take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to modify or abolish existing laws, regulations, customs and practices which constitute discrimination against women;

(f) To take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to modify or abolish existing laws, regulations, customs and practices which constitute discrimination against women;

(g) To repeal all national penal provisions which constitute discrimination against women.

Article 3

States Parties shall take in all fields, in particular in the political, social, economic and cultural fields, all appropriate measures, including legislation, to ensure the full development and advancement of women, for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms on a basis of equality with men.

Article 4

1. Adoption by States Parties of temporary special measures aimed at accelerating equality between men and women shall not be considered discrimination as defined in the present Convention, but shall in no way entail as a consequence the maintenance of unequal or separate standards; these measures shall be discontinued when the objectives of equality of opportunity and treatment have been achieved.

2. Adoption by States Parties of special measures, including those measures contained in the present Convention, aimed at protecting maternity shall not be considered discriminatory.

Article 5

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures:

(a) To modify the social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women, with a view to achieving the elimination of prejudices and customs and all other practices which are based on the idea of the inferiority or the superiority of either of the sexes or on stereotyped roles for men and women;

(b) To ensure that family education includes a proper understanding of maternity as a social function and the recognition of the common responsibility of men and women in the upbringing and development of their children, it being understood that the interest of the children is the primordial consideration in all cases.

Article 6

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the political and public life of the country and, in particular, shall ensure to women, on equal terms with men, the right:

(a) To vote in all elections and public referenda and to be eligible for election to all publicly elected bodies;

(b) To participate in the formulation of government policy and the implementation thereof and to hold public office and perform all public functions at all levels of government;

(c) To participate in nongovernmental organizations and associations concerned with the public and political life of the country.

Article 7

(unavailable)

Article 8

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to secure to women, on equal terms with men and without any discrimination, the opportunity to represent their Governments at the international level and to participate in the work of international organizations.

Article 9

1. States Parties shall grant women equal rights with men to acquire, change or retain their nationality. They shall ensure in particular that neither marriage to an alien nor change of nationality by the husband during marriage shall automatically change the nationality of the wife, render her stateless or force upon her the nationality of the husband.

2. States Parties shall grant women equal rights with men with respect to the nationality of their children.

PART III

Article 10

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in order to ensure to them equal rights with men in the field of education and in particular to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women:

(a) The same conditions for career and vocational guidance, for access to studies and for the achievement of diplomas in educational establishments of all categories in rural as well as in urban areas; this equality shall be ensured in pre-school, general, technical, professional and higher technical education, as well as in all types of vocational training;

(b) Access to the same curricula, the same examinations, teaching staff with qualifications of the same standard and school premises and equipment of the same equality;

(c) The elimination of any stereotyped concept of the roles of men and women at all levels and in all forms of education by encouraging co-education and other types of education which will help to achieve this aim and, in particular, by the revision of textbooks and school programs and the adaptation of teaching methods;

(d) The same opportunities to benefit from scholarships and other study grants;

(e) The same opportunities for access to programs of continuing education, including adult and functional literacy programs, particularly those aimed at reducing, at the earliest possible time, any gap in education existing between men and women;

The reduction of female student drop-out rates and the organization of programs for girls and women who have left school prematurely;

(f) The same opportunities to participate actively in sports and physical education;

(g) Access to specific educational information to help to ensure the health and well-being of families, including information and advice on family planning.

Article 11

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of employment in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular:

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(a) The right to work as an inalienable right of all human beings;

(b) The right to the same employment opportunities, including the application of the same criteria for selection in matters of employment;

(c) The right for free choice of profession and employment, the right to promotion, job security and all benefits and conditions of service and the right to receive vocational training and retraining, including apprenticeships, advanced vocational training and recurrent training;

(d) The right to equal remuneration, including benefits, and to equal treatment in respect of work of equal value, as well as equality of treatment in the evaluation of the quality of work;

(e) The right to social security, particularly in cases of retirement, unemployment, sickness, invalidity and old age and other incapacity to work, as well as the right to paid leave;

(f) The right to protection of health and to safety in working conditions, including the safeguarding of the function of reproduction.

2. In order to prevent discrimination against women on the grounds of marriage or maternity and to ensure their effective right to work, States Parties shall take appropriate measures:

(a) To prohibit, subject to the imposition of sanctions, dismissal on the grounds of pregnancy or a maternity leave and discrimination in dismissals on the basis of marital status;

(b) To introduce maternity leave with pay or with comparable social benefits without loss of former employment, seniority or social allowances;

(c) To encourage the provision of the necessary supporting social services to enable parents to combine family obligations with work responsibilities and participation in public life, in particular through promoting the establishment and development of a network of child-care facilities;

(d) To provide special protection to women during pregnancy in types of work proved to be harmful to them.

3. Protective legislation relating to matters covered in this article shall be reviewed periodically in the light of scientific and technological knowledge and shall be revised, repealed or extended as necessary.

Article 12

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of health care in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, access to health care services, including those related to family planning.

2. Notwithstanding the provisions of paragraph 1 of this article, States Parties shall ensure to women appropriate services in connection with pregnancy, confinement and the post-natal period, granting free services where necessary, as well as adequate nutrition during pregnancy and lactation.

Article 13

States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in other areas of economic and social life in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular:

(a) The right to family benefits;

(b) The right to bank loans, mortgages and other forms of financial credit;

(c) The right to participate in recreational activities, sports and all aspects of cultural life.

Article 14

1. States Parties shall take into account the particular problems faced by rural women and the significant roles which rural women play in the economic survival of their families, including their work in the non-monetized sectors of the economy, and shall take all appropriate measures to ensure the application of the provisions of this Convention to women in rural areas.

2. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in rural areas in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, that they participate in and benefit from rural development and, in particular, shall ensure to such women the right:

   (a) To participate in the elaboration and implementation of development planning at all levels;

   (b) To have access to adequate health care facilities, including information counseling and services in family planning;

   (c) To benefit directly from social security programs;

   (d) To obtain all types of training and education, formal and non-formal, including that relating to functional literacy, as well as, *inter alia,* the benefit of all community and extension services, in order to increase their technical proficiency;

   (e) To organize self-help groups and co-operatives in order to obtain equal access to economic opportunities through employment or self-employment;

   (f) To participate in all community activities;

   (g) To have access to agricultural credit and loans, marketing facilities, appropriate technology and equal treatment in land and agrarian reform as well as in land resettlement schemes;

   (h) To enjoy adequate living conditions, particularly in relation to housing, sanitation, electricity and water supply, transport and communications.

PART IV

Article 15

1. States Parties shall accord to women equality with men before the law.

2. States Parties shall accord to women, in civil matters, a legal capacity identical to that of men and the same opportunities to exercise that capacity. In particular, they shall give

women equal rights to conclude contracts and to administer property and shall treat them equally in all stages of procedure in courts and tribunals.

3. States Parties agree that all contracts and all other private instruments of any kind with a legal effect which is directed at restricting the legal capacity of women shall be deemed null and void.

4. States Parties shall accord to men and women the same rights with regard to the law relating to the movement of persons and the freedom to choose their residence and domicile.

Article 16

1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in all matters relating to marriage and family relations and in particular shall ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women:

   (a) The same right to enter into marriage;

   (b) The same right freely to choose a spouse and to enter into marriage only with their free and full consent;

   (c) The same rights and responsibilities during marriage and its dissolution;

   (d) The same rights and responsibilities as parents, irrespective of their marital status, in matters relating to their children; in all cases the interests of the children shall be paramount;

   (e) The same rights to decide freely and responsibly on the number and spacing of their children and to have access to the information, education and means to enable them to exercise these rights;

   (f) The same rights and responsibilities with regard to guardianship, wardship, trusteeship and adoption of children, or similar institutions where these concepts exist in national legislation; in all cases the interests of the children shall be paramount;

   (g) The same personal rights as husband and wife, including the right to choose a family name, a profession and an occupation;

   (h) The same rights for both spouses in respect of the ownership, acquisition, management, administration, enjoyment and disposition of property, whether free of charge or for a valuable consideration.

2. The betrothal and marriage of a child shall have no legal effect, and all necessary action, including legislation, shall be taken to specify a minimum age for marriage and to make the registration of marriages in an official registry compulsory.

PART V

Article 17

1. For the purpose of considering the progress made in the implementation of the present Convention, there shall be established a Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (hereinafter referred to as the Committee) consisting, at the time of entry into force of the Convention, of eighteen and, after ratification of or accession to the Convention by the thirty-fifth State Party, of twenty-three experts of high moral standing and competence in the field covered by the Convention. The experts shall be elected by States Parties from among their nationals and shall serve in their personal capacity,

consideration being given to equitable geographical distribution and to the representation of the different forms of civilization as well as the principal legal systems.

2. The members of the Committee shall be elected by secret ballot from a list of persons nominated by States Parties. Each State Party may nominate one person from among its own nationals.

3. The initial election shall be held six months after the date of the entry into force of the present Convention. At least three months before the date of each election the Secretary-General of the United Nations shall address a letter to the States Parties inviting them to submit their nominations within two months. The Secretary-General shall prepare a list in alphabetical order of all persons thus nominated, indicating the States Parties which have nominated them, and shall submit it to the States Parties.

4. Elections of the members of the Committee shall be held at a meeting of States Parties convened by the Secretary-General at United Nations Headquarters. At that meeting, for which two thirds of the States Parties shall constitute a quorum, the persons elected to the Committee shall be those nominees who obtain the largest number of votes and an absolute majority of the votes of the representatives of States Parties present and voting.

5. The members of the Committee shall be elected for a term of four years. However, the terms of nine of the members elected at the first election shall expire at the end of two years; immediately after the first election the names of these nine members shall be chosen by lot by the Chairman of the Committee.

6. The election of the five additional members of the Committee shall be held in accordance with the provisions of paragraphs 2, 3 and 4 of this article, following the thirty-fifth ratification or accession. The terms of two of the additional members elected on this occasion shall expire at the end of two years, the names of these two members having been chosen by lot by the Chairman of the Committee.

7. For the filling of casual vacancies, the State Party whose expert has ceased to function as a member of the Committee shall appoint another expert from among its nationals, subject to the approval of the Committee.

8. The members of the Committee shall, with the approval of the General Assembly, receive emoluments from United Nations resources on such terms and conditions as the Assembly may decide, having regard to the importance of the Committee's responsibilities.

9. The Secretary-General of the United Nations shall provide the necessary staff and facilities for the effective performance of the functions of the Committee under the present Convention.

Article 18

1. States Parties undertake to submit to the Secretary-General of the United Nations, for consideration by the Committee, a report of the legislative, judicial, administrative or other measures which they have adopted to give effect to the provisions of the present Convention and on the progress made in this respect:

   (a) Within one year after the entry into force for the State concerned; and

   (b) Thereafter at least every four years and further whenever the Committee so requests.

2. Reports may indicate factors and difficulties affecting the degree of fulfillment of obligations under the present Convention.

Article 19

1. The Committee shall adopt its own rules of procedure.

2. The Committee shall elect its officers for a term of two years.

Article 20

1. The Committee shall normally meet for a period of not more than two weeks annually in order to consider the reports submitted in accordance with Article 18 of the present Convention.

2. The meetings of the Committee shall normally be held at United Nations Headquarters or at any other convenient place as determined by the Committee.

Article 21

1. The Committee shall, through the Economic and Social Council, report annually to the General Assembly of the United Nations on its activities and may make suggestions and general recommendations based on the examination of reports and information received from the States Parties. Such suggestions and general recommendations shall be included in the report of the Committee together with comments, if any, from States Parties.

2. The Secretary-General shall transmit the reports of the Committee to the Commission on the Status of Women for its information.

Article 22

The specialized agencies shall be entitled to be represented at the consideration of the implementation of such provisions of the present Convention as fall within the scope of their activities. The Committee may invite the specialized agencies to submit reports on the implementation of the Convention in areas falling within the scope of their activities.

PART VI

Article 23

Nothing in this Convention shall affect any provisions that are more conducive to the achievement of equality between men and women which may be contained:

(a) In the legislation of a State Party; or

(b) In any other international convention, treaty or agreement in force for that State.

Article 24

States Parties undertake to adopt all necessary measures at the national level aimed at achieving the full realization of the rights recognized in the present Convention.

Article 25

1. The present Convention shall be open for signature by all States.

2. The Secretary-General of the United Nations is designated as the depositary of the present Convention.

3. The present Convention is subject to ratification. Instruments of ratification shall be deposited as an instrument with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

4. The present Convention shall be open to accession by all States. Accession shall be effected by the deposit of an instrument of accession with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

Article 26

1. A request for the revision of the present Convention may be made at any time by any State Party by means of a notification in writing addressed to the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

2. The General Assembly of the United Nations shall decide upon the steps, if any, to be taken in respect of such a request.

Article 27

1. The present Convention shall enter into force on the thirtieth day after the date of deposit with the Secretary-General of the United Nations of the twentieth instrument of ratification or accession.

2. For each State ratifying the present Convention or acceding to it after the deposit of the twentieth instrument of ratification or accession, the Convention shall enter into force on the thirtieth day after the date of the deposit of its own instrument of ratification or accession.

Article 28

1. The Secretary-General of the United Nations shall receive and circulate to all States the text of reservations made by States at the time of ratification or accession.

2. A reservation incompatible with the object and purpose of the present Convention shall not be permitted.

3. Reservations may be withdrawn at any time by notification to this effect addressed to the Secretary-General of the United Nations, who shall then inform all States thereof. Such notification shall take effect on date on which it is received.

Article 29

1. Any dispute between two or more States Parties concerning the interpretation or application of the present Convention which is not settled by negotiation shall, at the request of one of them, be submitted to arbitration. If within six months from the date of the request for arbitration the parties are unable to agree on the organization of the arbitration, any one of those parties may refer the dispute to the International Court of Justice, in conformity with the Statute of the Court.

2. Each State Party may at the time of signature or ratification of this Convention or accession thereto declare that it does not consider itself bound by paragraph 1 of this article. The other States Parties shall not be bound by that paragraph with respect to any State Party which has made such a reservation.

3. Any State Party which has made a reservation in accordance with paragraph 2 of this article may at any time withdraw that reservation by notification to the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

Article 30

The present Convention, the Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish texts of which are equally authentic, shall be deposited with the Secretary-General of the United Nations.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF the undersigned, duly authorized, have signed the present Convention.

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Let's *Not* Forget about the Men[1]

For more than two decades, the women's movement and international organizations have worked to remove attitudinal and other barriers that have prevented women from fully taking part in the decisions that affect their lives. The global results of these important efforts have usually been very positive for women and men alike. But in their zeal to liberate and empower, advocates of some "women in development" programs have reinforced gender discrimination by excluding men from their efforts. Solutions to problems relating to female poverty, unwanted pregnancy, and domestic violence, for example, have focused on women exclusively, in the assumption that men are unaware, indifferent, or unwilling to help.

Happily, the slogan of "women in development" is giving way to the broader concept of "gender in development." It is a perspective that takes into account the socially defined roles of both women and men. Through the lens of gender, women are viewed not as a separate group needing special attention, but as members of societies, in which men and women are intrinsically bound. Instead of reinforcing discrimination against women, gender-sensitive planners have developed strategies in which both women and men work toward shared goals: in part separately and in part together — much as they function in daily life.

More and more women, as well as men, have come to support this view. We argue that men, at least a significant number of men in every community, are willing to support — rather than inhibit — women's empowerment. This idea was reflected in a recent statement published by the Commission on the Status of Women of the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations. Drafted by 18 international women's health advocacy groups, it noted that "improving the status of women is not a woman's issue, it is a human issue. It is time, therefore, to call men to action in this area."

No one argues that gender differences should be ignored. Development planners recognize the urgency of looking at the distinct needs — and strengths — of women. Studies revealing gender gaps in health, education, training, workloads and earnings are necessary first steps in finding remedies.

We also know that many programs which seek to bring women into the mainstream are most effective if, in the early stages, they build on the strengths of women as a separate group.

Once strong associations of women are formed, they appear to be able to include men without being dominated by them. In Bolivia, for example, mothers' clubs promoting small enterprises proved so successful that men sought to participate in them under women's control. Peruvian men have enthusiastically supported 800 community kitchens run by 16,000 women and men.

Similarly, in India, the management of women dairy cooperatives in Andra Pradesh and Bihar was recognized as more effective and more honest than that of male-run cooperatives; in time, many male dairy farmers preferred to sell milk to women than to their male counterparts. The explosive proliferation of grassroots women's organizations in rural Brazil, Kenya, and Bangladesh is well known.

1 Nick Danforth. 1995. *Choices: Human Development Magazine*. 1995. UNDP, p33-34.

In countless development programs women have successfully taken the lead and men have found it in their interest to follow. More often than not, the results of women's educational and economic empowerment, whether they be improved health and nutrition or higher incomes, benefit families and the community as a whole.

DAY TWO

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

DAY TWO — Overview

Objectives

By the end of the day the participants will be able to do the following:

1. Identify the different policy approaches for incorporating gender into research and development-related activities.
2. Understand the significance of policy for achieving gender awareness in research management and for acting on this awareness.
3. Recognize the benefits of policy that takes gender issues into account.
4. Broadly define the term "institutionalization of gender awareness."
5. Identify some approaches for institutionalizing gender awareness and addressing gender-related problems in agricultural and natural resource research management organizations.
6. List some of the specific benefits of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management.

Handouts

2.3.1 Overview
2.3.2 Tentative Schedule
2.3.3 Approaches to Gender Policy (summary of presentation)
2.3.4 Fourth World Conference on Women (FWCW) Platform for Action (text)
2.3.5 Africa Regional Preparatory Conference for Beijing. Technical workshop on Women, Agriculture and Rural Development. (text)
2.3.6 Exercise 3. Gender Policy Approaches: Comparative Country Initiatives
2.3.7 Exercise 3. Worksheet
2.3.8 Factsheet: Zimbabwe
2.3.9 Factsheet: Tanzania
2.3.10 Factsheet: Namibia
2.4.1 Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research (Part I) (summary of presentation)
2.4.2 Institutionalization of Strategic Planning (text)
2.4.3 The Meaning of Mainstreaming (text)
2.4.4 Exercise 4. Organizational Structure and Gender Issues in the NARS
2.4.5 Exercise 4. Worksheet
2.4.6 Sexist Management — A Dying Style? (text)
2.4.7 Gender and Administration (text)
2.4.8 The Combined Strategy: The Case of the Swedish International Development Agency (text)
2.4.9 Strengths and Weaknesses of Day Two
2.4.10 Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop
2.4.11 PAPA Form — First Stage

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Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

DAY TWO — Tentative Schedule

08:30 – 09:00	**Opening of the Day's Activities**
09:00 – 10:30	**Session 3. Approaches to Gender Policy** (Presentation and exercise 3)
10:30 – 10:45	Tea/Coffee Break
10:45 – 13:00	**Session 3. (Continued)**
	13:00 – 14:00 Lunch
14:00 – 15:30	**Session 4. Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations: Part I** (Presentation and exercise 4)
15:30 – 15:45	Tea/Coffee Break
15:45 – 16:30	**Session 4. (Continued)**
16:30 – 17:00	**Feedback on the Day's Activities and PAPA**

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Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

DAY TWO — Checklist for Trainers

Handouts

		Yes ✓	No ✓
2.3.1	Overview	❐	❐
2.3.2	Tentative Schedule	❐	❐
2.3.3	Approaches to Gender Policy (summary of presentation)	❐	❐
2.3.4	Fourth World Conference on Women (FWCW) Platform for Action (text)	❐	❐
2.3.5	Africa Regional Preparatory Conference for Beijing. Technical workshop on Women, Agriculture and Rural Development.	❐	❐
2.3.6	Exercise 3. Gender Policy Approaches: Comparative Country Initiatives	❐	❐
2.3.7	Exercise 3. Worksheet	❐	❐
2.3.8	Factsheet: Zimbabwe	❐	❐
2.3.9	Factsheet: Tanzania	❐	❐
2.3.10	Factsheet: Namibia	❐	❐
2.4.1	Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research (Part I) (summary of presentation)	❐	❐
2.4.2	Institutionalization of Strategic Planning (text)	❐	❐
2.4.3	The Meaning of Mainstreaming (text)	❐	❐
2.4.4	Exercise 4. Organizational Structure and Gender Issues in the NARS	❐	❐
2.4.5	Exercise 4. Worksheet	❐	❐
2.4.6	Sexist Management — A Dying Style? (text)	❐	❐
2.4.7	Gender and Administration (text)	❐	❐
2.4.8	The Combined Strategy: The Case of the Swedish International Development Agency (text)	❐	❐
2.4.9	Strengths and Weaknesses of Day Two	❐	❐
2.4.10	Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop	❐	❐
2.4.11	PAPA Form — First Stage	❐	❐

Overheads

2.3.1	Objectives of Day Two	❐	❐
2.3.2	Schedule of Day Two	❐	❐
2.3.3	Objectives of Session 3.	❐	❐
2.3.4	Policy	❐	❐
2.3.5	Reactive/Proactive Role	❐	❐
2.3.6	Two Types of Policy	❐	❐

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		Yes ✓	No ✓
2.3.7	Welfare Approach	❐	❐
2.3.8	Equity Approach	❐	❐
2.3.9	Anti-Poverty Approach	❐	❐
2.3.10	Efficiency Approach	❐	❐
2.3.11	Empowerment Approach	❐	❐
2.4.1	Objectives of Session 4.	❐	❐
2.4.2	Definition of Institutionalization	❐	❐
2.4.3	Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research	❐	❐
2.4.4	Checklist for Institutionalizing Gender Awareness	❐	❐
2.4.5	Principles of Operational Structures and Interventions	❐	❐
2.4.6	Principles of Organizational Structure and Approaches	❐	❐
2.4.7	Wanted	❐	❐
2.4.8	Advising and Reporting Mechanisms for Gender-Related Research and Management	❐	❐
2.4.9	Comparison of Approaches for Institutionalizing Gender Awareness	❐	❐
2.4.10	The Change Process	❐	❐

Materials

● Cards	❐	❐
● Overhead projector	❐	❐
● Projector screen	❐	❐
● Flipchart stands (minimum 2)	❐	❐
● Flipchart paper/pads (about 10 per day)	❐	❐
● Markers for writing on newsprint	❐	❐
● Markers for writing on transparencies	❐	❐
● Blank transparencies	❐	❐
● Stapler	❐	❐
● Tape (strong masking tape and regular tape)	❐	❐
● Push pins	❐	❐
● Glue	❐	❐
● Pencils/notepads/pens	❐	❐
● Pencil sharpeners	❐	❐
● Extension cords	❐	❐
● Certificates	❐	❐
● Photocopying facilities	❐	❐
● Spare bulbs for overhead projector	❐	❐
● Extra notepads and pens	❐	❐
● Scissors	❐	❐

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DAY TWO

Session 3
Approaches to Gender Policy

Instructions to Trainers

PRE-SESSION

08:30 – 09:00 Opening of the Day's Activities

- Review of the previous day's activities.
- Summary of the evaluation of the previous day.
- Overview of today's activities.

OBJECTIVE

By the end of this pre-session, the participants will be able to do the following:

- Summarize the objectives and agenda for the day's activities.

OPENING

Distribute the overview and schedule for day two (handouts 2.3.1 and 2.3.2). Review the objectives and schedule, using overheads 2.3.1 and 2.3.2. Ask if clarifications are needed. Each morning will begin with a review of the day's activities. (10 minutes)

In day one of the workshop we were able to do the following:

- Learn more about each other's backgrounds and work.
- Understand the goals and objectives of the workshop.
- Identify the key concepts and arguments for incorporating gender into agricultural and natural resource research management.

SESSION 3

09:00 – 10:30 Session 3. Exercise 3

10:30 – 10:45 Tea/Coffee Break

10:45 – 13:00 Session 3. (Continued)

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this morning session, the participants will be able to do the following:

- Identify the different policy approaches for incorporating gender into research and development-related activities.
- Understand the significance of policy for achieving gender awareness in research management and for acting on this awareness.
- Recognize the benefits of policy that takes gender issues into account.

Use overhead 2.3.3 to present the objectives.

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PROCEDURE

Training techniques: presentation, group work, group presentations.

RATIONALE

Research leaders play an influential role in planning and implementing programs and projects but they do not set overall goals and policy. Policy is the domain of ministries of agriculture or planning bodies that formulate longer term development strategies.

Yet, researchers have a **proactive role** related to gender and development policy because they produce results which may one day influence policymakers. They also have a **reactive role** with regards to gender and development policy. In effect, it is research managers who determine **policy implementation.**

This session introduces and discusses the significance and influence of policy for incorporating gender awareness into research management. It examines different historical approaches to gender and development policy. To contextualize the discussion of policy, the workshop participants work in groups of three to interpret their country's and institution's gender policy and its impact on their work.

PRESENTATION

Give a presentation focusing on the policy approaches to gender issues emerging in research and development work. The information is outlined in handout 2.3.3. Overheads 2.3.4 through 2.3.11 support the presentation. After the presentation ask the participants if they have any questions or if they need clarifications. Distribute handout 2.3.3. (60 minutes)

EXERCISE 3

Exercise 3. Gender policy approaches: comparative country initiatives. (2 hours 45 minutes)

1. Distribute handouts 2.3.4, 2.3.5 and 2.3.6. Handout 2.3.5 gives clear instructions for the exercise. Go over the instructions with the participants step by step. Ask if clarifications are needed. (5 minutes)

2. Remember this exercise gives the participants the opportunity to contextualize the issue of gender policy in the cases of three SADC countries: Zimbabwe, Tanzania and Namibia. You should familiarize yourself with each of the three case studies. Resource material is provided.

10:30 – 10:45 Tea/Coffee Break

Phase 1. Group work

3. Ask the participants to form three groups, each group electing a rapporteur. One case study should be assigned to each group. Individuals from the same coun-

try should try to work together, and participants from Zimbabwe, Tanzania, or Namibia should join one of the groups addressing their country and serve as a resource person.

4. Distribute handouts 2.3.7, 2.3.8, and 2.3.9 to the participants.
5. Ask the groups to read the case study assigned to them and the Platform for Action from the Beijing Fourth Conference on Women (handout 2.3.4). (20 minutes)
6. *(experience)* The participants share their opinions on gender-based policy needs in agricultural and natural resource research. Circulate among the groups to check progress. Clarify any concerns they may have while they are working. (30 minutes)
7. The groups summarize the discussion for the rapporteur, who writes the results on a flipchart. (10 minutes)

Phase 2. Reporting and discussion (1 hour 40 minutes)

8. *(process)* Invite the rapporteurs to make a detailed report on their group's results. Each rapporteur has 20 minutes to present. (60 minutes)
9. *(process, generalize)* Discuss the results. Invite the participants to provide feedback on this exercise. (35 minutes)

REFERENCE

Moser, C. 1993. Gender Planning and Development Theory, Practice and Training. (To order, contact Routledge Publishers, 11 New Fetter, London, EC4P 4EE.)

CLOSURE

Closure (5 minutes)

1. *(application)* Ask the participants what they might do differently as a result of what they have learned.
2. Make a transition to the afternoon session.

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DAY TWO

Session 3
Summary of Overheads

Objectives of Day Two

1. Identify policy approaches for incorporating gender into research and development
2. Understand the significance of policy for achieving gender awareness in research management and acting on this awareness
3. Recognize benefits of policy which takes gender issues into account
4. Define the term "institutionalization of gender concerns"
5. Identify approaches to institutionalizing gender concerns and addressing gender-related problems
6. List specific benefits of institutionalizing gender concerns in research management

2.3.1

Schedule of Day Two

08:30 – 09:00	Opening of the Day's Activities
09:00 – 10:30	Session 3. Approaches to Gender Policy
Tea/Coffee Break	
10:45 – 13:00	Session 3. (Continued)
Lunch	
14:00 – 15:30	Session 4. Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations (Part I)
Tea/Coffee Break	
15:45 – 16:30	Session 4.(Continued)
16:30 – 17:00	Feedback on the Day's Activities and PAPA

2.3.2

Objectives
Session 3. Approaches to Gender Policy

1. Identify different policy approaches for incorporating gender into research and development-related activities
2. Understand the significance of policy for achieving gender awareness in research management and acting on this awareness
3. Recognize the benefits of policy which takes gender issues into account

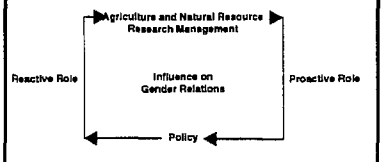
2.3.3

Policy

- a definite course or method of action, selected among alternatives and in light of given conditions, to guide and determine present and future decisions
- a high-level, overall plan embracing goals and procedures for a governmental body

2.3.4

Reactive/Proactive Role



2.3.5

Two Types of Policy

related to gender issues in research management

— NARS recognize, generate, and implement gender policy within their programs and project work

— NARS recognize and implement gender policy in their institutional structure and organization

2.3.6

Welfare Approach

Policy Approach	Objectives	Applications	Assumptions
1950–70 but still used	bring women into the development process mainly as better mothers and homemakers	social welfare projects focus on food aid, nutrition as improved cooking skills and family planning projects	1) women perceived as *cause* of under-development 2) only a passive role for women in agriculture and natural resource research and development 3) no link between women or gender and strategic nutrition and health issues

2.3.7

Equity Approach

Policy Approach	Objectives	Applications	Assumptions
1975–85 strongest during first women's conference	gain equity for women in the development process promote women as active participants in development address women's subordination within the development process	originally promoted by the beginning of UN Women's Decade and the Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies	1) recognition of women's triple role: in household, economy and community 2) recognition that women have basic but also strategic needs 3) agricultural and natural resource research begins to recognize women's triple role and multiple needs in development 4) women perceived as victims of development

2.3.8

Anti-Poverty Approach

Policy Approach	Objectives	Applications	Assumptions
1970s onwards	increase productivity of poor women alleviate women's poverty by increasing their productivity	WID projects change focus to small-scale women's income-generating projects; handicraft projects become typical "women's projects"	1) women's economic marginalization or vulnerability perceived to be most important 2) agricultural research and development begin to concentrate on income-generating activities for women but does not address their strategic needs

2.3.9

Efficiency Approach

Policy Approach	Objectives	Applications	Assumptions
1980s onwards	alleviate women's poverty by increasing their efficiency in research and development increase women's participation in research and development	WID projects focus on sectoral-based projects e.g. "women and forestry," etc. projects still heavily focus on meeting women's basic needs some projects begin to adopt the "gender perspective" rather than only talking about "women"	1) women recognized as productive in agriculture and natural resource management 2) women perceived as *solution* to development; their time seen as elastic 3) gender relations as power relations still not addressed 4) mainstreaming women's or gender issues into development to use resources more efficiently

2.3.10

Empowerment Approach

Policy Approach	Objectives	Applications	Assumptions
late 1980s onwards	empower women through greater rights to self-determination women's subordination seen as a result of oppression by men but also by a system that oppresses both men and women	gender and development (GAD) focuses on basic and strategic needs and does not separate them	1) recognition that focus on women's roles is important, but their relationship to the overall political and economic system is critical 2) focus on women as agents of development; importance of women's collective agency 3) need for re-thinking research and development

2.3.11

BEST AVAILABLE COPY

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Handout—Overview of Day Two

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

Objectives

By the end of the day the participants will be able to do the following:

1. Identify the different policy approaches for incorporating gender into research and development-related activities.
2. Understand the significance of policy for achieving gender awareness in research management and for acting on this awareness.
3. Recognize the benefits of policy that takes gender issues into account.
4. Broadly define the term "institutionalization of gender awareness."
5. Identify some approaches for institutionalizing gender awareness and addressing gender-related problems in agricultural and natural resource research management organizations.
6. List some of the specific benefits of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management.

Handouts

2.3.1 Overview
2.3.2 Tentative Schedule
2.3.3 Approaches to Gender Policy (summary of presentation)
2.3.4 Fourth World Conference on Women (FWCW) Platform for Action (text)
2.3.5 Africa Regional Preparatory Conference for Beijing. Technical Workshop on Women, Agriculture and Rural Development (text).
2.3.6 Exercise 3. Gender Policy Approaches: Comparative Country Initiatives
2.3.7 Exercise 3. Worksheet
2.3.8 Factsheet: Zimbabwe
2.3.9 Factsheet: Tanzania
2.3.10 Factsheet: Namibia
2.4.1 Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research (Part I) (summary of presentation)
2.4.2 Institutionalization of Strategic Planning (text)
2.4.3 The Meaning of Mainstreaming (text)
2.4.4 Exercise 4. Organizational Structure and Gender Issues in the NARS
2.4.5 Exercise 4. Worksheet
2.4.6 Sexist Management — A Dying Style? (text)
2.4.7 Gender and Administration (text)
2.4.8 The Combined Strategy: The Case of the Swedish International Development Agency (text)
2.4.9 Strengths and Weaknesses of Day Two
2.4.10 Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop

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2.4.11 PAPA Form — First Stage

Handout — Tentative Schedule of Day Two

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

08:30 – 09:00	**Opening of the Day's Activities**
09:00 – 10:30	**Session 3. Approaches to Gender Policy** (Presentation and exercise 3)
10:30 – 10:45	Tea/Coffee Break
10:45 – 13:00	**Session 3. (Continued)**
	13:00 – 14:00 Lunch
14:00 – 15:30	**Session 4. Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations: Part I** (Presentation and exercise 4)
15:30 – 15:45	Tea/Coffee Break
15:45 – 16:30	**Session 4. (Continued)**
16:30 – 17:00	**Feedback on the Day's Activities and PAPA**

Approaches to Gender Policy (summary of presentation)

1. Consider the definition of policy, why is it a significant starting point for this workshop? *Policy* refers to:

   - a definite course or method of action, selected among alternatives and in light of given conditions, to guide and determine present and future decisions;
   - a high-level, overall plan embracing the general goals and acceptable structures and procedures of an organization such as a governmental body.

2. Research and development in most countries is organized and structured according to a specific *policy* or *course of action*. Usually policy emerges from a specific set of political, social and economic circumstances in a country. It is designed to respond to specified problems with clear objectives for action and an approach for addressing these objectives. Groups of countries, such as SADC or the United Nations also make and influence specific national policies. [*Can anyone name the recent international policy which has influenced national policy related to gender issues in agricultural and natural resource research? (answer: the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action; participants can be referred to the reading in this session)*]

3. All countries in southern Africa have a national development policy or plan. Most of these plans address gender and development issues in the respective countries. [*The trainer can ask: How many of your countries specifically address gender and development issues in the national development plans?*] Policies such as national development plans require government agencies to implement national policy. This means that agricultural and natural resource researchers and managers have a ***reactive role*** with regards to gender and development policy. However, researchers also have a ***proactive role*** in gender and development policy because it is their work that may one day influence policymakers.

4. There are **two general types of policy** related to gender issues that have an impact on the activities and outputs of research management:

   - the extent to which NARS recognize, generate, and implement gender policy within their programs and project work
   - the extent to which NARS recognize, initiate, and implement gender policy in their institutional structure and organization.

   Today we are going to look at national development policy approaches that influence the technical content of NARS activities. Later we will look specifically at gender issues and policy within the organizational structure of agricultural research institutions and organizations.

5. Let us examine some types of policies used in the past and the present, to address issues related to gender issues in agricultural and natural resource research management.

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6. After the break, there will be an activity which will allow you to become more familiar with these policy approaches and to analyze how your country has responded to them. You will also determine whether or not some policy approaches or elements of them are more relevant than others.

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POLICY APPROACH	OBJECTIVES	APPLICATIONS	ASSUMPTIONS
WELFARE 1950-70, but still used	to bring women into the development process mainly as better mothers and homemakers	social welfare projects focus on food aid, nutrition as improved cooking skills and family planning projects	• women perceived as cause of underdevelopment • only a passive role for women in agricultural and natural resource research and development • no link between women or gender and strategic nutrition and health issues such as food security, etc.
EQUITY 1975-85; strongest during first women's conference	• to gain equity for women in the development process • to promote women as active participants in development • to address women's subordination within development processes	original "women in development" (WID) promoted by the beginning of the UN Women's Decade and the Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies	• recognition of women's triple role in development: in the household, economy and community • recognition that women have basic needs but also strategic needs • agricultural and natural resource research begins to recognize women's triple role and multiple needs in development • women perceived as victims of development
ANTI-POVERTY 1970s onwards	• to increase the productivity of poor women • to alleviate women's poverty by increasing their productivity	WID projects change their focus to small-scale, women's income-generating projects; handicraft projects become the typical "women's project"	• women's economic marginalization or vulnerability perceived to be most important • agricultural research and development begins to concentrate on income-generating activities for women but does not address their strategic needs
EFFICIENCY 1980s onwards	• to alleviate women's poverty by increasing their efficiency in research and development activities • to increase women's participation in research and development	• WID projects focus on sectoral-based projects such as "women and forestry" "women and fisheries, " etc. • projects still heavily focused on meeting women's basic needs • some projects begin to adopt the gender perspective rather than only talking about women	• women recongized as productive in agriculture and natural resource management • women perceived as solution to development; their time seen as elastic • gender relations as power relations still not addressed • "mainstreaming" women's or gender issues into development to use project resources more efficiently
EMPOWERMENT late 1980s onwards	• to empower women through greater rights to self-determination • subordination as a result of oppression by men but, also, by a system that oppresses men and, more so, women	gender and development (GAD) focuses on basic and strategic needs and often does not separate them	• recognition that while a focus on women's roles is important, their relations with men and the overall political and economic system are critical • women as agents of development; their collective agency is also important • need for re-thinking research and development

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Fourth World Conference on Women (FWCW) Platform for Action

The Fourth World Conference on Women (FWCW) which took place in Beijing, China from 4-15 September 1995 was truly a United Nations world event. It was attended by thousands of women and men from all parts of the world and from different sectors — government, the UN system — non-governmental organizations (NGO's), other organizations of civil society, and the media. It was held in the most populous country on earth. But it was not global purely because of its size: the interaction among its various constituencies was unprecedented for an international event.

The conference was attended by 16,904 participants, which included representatives of 189 member states, 4,035 NGO representatives, and 3,245 professionals from the media. With the parallel NGO Forum, some 50,000 people took part in the events, making this the largest UN gathering in history.

The Beijing meeting was the sixth in a series of recent major UN conferences addressing the world's most pressing economic and social issues. The run of conferences began in 1990 with the World Summit for Children, followed by the UN Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in June 1992, the World Conference on Human Rights in June 1993, the Global Conference on the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States in April-May 1994, the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) in September 1994, and the World Summit for Social Development (WSSD) in March 1995.

The first in the series of women's conferences was held in 1975 in Mexico City, the second in 1980 in Copenhagen, and the third in 1985 in Nairobi. These conferences put women's issues firmly and irrevocably on the public international agenda.

The Platform for Action is a long and detailed document composed of a mission statement, the global framework on the current situation facing women around the world, the 11 critical areas of concern mentioned later, and the strategic objectives and actions. It also contains a chapter on institutional arrangements, outlining measures governments can take at the national, regional and international levels to generate the resources required for the platform's implementation.

The Platform for Action is considered to be the most comprehensive consensus statement on women ever made by the world's governments and its adoption a major step toward the achievement of gender equality.

The Platform for Action calls on governments, the UN system, the Bretton Woods Institutions, NGOs, the media and the private sector to take immediate action and to be accountable for meeting the targets set out in the platform before the year 2000. It contains recommended actions for national, regional, subregional and international levels. But it also makes clear that existing mechanisms and financial resources for the advancement of women at all these levels are insufficient. All sectors — including the UN system — would have to invest in additional resources for these tasks.

At the national level, recommendations for action include commitment by governments to establish implementation frameworks for the conference, preferably by the end of 1996; to enhance the role and effectiveness of national mechanisms and institutions for the advancement

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of women; and to promote public awareness of the Platform for Action. It also recommends greater involvement of NGOs in the design of policies and measures to eliminate gender inequality, a gender balance in government-appointed bodies, and the improved collection and analysis of sex-segregated data.

At the subregional or regional level, UN regional commissions should promote and assist national institutions in monitoring and implementing conference follow-up according to their mandate; cooperate closely with the Committee for the Status of Women (CSW) and Economic and Social Commission (ECOSOC) to review the institutional capacities of the UN regional commissions to deal with gender issues and with the regional plans of actions; and provide support for NGOs to coordinate advocacy and dissemination of information about the Platform for Action, and the respective regional plans of action.

At the international level, the United Nations has a system-wide commitment for the implementation of the Platform for Action; for the integration and mainstreaming of gender issues in policies, programming, planning and budgeting, for improved coordination of activities between different organizations and entities; for enhanced support for gender focal points and units; for the establishment of a post of Secretary-General's adviser on gender issues to help ensure the system-wide implementation of the platform; for the review and strengthening of the mandate of the CSW; for ensuring sufficient human and financial resources through the reallocation of resources within the UN's regular budget; and for ensuring a more effective functioning of the UN Division for the Advancement of Women by providing sufficient human and financial resources for it.

Strategic Objectives from the Platform of Action

Women and poverty

- Review, adopt and maintain macroeconomic policies and development strategies that address the needs and efforts of women in poverty;
- Revise laws and administrative practices to ensure women's equal rights and access to economic resources;
- Provide women with access to savings and credit mechanisms and institutions;
- Develop gender-based methodologies and conduct research to address the feminization of poverty.

Education and training of women

- Ensure equal access to education;
- Eradicate illiteracy among women;
- Improve women's access to vocational training, science and technology, and continuing education;
- Develop non-discriminatory education and training;
- Allocate sufficient resources for and monitor the implementation of educational reforms;
- Promote lifelong education and training for girls and women.

Women and health

- Increase women's access throughout the life cycle to appropriate affordable and quality health care, information and related services;
- Strengthen preventive programs that promote women's health;
- Undertake gender-sensitive initiatives that address sexually transmitted diseases, HIV/AIDS, and sexual and reproductive health issues;
- Promote research and disseminate information on women's health;
- Increase resources and monitor follow-up for women's health.

Violence against women

- Take integrated measures to prevent and eliminate violence against women;
- Study the causes and consequences of violence against women and the effectiveness of preventive measures;
- Eliminate trafficking in women and assist victims of violence due to prostitution and trafficking.

Women and armed conflict

- Increase the participation of women in conflict resolution at decision making levels and protect women living in situations of armed conflicts or under foreign occupation;
- Reduce excessive military expenditures and control the availability of armaments;Promote non-violent forms of conflict resolution and reduce the incidence of human rights abuse in conflict situations;
- Promote women's contribution to fostering a culture of peace;

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- Provide protection, assistance, and training to refugee women in need of international protection and internally displaced women;
- Provide assistance to the women of colonies and non-self-governing territories.

Women and the economy

- Promote women's economic rights and independence, including access to employment and appropriate working conditions and control over economic resources;
- Facilitate women's equal access to resources, employment, markets and trade;
- Provide business services, training and access to markets, information, and technology, particularly to low-income women;
- Strengthen women's economic capacity and commercial networks;
- Eliminate occupational and all forms of employment discrimination;
- Promote harmonization of work and family responsibilities for women and men.

Women in power and decisionmaking

- Take measures to ensure women's equal access to and full participation in power structures and decisionmaking;
- Increase women's capacity to participate in decisionmaking and leadership;

Institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women

- Create or strengthen national machineries and other governmental bodies;
- Integrate gender perspectives in legislation, public policies, programs and projects;
- Generate and disseminate gender-disaggregated data and information for planning and evaluation.

Human rights of women

- Promote and protect the human rights of women, through the full implementation of all human rights instruments, especially the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women;
- Ensure equality and non-discrimination under the law and in practice;
- Achieve legal literacy.

Women and the media

- Increase the participation and access of women to expression and decision making in and through the media and new technologies of communication;
- Promote a balanced and non-stereotyped portrayal of women in the media.

Women and the environment

- Involve women actively in environmental decisionmaking at all levels;
- Integrate gender concerns and perspectives in policies and programs for sustainable development;
- Strengthen or establish mechanisms at the national, regional and international levels to assess the impact of development and environmental policies on women.

The girl child

- Eliminate all forms of discrimination against the girl child;
- Eliminate negative cultural attitudes and practices against girls;
- Promote and protect the rights of the girl child and increase awareness of her needs and potential;

- Eliminate discrimination against girls in education, skills development, and training;
- Eliminate discrimination against girls in health and nutrition;
- Eliminate the economic exploitation of child labor and protect young girls at work;
- Eradicate violence against the girl child;
- Promote the girl child's awareness of and participation in social, economic, and political life;
- Strengthen the role of the family in improving status of the girl child.

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Africa Regional Preparatory Conference For Beijing

Technical Workshop on Women, Agriculture and Rural Development 15 November 1994, Dakar, Senegal

The technical workshop on women in agriculture and rural development examined the crucial issues that rural women continue to confront in their roles as producers and providers of food. The following recommendations came out of the workshop as a means to overcome these obstacles and are divided into the four spheres of action identified in the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies.

Civil Status Sphere

- Make existing legislation operational or, if necessary, take new initiatives and measures to accelerate and facilitate rural women's access to production factors.
- Organize legal awareness programs for rural girls and women to promote all initiatives aimed at strengthening women's awareness and knowledge of their rights.
- Promote financial regulation and legislation favorable for the development of small and medium-sized enterprises for the processing of agricultural produce and other income-generating activities.

Social Sphere

- Create a database to document the time allocations of rural women to allow for the development of time-saving mechanisms, technology, or support structures.
- Promote attitudinal changes to allow for a more equal sharing of "reproductive tasks,"
- Develop appropriate population education programs for both women and men.
- Review agricultural extension services and research to focus more on issues of concern to rural women.
- Rectify or cushion the effects of Economic Structural Adjustment Programs to reduce their negative effects on the socioeconomic and educational situation of rural women.

Economic Sphere

- Reinforce agricultural statistics in order to document women's contribution to agriculture in the formal and informal sectors.
- Use gender-analysis approach in all research activities.
- Provide the training of female extensionists to assist rural women in productive activities.
- Create awareness among decision makers of the need to create and reinforce WID units in the Ministries of Agriculture as well as in other technical ministries working with rural populations.

Decisionmaking

- Provide a favorable environment for the improvement of the situation of rural women through the mobilization of local savings and development of financial structures, and the promotion of professional and representative NGOs.

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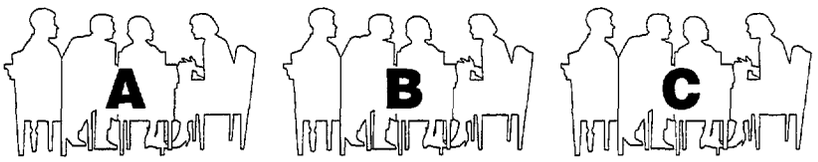
- Promote more women decision makers in the planning and financing of rural development programs and projects.
- Facilitate women's access to land in countries where women are not entitled to land ownership.
- Increase the political will to support programs to improve the situation of rural women.
- Develop a solid conceptual framework for the formulation of a precise development policy for rural women, including the qualified human resources.
- Train rural women to take charge of the problems the confront by promoting participatory approaches to support local initiatives and structuring women's organizations in rural areas.

Exercise 3. Gender policy approaches: comparative country initiatives

Phase 1. Group work (60 minutes)

1. Form three groups, each electing a rapporteur.



2. Each group discusses one case study of policy on women and gender issues in the following countries: Zimbabwe, Tanzania, and Namibia. If there are participants in the workshop from these countries they should join the group addressing their country and serve as a resource person.

   Group A works on the Zimbabwe case study, group B on the Tanzania case study, and group C on the Namibia case study.

3. Read the text assigned to your group. (10 minutes)

4. Also read the Platform for Action from the Beijing Fourth Conference on Women. (10 minutes)

5. Share your experience in policy relevant to gender issues in research and development. Use the following questions to facilitate your interaction. (30 minutes)

   Answer the questions on the worksheet provided (handout 2.3.6.)

   A. What are the key national policy issues related to gender and agricultural and natural resource research in this country?

   B. What policy prescriptions have been made for each issue?

   C. How might the policy from the Fourth UN Conference on Women be applied?

   D. Do you think these policies are achievable? Over what time period? How might they be achieved?

   E. How do you classify the various policies? Do they follow a welfare, equity, anti-poverty, efficiency or empowerment approach?

6. Summarize your discussion for the rapporteur. (10 minutes)

Phase 2. Reporting and discussion (1 hour 40 minutes)

7. The rapporteurs write up the summaries of the discussion and present them in detail to the audience. Each rapporteur has approximately 20 minutes to present.

8. The trainer will discuss the results of the presentations and will ask you to provide feedback on the discussion.

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Exercise 3. Worksheet

What are the key national policy issues related to gender and agriculture and natural resource research in this country?

What policy prescriptions have been made for each issue?

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Do you think these policies are achievable? Over what time period? How might they be achieved?

How might the policy of the Fourth UN Conference on Women be applied?

How do you classify the various policies? Do they follow a welfare, equity, anti-poverty, efficiency or empowerment approach?

FACT SHEET: ZIMBABWE

Population:	10.4 million
GNP/head:	US$570
Growth rate:	3.0 %
Fertility rate:	4.6
IMR:	47/1 000 births
Source:	World Bank Atlas, 1994

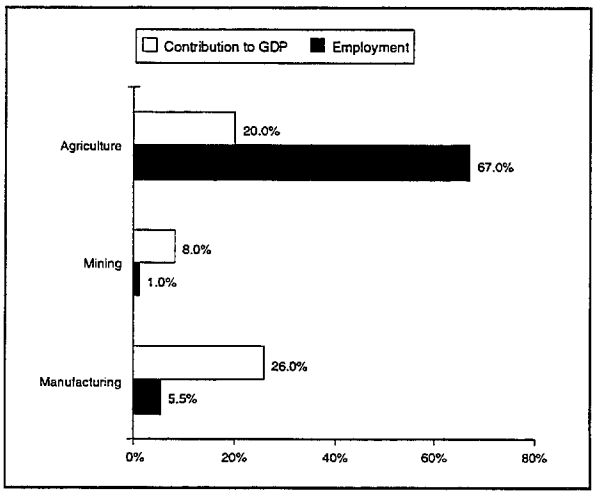
Women, Agriculture and Rural Development

IMPORTANCE OF AGRICULTURE TO THE ECONOMY

Agriculture is the predominant sector of the Zimbabwean economy, with approximately 80% of the population dependent on it for their livelihood. In 1991, agriculture contributed 20% of the GDP, about one-third coming from the subsistence farmers on communal lands, and employed 67% of the labor force. The principal cash crops are tobacco, maize, cotton, coffee and sugar, while wheat, soybeans and groundnuts are also cultivated. Beef production is also an important economic activity, and agriculture supplies about 50% of raw materials for the manufacturing sector.

The Second Five-Year Development Plan (1990-1995) projects a growth rate of the agricultural sector of 3.5%, allowing for both national food security and increased opportunities for jobs and exports.

Sectoral Contributions to GDP and Employment, 1991



Source: Europe World Yearbook, 1994

ROLE OF WOMEN IN AGRICULTURE

Approximately 80% of women live in the communal areas where they constitute 61% of the farmers and provide 70% of the labor. Thus, the work of women farmers is essential for food security. Most women are unpaid family workers.

Rural women work 16 to 18 hours a day, spending at least 49% of their time on agricultural activities and about 25% on domestic activities.

Division of Labor by Gender. While both men and women participate in most agricultural tasks, men predominate in land preparation, ploughing and pest control, while women are primarily engaged in watering, planting, fertilizing, weeding, harvesting, and marketing. Women carry out the majority of firewood gathering and almost all the water fetching, food processing and preparation, cooking and domestic work.

Gender Relations in Decision-Making in Farming Activities. According to a 1993 household survey of the Department of Agricultural Technical and Extension Service (AGRITEX), in male-headed households, men dominate decision-making. In female-headed households (60% of households in the communal areas), women are responsible for farm management decisions. In households where the husband is absent, men still make a large proportion of the decisions regarding sale of crops and use of money. However, the majority of women make decisions on how to spend the income generated from their own activities such as market gardening, crafts, poultry keeping, etc.

SHARING OF POWER AND DECISION-MAKING

Members and Officers of Agricultural/Rural Organizations. Women comprise at least 75% of the members of the powerful small-scale farmers organization, the Zimbabwe Farmers Union (ZFU), but constitute only 4.5% of the office bearers. In the Commercial

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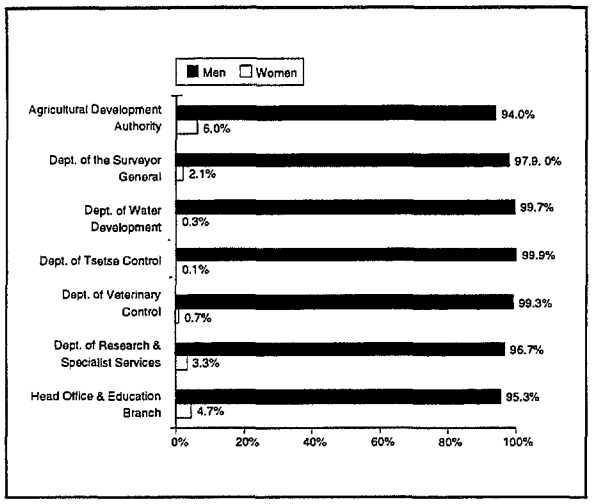
Farmers Union (CFU) women comprise only 8.6% of the members, reflecting the low percentage of women owning large farms. The proportion of women office bearers is 10%.

Women in Decision-making Positions in Ministries and Government Bodies. In spite of the predominance of women in agriculture, very few women hold decision-making positions in government bodies dealing with agriculture.

Ministry of Land, Agriculture and Water Development (MLAWD)



Source: MLAWD

MECHANISMS TO PROMOTE THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN

National Machinery. The Department of Women's Affairs (DWA) was established in the Ministry of National Affairs, Cooperatives and Employment Creation, with the mandate to coordinate interministerial WID activities. However, as a result of the Structural Adjustment Program, the staff and capabilities of the DWA have been seriously reduced.

WID Units or Focal Points in Technical Ministries. The MLAWD does not have a WID Unit, as the Central Planning Unit is responsible for responding to WID issues. AGRITEX incorporates WID issues in its Training Branch and the AGRITEX Directorate has a senior officer whose duties include liaison on WID issues.

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). NGOs play an important role in supporting rural women. In addition to a gradual increase in NGOs that focus on rural women, some NGOs are specifically oriented to reaching rural women. These include: the Zimbabwe Women's Bureau, the Self-Help Development Foundation, Organization of Rural Associations for Progress (ORAP), Africa 2000, Association of Women's Clubs, and the Dondolo Mudonzo Credit Schemes. In addition, the Zimbabwe Women's Resource Centre and Network (ZWRCN) carries out research on gender issues in agriculture.

WOMEN'S RIGHTS

Zimbabwe is a signatory to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).

In the past ten years, several measures have been introduced to enhance the legal status of women, including legislation which: empowers the Court to equitably divide and reallocate property, including land, in the case of divorce; makes it possible for a widow to claim a share of the estate of her husband on the basis of her contribution to its acquisition, and to continue to enjoy the use of crops and animals; and, makes it possible for married women to acquire immovable property, including land, without having to obtain consent from their husbands.

However, women still do not have equal access to land in the communal areas. Married women have only secondary land use rights through their husbands, and divorced women are required to vacate the land and acquire new land in their natal homes. In addition, rural women who are not in formal employment are not covered by social security schemes.

DIMENSIONS AND DETERMINANTS OF RURAL POVERTY

The Economic Structural Adjustment Program (ESAP) introduced in 1991 has resulted in a sharp increase in the interest rates charged to farmers, and a sharp rise in the retail price of agricultural inputs. As a result of escalating production costs, small farmers, who are primarily women, have had to decrease their use

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of inputs, resulting in declining productivity. Women in particular are also negatively affected by the decreased government provision of agricultural and social services and the removal of government control of prices and marketing.

The **severe drought** of 1992 crippled agriculture and threw the economy into a deep recession. Water resources are inadequate in 75% of the communal lands where the majority of women live.

About 75% of the communal lands consist of semi-arid lands with **marginal agricultural potential**. These regions experience the least reliable rainfall and are characterized by rocky topography, steep slopes and shallow, infertile soils. **Environmental degradation** is causing further deterioration in the communal lands, including deforestation, soil erosion, and declining soil fertility, caused by a shortage of land, population pressure, and unsustainable land use systems and farming techniques, in the absence of alternatives.

About 60% of the households in the communal lands experience **food deficits.** One-fifth to one-fourth of Zimbabwean children suffer from **malnutrition,** which is especially extensive among children residing in communal areas and on large-scale commercial farms.

Women in approximately 50% of the districts experience **fuel shortages** requiring them to spend more time and labor gathering fuelwood.

Male migration has resulted in an **increase of female-headed households**, which account for 60% of all households in the communal areas. These households are likely to be allocated smaller parcels of land than male-headed households. Fewer rural female-headed households own agricultural productive resources, and in terms of household incomes, they are 40% poorer than rural male-headed households.

ACCESS TO AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES AND SERVICES

Land. Zimbabwe inherited a landownership system in which about half the land was reserved for those of European descent through the Land Tenure Act. Although this Act was repeated in 1979, the best agricultural land remains concentrated in the commercial sector, dominated by a small number of farmers and companies. Almost two-thirds of the population live on the poorer agricultural lands in the communal areas. Although a Land Resettlement Program was set up after independence in 1980, progress has been slow. No data is available on how this program has affected women.

Although legislation has improved women's access to land in the communal areas, where the majority of women reside, married women still have only indirect access to land through their husbands. Moreover, traditional attitudes and practices have lagged behind legislation. According to a sample survey, the mean arable landholding for male-headed households is 2.73 ha, while that for female-headed households is 1.86 ha.

Livestock. Data collection needed.

Forestry. Data collection needed.

Water. Data collection needed.

Credit. The communal agricultural sector is served by the parastatal Agricultural Finance Corporation (AFC), which requires only that its clients have access to land and a marketing card. Approximately 32% of its clients are women, an increase from 11% in 1982. A number of other Government-sponsored credit schemes, such as the Small

Farmer Credit Scheme and the Resettlement Credit Scheme, have been introduced, but no data is available in regard to women's access to these. A number of private credit facilities have been formed to assist women, including the Zimbabwe Women's Finance Trust, which provides credit and technical assistance to small-scale grassroots businesswomen. Women comprise the majority of members of

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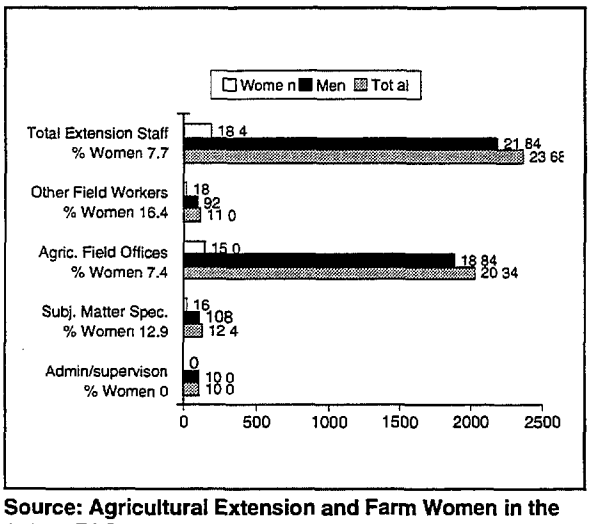
savings clubs which were formed to help meet the needs of the rural population. For instance, women constitute 83% of the membership of the Self Help Development Foundation, which promotes group savings that can be mobilized for productive purposes.

Extension services and agricultural training. The Extension Services Department did not focus on gender issues until 1990, when it became apparent that agricultural extension was contacting only 44% of women farmers. In 1994 the Department began focusing on the constraints to women's participation in extension in an attempt to develop a more appropriate package to reach women farmers.

Prior to 1980, women were not awarded master farmer certificates, but from 1982 to 1992, women constituted 33.2% of this training program, and in 1993, there was an increase in women's participation of 60 to 90%.

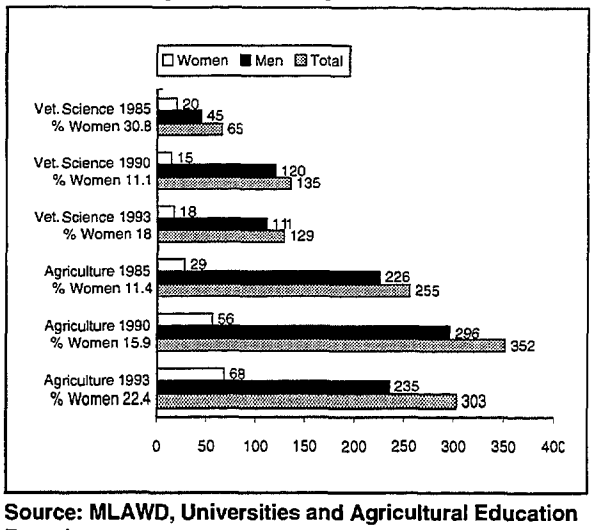
Until the mid-1980s, the majority of agricultural training institutes did not have facilities for women. Since then, there has been a gradual increase in women's enrollment. In 1988, only 7.77% of extension staff were women. More recent data is needed.

Agricultural Extension Staff by Position and Gender, 1989



Source: Agricultural Extension and Farm Women in the 1980s, FAO, 1993

Enrollment in Agricultural Colleges and Universities



Source: MLAWD, Universities and Agricultural Education Branch

SELECTED PROGRAMS IN SUPPORT OF WOMEN IN AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY AND FISHERIES

Legal and Policy Reform

- The Land Tenure Commission, instituted in late 1993, addresses questions related to land rights. Individual and groups of women have presented evidence of their lack of legal access to adequate land in the communal areas. However, there is only one women commissioner out of the 12 commission members.
- The Women and Law in Southern Africa (WLSA) research project and Women in Law and Development in Africa (WiLDAF) are two NGOs that carry out research on women's legal situation in Zimbabwe, as well as activities in the areas of legal literacy, awareness building and legal and policy reform.

Access to Agricultural Resources and Services

- A Communal Land Re-Organization Program is addressing constraints faced at village level in regard to water and fuel supply and sustainable agriculture.
- The Small-Scale Irrigation Program is designed to implement irrigation schemes at community level to mitigate the effects of drought and to increase land productivity.

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- The Forestry Commission and the Department of Natural Resources are implementing programs to promote women's increased participation in the sustainable management of woodlands and land resources, including agroforestry and fruit tree production, and in the use of wetlands.
- The Agricultural Recovery Program is designed to cushion the effects of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programs by issuing free inputs to communal land households.

AREAS TO BE STRENGTHENED

Policy Planning and Research

- Permanent WID focal points should be created in the MALWD to ensure that legislation, policies, programs and projects address gender issues.
- The Central Statistical Office should create a Gender Section to develop a framework for data generation on the status of women in agricultural and rural development.

Access To Agricultural Resources And Services

- Increased efforts are needed by the government NGOs and donors to make credit accessible to all women farmers. This should include a special revolving fund, with affordable interest rates, within the AFC.
- Training in marketing skills for local grassroots farmers institutions and women farmers.
- The Department of Energy and the Forestry Commission should design a national program to reach all communities in order to assist women to identify more appropriate options to meet present and future energy needs.
- The National Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Program (NRWSS) should continue its nationwide program to supply clean water to rural households. Financial resources must be identified to enable the NRWSS to continue its activities.
- The Government, NGOs, and donors should formulate programs to enable women to participate in the food processing industry.

Source: *National Sectoral Report on Women, Agriculture and Rural Development, 1994.*

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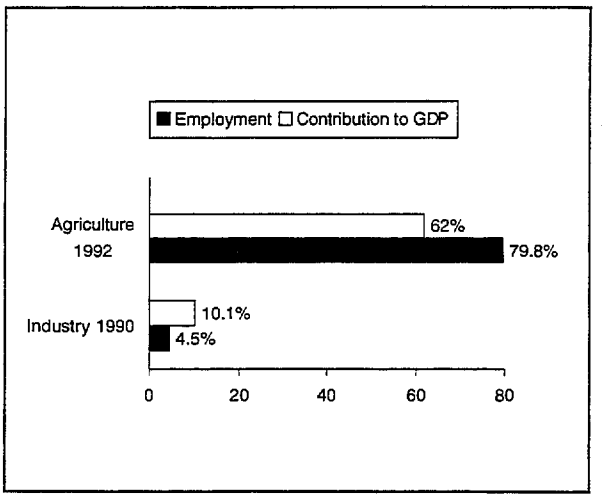
FACT SHEET: TANZANIA

Women, Agriculture and Rural Development

Population:	26 million
Growth rate:	3.0 %
Fertility rate:	6.3
IMR:	115/1000 births
GNP/head:	US$110 (Mainland)
Source:	World Bank Atlas, 1994

IMPORTANCE OF AGRICULTURE TO THE ECONOMY

Agriculture is the predominant sector of the Tanzanian economy. In 1992 it contributed 62% of the GDP and employed 79.8% of the labor force. The major cash crops produced by subsistence farmers are coffee (20.3% of export earnings), cotton (18.7% of export earnings), tobacco and cashew nuts. Sisal and tea are grown on large estates. Farmers have also been encouraged to produce essential food crops, especially cassava and maize. Subsistence farmers produce a large proportion of the agricultural output, which accounts for 75% of agricultural export earnings and 80% of grain marketing. One of the major economic objectives of Tanzania is to increase self-sufficiency in food.



Sectoral Contributions to GDP and Employment, 1991

Source: Europa World Yearbook, 1994

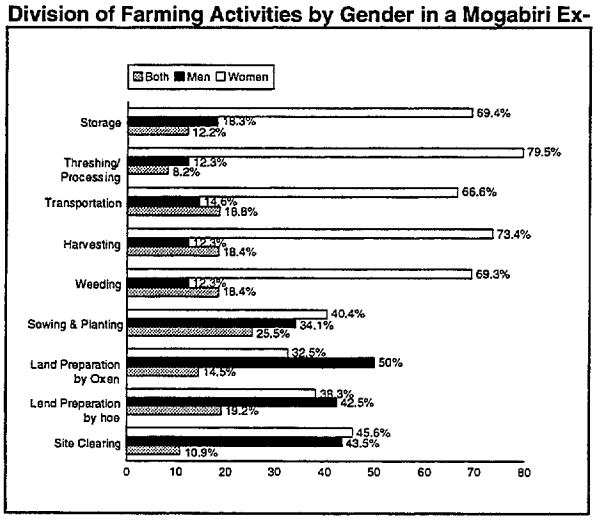
ROLE OF WOMEN IN AGRICULTURE

ILO estimates that in the mid-1980s women comprised 54% of those economically active in agriculture. Approximately 98% of rural women classified as economically active are engaged in agriculture. Women farmers also contribute substantially to both commercial and subsistence agriculture, including livestock and fishing, as casual laborers and unpaid family workers.

Division of Labor by Gender. Women carry the major responsibility for both subsistence agriculture, especially food crop production, and domestic work. Time use studies consistently show

that women spend more hours per day than men in both productive and reproductive activities. Traditionally, women are responsible for almost all livestock activities of dairy husbandry (feeding,milking, milk processing,

Division of Farming Activities by Gender in a Mogabiri Ex-



tension Project

Source: Analysis of Benefits Accrued by Women and Factors Influencing Participation in a Mogabiri Extension Project, Mary Ahungo

marketing, etc.). In addition, a 1992 labor force survey in Zanzibar showed that women comprise 74% of the labor force in agro-enterprises. In Zanzibar, women also predominate in on-shore fisheries, while men perform almost all the work in off-shore fisheries except for some cleaning and processing.

In crop production, both men and women participate fairly equally in site clearance, land preparation, sowing and planting, while

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women carry out most of the weeding, harvesting, transportation, threshing, processing and storage activities. Women are also responsible for food preparation, fetching water and gathering firewood.

Gender Relations in Decision-making in Farming Activities. Decision-making at the household level continues to be male-dominated in all farming-related activities, even in those where women contribute the majority of the labor. However, joint decision-making is commonplace.

SHARING OF POWER AND DECISION-MAKING

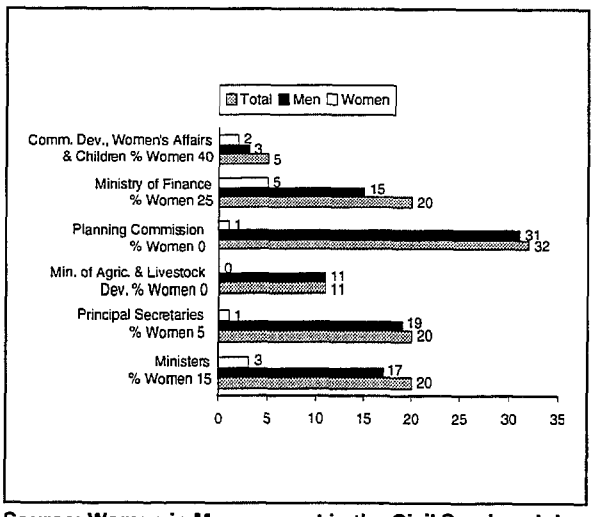
Members and Officers of Agricultural/Rural Organizations. There is a lack of data on women's participation in agricultural and rural organizations. Information from Zanzibar, however, indicates a gradual increase in women members of cooperative agricultural organizations, from 30% in 1980 to 44% in 1993.

Women in Decision-making Positions in Ministries and Government Bodies. Women hold only a small percentage of decision-making positions in ministries and government bodies and are particularly under-represented in the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock Development.

MECHANISMS TO PROMOTE THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN

National Machinery. The Department for Women and Children was established in 1985 in the Ministry of Community Development, Women and Children, on the Mainland, with the mandate to coordinate and monitor the implementation of the Women and Development Policy, specifically addressing: ways and means of reducing women's workloads, improving their health and increasing productivity; promoting education and training; identifying strategies for women's economic empowerment; advocating the development of gender-sensitive statistics; and ensuring that women's experiences and concerns are more fully integrated into the planning process and that adequate resources are allocated for such issues.

Women in Decision-making Positions in Ministries and Government Bodies



Source: Women in Management in the Civil Service, July 1992, Draft Report

The Ministry of State for Women and Children was established in 1992 in the President's Office, Zanzibar.

WID Units or Focal Points in Technical Ministries. The Union Government Ministry of Agriculture WID Focal Point was established in 1985, with the mandate to: liaise with regional focal points and other agencies responsible for women in rural development; participate in training rural women in agricultural credit and enhancing their entrepreneurial capacities; collaborate with other interested institutions in organizing village-based seminars for women's groups; ensure female participation in and benefit from national extension programs; and encourage female leadership in agricultural sciences.

The Zanzibar Ministry of Agriculture, Unit for Women and Youth, Office of the Commissioner for Research and Farmers Education, was established in 1992 with the mandate to: promote women's and youth agricultural, livestock, fishing and forestry activities; encourage formation of women's and youth groups; impart nutrition education to women so as to eliminate malnutrition among children; raise the economic status of women and youth; and ensure equitable distribution of income based on one's labor contribution.

Accomplishments of the WID Units: While some gender-sensitivity training programs have been carried out, the main focus has been on activities in the areas of irrigation, food productivity, nutrition, dairy production, and support of credit mobilization, agricultural extension, animal traction and oil processing.

Constraints: Inadequate personnel and finances to carry out substantive analysis and action on agriculture-oriented gender issues; a top-down planning and administrative approach which does not promote innovative initiatives at the grassroots; and heavy dependence on donor funding.

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). Since 1985, both local and international NGOs have increased support to rural women in agriculture, due especially to the formation of WID Units at NGO headquarters and an increase in community based organizations (CBOs). Under the Tanzania Non-Governmental Organization Umbrella (TANGO), many local NGOs are addressing agriculture, livestock and environmental issues, and a growing number are also emphasizing women's empowerment. Grassroots women's groups are also increasing. For example, in Same District Kilimanjaro Region, between 1980 and 1993, 43 women's groups in agriculture and horticulture were formed, 8 in livestock and poultry, 8 in bee-keeping, 4 in fishing and 10 milling groups.

WOMEN'S RIGHTS

Tanzania is a signatory to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women.

Women's civil rights are limited by the existence of a dual legal system which includes both statutory and religious and customary laws. In addition, the 1971 Marriage Act includes discriminatory provisions in respect to women's property and inheritance rights.

DIMENSIONS AND DETERMINANTS OF RURAL POVERTY

Structural adjustment programs have forced many households to adopt survival strategies, with detrimental effects on women. Removal of government subsidies for agricultural inputs and food stuffs, dismantling of state-controlled marketing systems, reduction of public investment in extension services and credit, and rising interest rates of bank credit are affecting poor women farmers in particular.

Intensive ***exploitation of natural resources*** aimed at increased supply of primary export commodities and incomes has led to soil erosion, deforestation and increased threat of desertification. There is a heavy dependence on fuel wood energy in the absence of better alternative energy sources.

Pressure to grow cash crops is diverting labor and land away from food crops and forcing poor households to sell part of their food reserves. Fall in prices of traditional export crops is affecting the food sector in particular and attracting males to commercial food crops such as maize, beans, horticulture and dairy products, traditionally controlled by women.

Food imbalances are estimated to have affected 40% of the population. 28.7% of the population is chronically food insecure as landholdings are too small to provide sufficient food for subsistence. More than 25% of the population suffers from protein energy malnutrition, 32% from nutritional anemia, 6.1% from Vitamin A deficiency, and 25% from iodine deficiency. Women and girls suffer more as they tend to eat less in times of food shortage.

The ***rising cost of living*** and raised production costs has increased women's workload. ***Female-headed households***, generally associated with increased labor constraints, simpler farming systems, inadequate services and meager incomes, are increasing.

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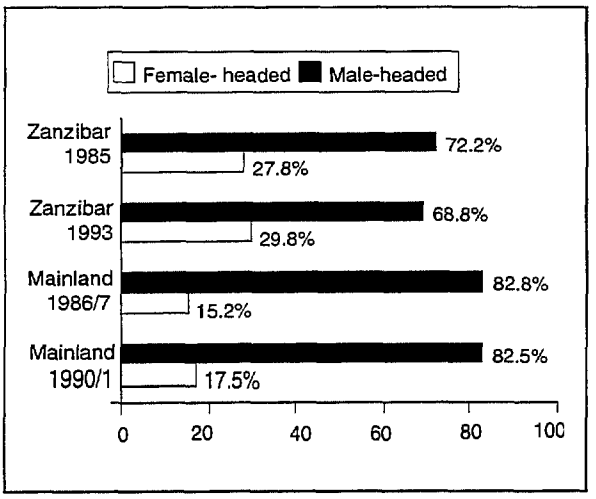
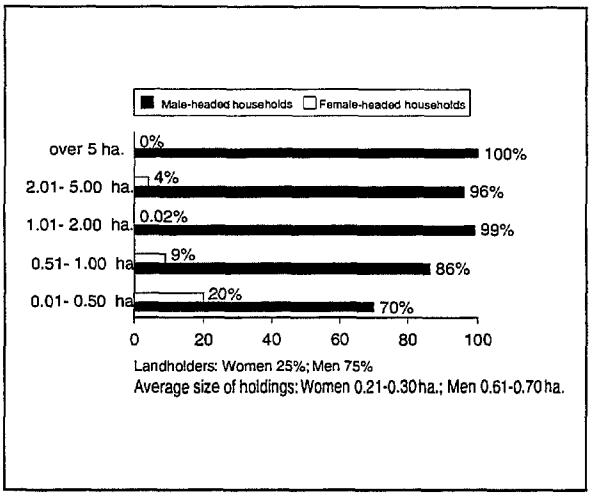
Female-headed Households in Rural Areas



Source: Mainland: Agricultural Sample Survey, Central Bureau of Statistics; Zanzibar: 1988 Census and 1991 Household Budget Survey

Size of Planted Areas by Female and Male-headed Households



Source: Agricultural Sample Survey of Tanzania Mainland, 1989/90, Bureau of Statistics

ACCESS TO AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES AND SERVICES

Land. There is a great disparity between women and men in the size of landholdings, as well as an overall trend of increasing landlessness and decreasing size of holdings due to population pressure. About 84% of the land is cultivated by human labor, which limits the amount that can be cultivated.

Livestock. Data collection needed.

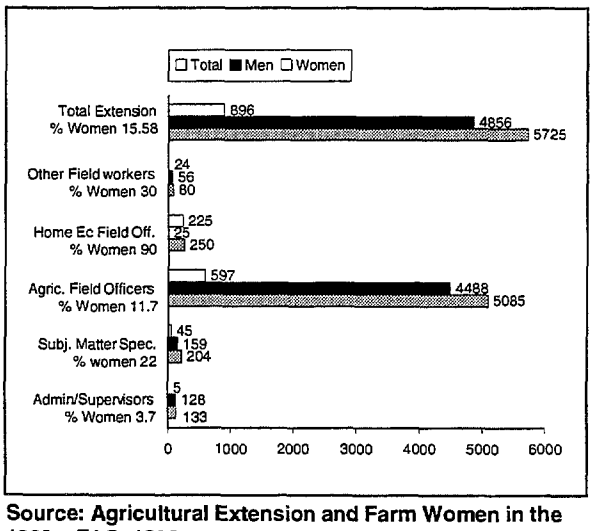
Forestry. Data collection needed.

Water. Data collection needed.

Credit. In 1992, women comprised only 15% of the total membership of formal rural savings and credit associations. Women's access to formal financing is limited by the small size of their agricultural enterprises, high rate of illiteracy, predominance in the subsistence sector, and lack of land as collateral. Women's access to loans has tended to be confined to donor-supported special grants.

Extension services and agricultural training. Data collection is needed on the numbers of women farmers reached by extension.

Agricultural Extension Staff by Position and Gender, 1989



Source: Agricultural Extension and Farm Women in the 1980s, FAO, 1993

SELECTED PROGRAMS IN SUPPORT OF WOMEN IN AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY AND FISHERIES

Legal and Policy Reform.

- Establishment of the Law Reform Commission in 1983 which, however, has yet to address the inequalities in succession and inheritance rights.
- Formation of Land Reform Commission which has noted gender inequality in land rights.

- Government legal literacy radio programs.
- NGO initiatives, including Legal Aid Clinics, legal literacy campaigns and paralegal training.

ACCESS TO AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES AND SERVICES.

- Many Ministry of Agriculture and donor-funded projects are directed, or have a component, to increase women's access to agricultural resources and services, including animal traction, irrigation, extension, small livestock, and small credit schemes.

AREAS TO BE STRENGTHENED

Policy Planning and Research.

- The establishment of a strong WID Unit in the Ministry of Agriculture, capable of carrying out substantive analysis and action on gender issues in agriculture.
- Clear policies and strategies on the promotion of women's advancement in agriculture.
- Gender-disaggregated data and base-line information on women's contribution to agriculture.
- Increased research on gender issues in agriculture.
- Increased gender-sensitization programs for policymakers.
- Reorientation of agricultural extension policies towards greater gender sensitivity and the constraints of small farmers.

Legal and Policy Reform.

- Redress inequality in land rights.

Access to Agricultural Resources and Services.

- Efforts should be made to increase women's access to: appropriate technology to reduce workload, extension and training, improved water supply, alternative energy sources, irrigation, credit, agricultural inputs, and co-operatives and rural associations.

Source: National Sectoral Report on Women, Agriculture and Rural Development, 1994

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FACT SHEET: NAMIBIA

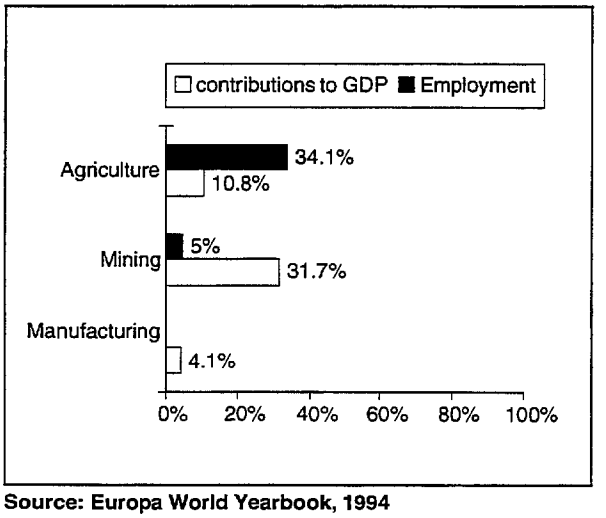
Population:	1.5 million
GNP/head:	US$1,610
Growth rate:	3.1 %
Fertility rate:	6.0
Source:	World Bank Atlas, 1994

Women, Agriculture and Rural Development

IMPORTANCE OF AGRICULTURE TO THE ECONOMY

Nearly 80% of the population of Namibia is engaged in agriculture. In 1989, commercial agriculture, primarily exports of beef and cattle, contributed 10.8% of the GDP and employed 34.1% of the labor force. Of a total land area of 82.3 million hectares, 69.3 million (84%) are suitable for agriculture. The commercial farming sector consists of 44% of the agriculturally useable land. The communal farming sector consists of 41% of the agricultural land and accommodates approximately 64% of the population - of which an estimated 90% are dependent on subsistence agriculture for a living. Livestock constitutes the major source of livelihood. The main crops are maize, millet and wheat. The achievement of national food self-sufficiency is a major economic strategy of the country.

Sectoral Contributions to GDP and Employment, 1991



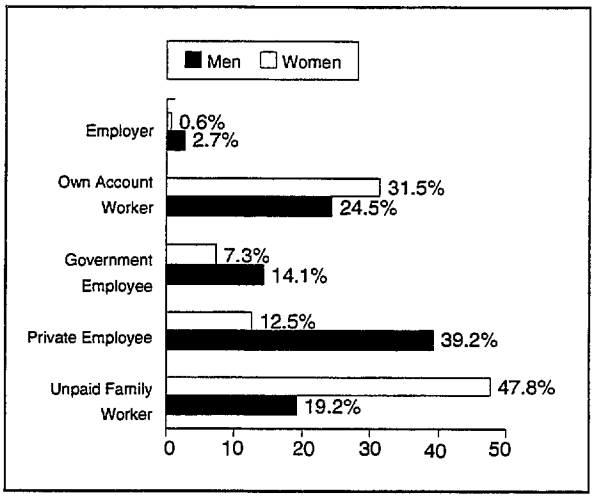
Source: Europa World Yearbook, 1994

ROLE OF WOMEN IN AGRICULTURE

Women account for 59% of all those engaged in skilled and subsistence agricultural work, according to the 1991 census. This work employs over 70% of rural women classified as employed. While the 1991 census takes account of subsistence agriculture for the first time, it does not capture the full involvement of women in the work force as it overlooks the participation of many "homemakers" (22.4% of the women who are classified as not economically active) in agriculture and other productive activities.

A comparison of the employment status of the economically active population in rural areas shows that many more women than men are own account or unpaid family workers.

Status of Economically Active Population in Rural Areas



Source: 1991 Census

Division of Labor by Gender. Women carry out the bulk of domestic and agricultural work. Both women and men participate in land preparation, ploughing, planting, weeding, harvesting and threshing. Men are primarily responsible for herding and marketing livestock, while women are responsible for food processing, and for collecting water and wood for domestic use, the principal source of fuel for the majority of rural households.

Gender Relations in Decision-making in Farming Activities. Overall, women have an unequal say in decision-making, although women's freedom to make decisions varies by

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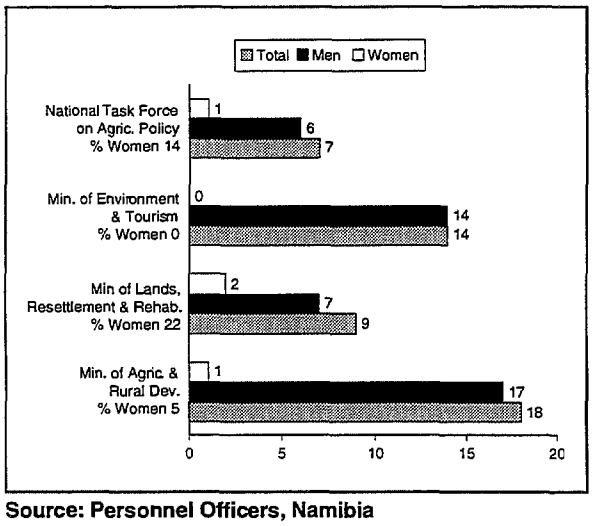
type of household and region. In female-headed households, women are more likely to make decisions jointly with other household members. In male-headed households, men are more likely to make decisions, although joint decision-making is commonplace.

SHARING OF POWER AND DECISION-MAKING

Members and Officers of Agricultural/Rural Organizations. Since women are primarily small-holders engaged in subsistence agriculture, few are represented in commercially-oriented farmers associations such as the Namibia Agricultural Union (NAU). Women comprise 30 to 60% of the affiliate associations of the Namibia National Farmers Union (NNFU), established in 1992 for communal farmers whose activities, however, focus mainly on marketing and surplus production rather than on improved food production and food processing for women farmers.

Women in Decision-making Positions in Ministries and Government Bodies



Source: Personnel Officers, Namibia

MECHANISMS TO PROMOTE THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN

National Machinery. The Department of Women Affairs (DWA) was established in 1990 in the Office of the President with the mandate to facilitate the inclusion of gender issues into national development, advocate policies and legislation which are gender-sensitive, coordinate the gender-related activities of government ministries, and provide a point of contact between government, NGOs and donors promoting gender issues. It has been successful in including gender sector by sector in the National Development Plan for 1995-2000, rather than as a separate section on Women in Development. The Department is constrained, however, by a small budget and staff, lack of representative or observer status in the Cabinet, and an insufficient capacity to fully address the priorities of rural women in development policy and planning.

WID Units or Focal Points in Technical Ministries. At present, there are no focal points in the Ministry of Agriculture or other technical ministries for promoting gender concerns, yet plans exist to facilitate an interministerial network on gender issues, composed of individuals from the line ministries.

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). Recognizing that women's interests are not often addressed in many rural organizations, some NGOs are encouraging women to form separate associations and co-operatives. A number of church-related organizations, in which women are very active, run development projects for rural women.

WOMEN'S RIGHTS

Namibia is a signatory to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).

The Constitution of Namibia guarantees equal rights for women and provides for affirmative action to redress past imbalances. However, the Constitution also states that all laws in force at independence remain in force until repealed or amended by Parliament, and that customary and common laws also remain valid, as long as they do not conflict with the Constitution or statutory laws. Thus many discriminatory laws that affect rural women remain intact, including those that limit women's control over property and access to land and credit.

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DIMENSIONS AND DETERMINANTS OF RURAL POVERTY

Male migration has created many female-headed households with a shortage of adult labor, often resulting in a decline of food productivity and ability to earn cash income. ***Female-headed households***, which account for 42.9% of rural households, also support more dependents and thus are particularly affected by malnutrition. ***Rising unemployment*** has shrunk remittances and cash income. ***The natural resource base*** is declining due to drought, erosion, deforestation, and increasing population pressure. Subsistence farmers engage in ***unsustainable farming practices*** in the absence of alternatives. Even in good years, agricultural production is inadequate to meet basic food needs.

ACCESS TO AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES AND SERVICES

Land. The majority of black farmers reside in Communal areas in which traditional authorities grant usufruct rights to households for crop production, grazing and access to common pasturage. Rural women gain indirect access through men as wives, daughters and sisters. The security of their tenure is jeopardized by discriminatory marriage customs and inheritance systems.

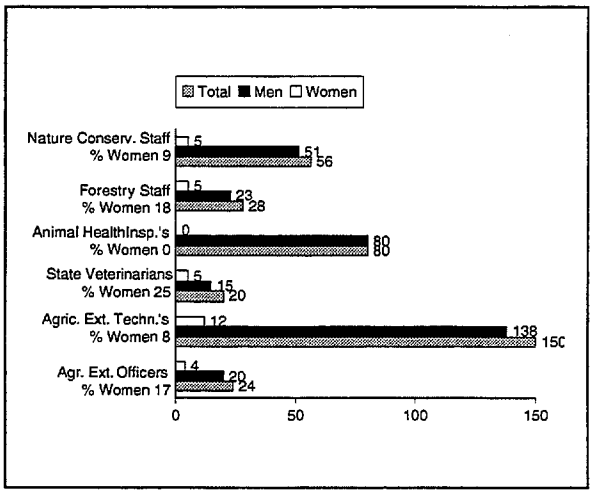
Livestock. On average, female-headed households own fewer livestock and are more likely to own no cattle at all, and thus have less access to what livestock provide: food, income from the sale of animals, meat and by-products, dung for fertilizer, draught power, and social and cultural status.

Forestry. Data collection needed.

Water. Data collection needed.

Credit. Small-scale farmers have historically been unable to gain access to credit through banks and government institutions which require titled land as security. Since independence, new governmental and NGO credit programs are providing new sources of credit which are more available to small-holders. Gender-disaggregated data is required to assess their accessibility and impact. Since 1992, the Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development has provided loans to 450 small-scale communal farmers. Most of these have been for livestock, which is usually purchased by men. A credit union movement is growing in which women comprise 70-80% of the membership in the Southern Communal Areas and Owambo region. A serious legal constraint is that married women require the consent of their husbands to enter into contracts and loans.

Extension services and agricultural training. Historically, agricultural extension and services have served the interests and needs of commercial farmers. Although steps have been taken to reorient support towards subsistence farmers, few programs as yet take account of the activities and priorities of women farmers. There are far fewer women extensionists than men, and women comprise a smaller percentage of the enrollment of agricultural colleges.



Agricultural Extension Staff by Position and Gender

Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development (MAWRD)

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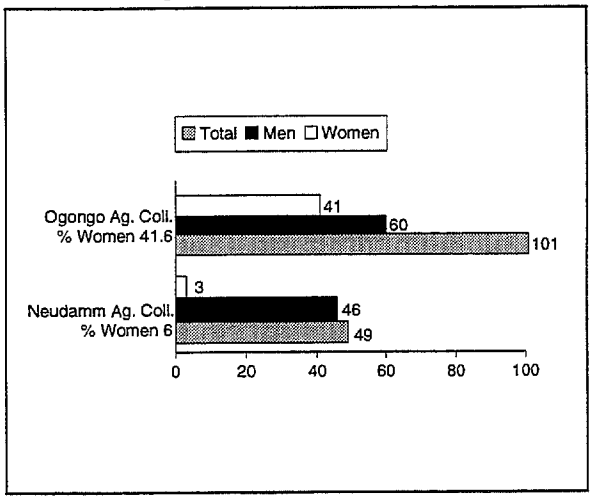
Enrollment in Agricultural Colleges



Source: Ogongo and Neudamm Agricultural Colleges

SELECTED PROGRAMS IN SUPPORT OF WOMEN IN AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY AND FISHERIES

Policy Planning and Research

- Efforts to promote gender awareness and sensitivity among government planners and policymakers include an initiative to train staff in key ministries, including MAWRD and the National Planning Commission (NPC) in gendersensitive planning.
- The NPC's Central Statistics Office has devised a strategy to generate, analyze, present and disseminate gender-specific statistics.
- A new Gender Research Unit at the University of Namibia Research Centre will promote ongoing research and policy discussions on gender issues.
- An initiative to integrate women into agricultural development programs includes the development of gender-sensitive data collection and training extension staff in socio-economic and gender analysis.

Legal and Policy Reform

The Co-operative Act provides that cooperatives in which more than one-third of the total members are women must have at least one woman on each Management Committee and Subcommittee.

Access to Credit

NGOs such as the Rural People's Institute for Social Empowerment (RISE) and the Namibia Credit Union League, are supporting local groups to manage and administer group savings and credit programs. Many of the credit unions have helped women to mobilize and invest their savings.

AREAS TO BE STRENGTHENED

Policy Planning and Research

- The Department of Women's Affairs must be strengthened and have representation in the Cabinet.
- Gender-disaggregated statistics are needed in all Ministries and NGOs.
- Women's productive work in agriculture and other "informal spheres" should be recognized in national statistics and policies.
- Research should be carried out on the impact of macro-economic and sectoral policies on women, power-relations and processes at the household level, informal coping strategies of rural women, and the role of women in natural resource use and management.
- Skills in strategic planning are needed to ensure that rural institutions clearly target and aim to serve rural women.
- Associations and pressure groups of rural women should be promoted.

Legal and Policy Reform

Discriminatory laws must be repealed/amended to ensure that women have equal access to credit and rights to land. For this, greater support should be given to the Women and Law Reform Committee.

Access to Agricultural Resources and Services

- Agricultural services should be further decentralized to reach the needy, focus on simple low cost interventions, develop an appropriate technology base for women's agricultural and domestic tasks, target veterinary services to women, and involve women in research on improved crop varieties.
- Extension workers should receive training in participatory and gender-aware develop-

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ment approaches and undertake agricultural needs assessments of women farmers.

- The number of women extension workers should be increased. For this, working conditions must be conducive for women and agricultural colleges should implement affirmative action enrollment policies.
- Credit unions, NGOs and MAWRD should develop savings and loan schemes appropriate to the needs of rural women.

Women and Decision-making

- Affirmative action legislation is expected to be passed by the end of 1994 to improve women's representation in decision-making positions.
- NGOs and community-based organizations should be lobbied to include more women in management and decision-making bodies.

Source: *National Sectoral Report on Women, Agriculture and Rural Development, 1994.*

Prepared by:

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DAY TWO

Session 4
Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations: Part I

Instructions to Trainers

SESSION 4

14:00 – 15:30 Session 4. Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations: Part I

15:30 – 15:45 Tea/Coffee Break

15:45 – 16:30 Session 4. Continued

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this session, the participants will be able to do the following:

- Broadly define the term "institutionalization of gender awareness."
- Identify some approaches for institutionalizing gender awareness and addressing gender-related problems in agricultural and natural resource research management organizations.
- List some of the specific benefits of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management.

Use overhead 2.4.1 to present the objectives.

PROCEDURE

Training techniques: presentation, group work, group presentations.

RATIONALE

The session helps research leaders to recognize the importance of organizational structure for institutionalizing gender awareness. Research managers make decisions that affect efforts to address gender issues within their workplace. Managerial aspects such as leadership, advisory services, human resource management and team building all create an enabling environment for research which supports gender research in agricultural and natural resource management.

PRESENTATION

The presentation focuses on gender issues in research management from the angle of institutional development in NARS. There is also a discussion of how this organizational structure and behavior influences the inclusion of a gender awareness in agricultural and natural resource research. The "institutionalization of gender awareness" is discussed in this presentation. If the participants are not familiar with the concept of institutionalization they should be referred to

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handout 2.4.2 on the institutionalization of strategic planning. There is a good deal of similarity between the institutionalization of gender awareness and the institutionalization of strategic planning because both processes are strategic in nature and some degree of "resistance to change" can be expected. The presentation is outlined in handout 2.4.1. Overheads 2.4.2 through 2.4.10 support the presentation. At the end be sure to allow sufficient time to ask the participants if they have any comments or questions, or if they need clarifications. Distribute handout 2.4.1. (60 minutes)

EXERCISE 4

Exercise 4. Organizational structure and gender issues in the NARS. (1 hour 15 minutes)

1. Distribute handouts 2.4.2 through 2.4.5. Handout 2.4.2 gives background information on the institutionalization of strategic planning including the definition of "institutionalization" and the concept of "resistance to change." Handout 2.4.3 gives background information on mainstreaming and handout 2.4.4 gives clear instructions for the exercise. Go over the instructions with the participants step by step. Ask if clarifications are needed.

Phase 1. Group work (45 minutes)

2. Divide the participants into three groups, ask each group to elect a rapporteur, and assign one question to each group.
3. *(experience)* The participants read handout 2.4.4 and discuss the question assigned to their group. Circulate among the groups to check progress. Clarify any concerns they may have while they are working.

15:30 – 15:45 Tea/Coffee Break

Phase 2. Reporting and discussion (30 minutes)

4. *(process)* Facilitate the presentations by the rapporteurs. Each rapporteur has five minutes to present. The trainer facilitates questions and answers. At the end of the exercise provide feedback on the content of the presentations.

CLOSURE

Closure (5 minutes)

Discuss the session with the participants.

(generalize) Ask the participants questions such as "How did you feel doing this exercise?" and "What did you learn?" (5 minutes)

Remember you can close the session by saying that you have looked at the first two components of institutionalizing gender analysis in research management: first, the operational structures and interventions, including the importance of a gender policy, statement, plan of action or guidelines for the institution and, second, the administrative structures and approaches, including the advisory and evaluation services for staff. You can mention that tomorrow the topic of human resource management will be examined. Distribute handouts 2.4.6 through 2.4.8 and ask the participants to read them.

REFERENCES

Sexist Management: A Dying Style? by H. Tadria, ESAMI (handout 2.4.6), **Gender and Administration** by A.M. Goetz, IDS Bulletin (handout 2.4.7), and **The Combined Strategy: The Case of the Swedish International Development Agency** by C. Moser (handout 2.4.8).

16:30 – 17:00 Feedback on the Day's Activities and PAPA

OBJECTIVES

By the end of the session participants will be able to do the following:

- Evaluate the day's activities.
- Consider possible actions they would like to implement in their own organizations.

PROCEDURE

Training techniques: discussion, PAPA.

Discuss any positive or negative points of the day. Note areas that may need additional attention in the workshop. Participants can write some strengths and weaknesses of the day on handout 2.4.9. (15 minutes)

PAPA

(application) Ask participants to jot down some "action ideas" they may have for themselves as a result of today's activities. They can use handout 2.4.11. (15 minutes)

POST-SESSION

(application) The trainer should identify six participants who could be good "role-players" for the narrative/role-play activity in exercise 5 on day 3. Tell the players to rehearse or review this exercise together over dinner or coffee so they feel comfortable acting it out in front of the larger group.

DAY TWO

Session 4
Summary of Overheads

Objectives of Session 4.

Part I

4. Define institutionalization of gender awareness
5. Identify approaches to institutionalizing gender awareness and addressing gender-related problems
6. List some specific benefits of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management

2.4.1

Definition of Institutionalization

An acceptable structure and organization:

- with patterns and guidelines of action
- with predictable interactions
- in order to achieve a determined goal

2.4.2

Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research

1. Awareness of the importance of gender issues in agricultural and natural resource technology development and transfer
2. Commitment to addressing gender issues in the research organization's activities
3. Capacity for formulation of gender-focused research programs
4. Capacity for carrying out gender and social analysis
5. Capacity for applying the findings of gender and social analysis to the research portfolio
6. Capacity for systematic monitoring and evaluation of gender-specific program impact
7. Promotion and encouragement of systematic reporting of gender-relevant lessons learned and subsequent program adaptation

2.4.3

2.4.4

Principles of Operational Structures and Interventions

Gender policy, statement, plan of action or guidelines for the institution

- gender issues are a concern within the organization
- important foundation provides legitimacy and support to research actions and activities
- potential for motivating staff and achieving the organization's objectives

2.4.5

Principles of Organizational Structures and Approaches

Leadership and management in NARS determine how policies and procedures are followed or implemented.

The commitment of leaders affects:

- issues addressed by the system
- research issues dealt with at local level

2.4.6

Wanted!

mechanism for *advising* and *reporting* on

progress towards implementing gender awareness

2.4.7

Advising and Reporting Mechanisms for Gender-Related Research and Management

- Focal point or unit to act as advisory service or lead group
- Mainstreaming gender within the structure so that everyone is involved to some extent
- Adhoc task force set up for evaluation

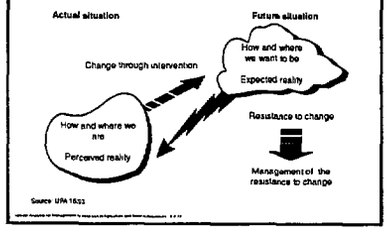
2.4.8

Comparison of Approaches for Institutionalizing Gender Awareness

Gender/Focal Point	Mainstreaming	Adhoc Task Force
individual or small groups	"building in" gender advisory and evaluation services within all departments	temporary advisory and evaluation service
mandated to provide input on gender-related programs or projects	everyone does gender-related work	can involve outside consultants/counsellors or committee of in-house staff members
appraises and advises on gender issues in the institution	everyone is enabled to address gender issues in the workplace	set up as needed within the institution
operates on an on-going basis	operates on an on-going basis	may or may not be a "go-between"
serves as a management "go-between"	no need for go-between	

2.4.9

The Change Process



2.4.10

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Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research (Part I)
(summary of presentation)

Gender policy is only as effective as its implementation. For a particular policy or planning process to be operationalized it must be "institutionalized." Institutionalization has been referred to as a process that includes an acceptable structure and organization:

- with patterns and guidelines of action
- with predictable interactions
- in order to achieve a determined goal.

There are seven basic elements which together constitute the "framework" or preconditions for institutionalizing gender considerations in NARS. The elements presented below are derived from the Genesys training resource material (USAID, 1994) and, for the purposes of this module, have been adapted for research in agriculture and natural resources.

1. Awareness of the importance of gender issues in agricultural and natural resources technology development and transfer.
2. Commitment to addressing gender issues in the research organization's activities.
3. Capacity for formulation of gender-focused research programs.
4. Capacity for carrying out gender and social analysis.
5. Capacity for applying the findings of gender and social analysis to the research portfolio.
6. Capacity for systematic monitoring and evaluation of gender-specific program impact.
7. Promotion and encouragement of systematic reporting of gender-relevant lessons learned and subsequent program adaptation.

Brief discussion of the basic elements

1. *Awareness of the importance of gender issues in agricultural and natural resources technology development and transfer:* Gender-awareness is the conscious knowledge that communities and farmers are not a homogenous group and that the benefits of agricultural development programs, including technology development and transfer, do not automatically accrue equally to all members and segments of a given community. In many instances these inequalities are due to gender differences in the division of labor, rights, economic activities, access to resources, and the management and utilization of natural resources. In the context of research, gender awareness also implies recognition (by policymakers and those who are in the forefront of generating agricultural technologies) that technological innovations and introductions for improving agricultural production and natural resources management need to be consciously planned and implemented to surmount constraints in productivity linked to gender differences.

   Possible operational mechanisms for addressing the issue of *gender-awareness* within the research organization are a) the gender policy — to send a clear signal that gender issues are a concern within the organization, b) staff gender sensitization training — to enhance

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awareness of staff regarding gender issues through formal training or by incorporating such issues into on-going training in agricultural and natural resources research.

2. *Commitment to addressing gender issues in the research organization's activities:* Gender-awareness is a necessary but insufficient condition for incorporating gender considerations in the research organization's operational procedures. Institutional change occurs only when the organization makes a conscious commitment to address gender issues in the course of doing business; i.e., in planning, programming and implementation of activities. The commitment must increase both the efficiency and effectiveness of utilizing the available resources (especially human) within the organization and addressing the needs of the farmers through the generation of more relevant and effective technologies.

   Possible operational mechanisms for addressing the issue of *commitment* within the research organization are a) implementation of policy through the development and implementation of a gender-addressing strategic plan which provides priorities and sets the strategy and approach for the systematic integration of gender considerations in the organization's activities; and b) development and operationalization of an organizational structure. (Note: if participants are unfamiliar with strategic planning please refer to handout 2.4.2.)

3. *Capacity for formulation of gender-focused research programs:* Careful formulation of the research programs/projects would improve adoption of technology by farmers and thus improve the impact of such technologies by increasing agricultural productivity and management of the natural resource base. A prerequisite for the generation of agricultural technology which is gender sensitive and addresses the needs of the users is the inherent capacity of the research organization to formulate — where necessary — gender-focused research programs which consider the gender division of labor, rights, responsibilities, and access to resources. The capacity of the research staff to ask the correct gender-informed questions at the onset of program and project planning can reduce the organization's need for additional data collection later. The significant steps for all research scientists are, first, to be aware that gender differences often influence specific project's outcomes; second, to formulate appropriate, gender-related questions; and third, to carefully translate specific gender concerns into the research program and project objectives.

   Possible operational mechanisms for addressing the issue of *formulation of gender-focused research programs* are a) basic training of the research staff in gender analysis, and b) inclusion of social scientists in the research team(s).

4. *Capacity for carrying out gender and social analysis:* Sex-disaggregated data that has been analyzed and interpreted can provide the research organization with an informed set of alternatives with which to formulate and implement their programs and projects, so that they benefit and allow for active participation by both women and men. It is important to point out that not every member of the research organization needs to be capable of carrying out gender analysis. In the same way that research organizations use specialists to address technical issues, they often need to use specialists to address gender issues. Considerations for proper staffing and disciplinary mix involving social scientists is important. Social scientists trained in gender analysis can work with biological scientists to provide the necessary assistance in carrying out the actual gender analysis that will provide the required information.

Possible operational mechanisms for addressing the issue of carrying out analysis are a) staffing with specialists trained in gender analysis, and b) availability of technical assistance through strong networking with institutions that may possess such capabilities.

5. *Capacity for applying the findings of gender and social analysis to the research portfolio:* The capacity to translate and integrate the major findings from gender analysis to research program/project objectives is crucial for establishing a realistic program and project design. For a research organization to be truly "gender-informed" it should have this capacity in-house. This implies that staff members are capable of "translating" findings from gender analysis into operational terms, and that these findings are reflected in implementation plans.

6. *Capacity for systematic monitoring and evaluation of gender-specific program impact:* The most important question to ask about any new technological introduction is how does it change the lives of the actual or potential users. To monitor these changes, each activity needs to have some baseline data, and a review system that provides periodic updates of progress toward impact on people's well-being. A gender-informed organization ensures that its monitoring and evaluation (M&E) system provides information disaggregated by sex (and other social variables), to determine differential results on the lives of men and women. Such an M&E system should provide information for justifying changes in policy direction if the impact is negative for either men or women. At the same time, the M&E system should allow the research organization to assess whether or not a specific technology targets the relevant producers group.

   A possible operational mechanism for addressing monitoring and evaluation would be integration of a gender perspective in the planning, monitoring and evaluation system for the research programs.

7. *Promotion and encouragement of systematic reporting of gender-relevant lessons learned, and subsequent program adaptation:* The results of a specific development intervention must be analyzed, synthesized, and reported to be useful for managing the activity itself and for designing subsequent activities.

   Gender-sensitive reporting systematically channels information on whether programs affect women and men differently to decisionmakers. The lessons learned should be "translated" into operational principles for program or project adaptation, if needed, to allow adjustment of new initiatives to meet both women's and men's needs more equitably. This final step starts the "gender institutionalization cycle" again, this time at a more informed and realistic level, and based on broad experience and a systematic gender-sensitive approach.

   Possible operational mechanisms for addressing the issue of reporting are a) staffing with specialists trained in gender analysis, and b) continued training of the research staff.

Table 1 (on the following page) presents the basic elements and operational mechanisms discussed above, that can be used to assess the research organization's commitment and capability for addressing gender issues in its portfolio. Column 2 is a list of questions that can help to identify if certain mechanisms exist in the organization to operationalize gender awareness. Column 3 is for checking the availability of the various mechanisms within the organization. Comments and needs for clarification should be noted in column 4.

Table 1: Checklist for identifying mechanisms for operationalizing gender awareness

Element	Operational Mechanism	Check	Comments
Awareness	Gender policy - Written policy/mission order? - Staff awareness of policy? - Staff gender sensitization training?		
Commitment	Implementation of policy? Gender action plan - Plan developed, dates,updates? - Integrated in mission strategy? -Compliance tracked/consequences Administrative structure(s) - Structure in Place - Responsibility defined? - Organizational placement?		
Formulation of relevant programs	Knowledge, training -Social scientists in the research team? - Are they trained in gender analysis, etc? - Other research staff have basic training in gender analysis, etc? Examples Resource/guidance - Sex-disaggregated data systematically gathered? - Written information and guidance on policy-relevant gender questions available?		
Gender Analysis	Capacity for translating sex-disaggregated data into gender analysis? by social scientists? - Technical assistance available? - Resources for gender analysis? - Knowledge about gender analysis? - How has this helped been used in the past?		
Application of Funding	- Gender-integrating PM&E systems impact studies? - Reporting of gender-relevant data and issues?		
Reporting of lessons learned	- Systematic analysis of lessons learned? (i.e. what difference did it make?) - Feedback into programming cycle? Mission/Bureau specific mechanisms (describe)		

Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Research Management: Administrative Structures and Approaches

1. Creating an environment in your research institute or center that is capable of being proactive and reactive to gender concerns in agricultural and natural resource research is the topic of this session. It is not an easy topic because it often makes each of us think about issues which are highly personal. For instance, you may find that you are asking yourself, how do I treat my work colleagues or how am I treated by them? How does my

organization tackle issues around sensitive topics such as gender discrimination, career promotion, and respect for diversity in gender, as well as issues surrounding age, race, ethnicity, education and class?

2. The principles of institutionalizing gender awareness in operational structures and interventions recognize that:

   - gender issues are a concern within the organization
   - a foundation for the legitimacy and support to research actions and activities is needed;
   - Gender equity is important for motivating staff and achieving the organizations' objective.

   Now let us consider organizational structures and approaches which include advisory and evaluation services for staff.

   Keep in mind that tomorrow we are going to address the final component: Human resource management which includes:

   - staffing
   - training, recognition, and promotion
   - strategies for change.

3. Organizational Structures and Approaches — Advisory and Evaluation Services For Staff.

   Leadership and management in NARS determine how policies and procedures are followed or implemented. The commitment of leaders affects:

   - issues that are addressed by the system
   - the commitment of managers, which affects how research issues are dealt with at the local level.

4. A built-in mechanism for advising and reporting on progress toward implementing gender policy can ensure that institutions are responsive to these issues. In the past, several approaches have been taken toward creating a gender advisory and evaluation service:

   - creation of a *gender focal point* or unit within a NARO to act as an advisory service or lead group on gender-related research and management issues;
   - *mainstreaming gender* within the existing structure, so that everyone is involved to some extent in gender-related research and management issues;
   - creation of an *ad hoc task force* for evaluating gender issues in research and management in the institution.

5. Creation of a *gender focal point* — may be one individual or a small group of individuals who have been mandated to provide input to gender-related programming or projects on an on-going basis. They also serve as a "go-between;" appraising and advising on concerns related to gender issues in the institution.

6. *Mainstreaming* of gender within the structure of an organization is a popular topic today in institutional capacity building. Essentially this term refers to "building in" gender advisory and evaluation services within all departments of an organization. In other words, everyone does gender-related work and everyone should be enabled to address gender issues in the workplace. However, mainstreaming means different things to different organizations. If you look at handout 2.3.4, you can see the range of answers collected during a United Nations meeting.

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7. The creation of an *ad hoc task force* has been another method of addressing gender concerns in institutional development. This is a temporary advisory and evaluation service set up as needed within an institution. It can involve outside consultants or be composed of in-house staff.

In the upcoming exercise, workshop participants have an opportunity to discuss the topic of institutionalizing gender awareness and the various approaches to setting up a gender advisory and evaluation service in their NAROs.

8. It is important to keep in mind that the decision to change administrative structures and approaches, including the creation of a gender advisory and evaluation service for staff (a gender focal point for the mainstreaming of gender, or an ad hoc task force), involves a process of change which may be met with resistance. The diagram illustrates how moving from an actual situation to a future situation based on change through intervention creates a resistance to change. This resistance to change, and its effective management, is also part of the institutionalization of gender awareness.

Institutionalization of Strategic Planning[1]

This section emphasizes the need to internalize, put into operation, and institutionalize Strategic Planning (SP) within any national agricultural research institution (NARI). Training in SP per se is not effective unless it is included within an institutionalization process, or other planning activities and related functions aimed at achieving effective and efficient institutional research management and administration.

Definition

Institutionalization can be broadly defined as a process by which the structure and organization of any function, activity, or methodology — in this case Strategic Planning — is accepted with predictable patterns and guidelines of action and interaction, in order to achieve a determined goal.

Institutionalization Process

As in any other process, the institutionalization of a function, activity, or methodology demands that the process follow a series of steps or sequences aimed toward its inclusion within the National Agricultural Research System (see Figure 1).

The diagram in Figure 1 depicts, on the one hand, the need to analyze and program what Strategic Planning would mean within a NARI. It begins with a **Diagnosis** of the current situation of the Strategic Planning. The next step would be the design and definition of the future objectives, functions, and activities of the Strategic Planning within the overall planning function. At this stage, the priority, hierarchy, and dimension of the SP activity would also be defined. At the same time, the national capacity of the institution to carry out activities inherent to Strategic Planning would be developed within a coherent, flexible, and functional planning system operating at different levels of activity and decision.

Figure 1 also outlines the key factors to take into account during the process of institutionalizing Strategic Planning. It refers to the factors that generally make Strategic Planning functional:

- formalization
- structure and organization
- management tools
- mechanisms/relationships
- resources
- operation
- feedback

1 This handout was prepared by Dr. Carlos Valverde from ISNAR's Management Program II. SADC/ESAMI/ISNAR Training Module on Strategic Planning. 1996. It provides an explanation of the institutionalization of strategic planning, a process which compares to the institutionalization of gender awareness.

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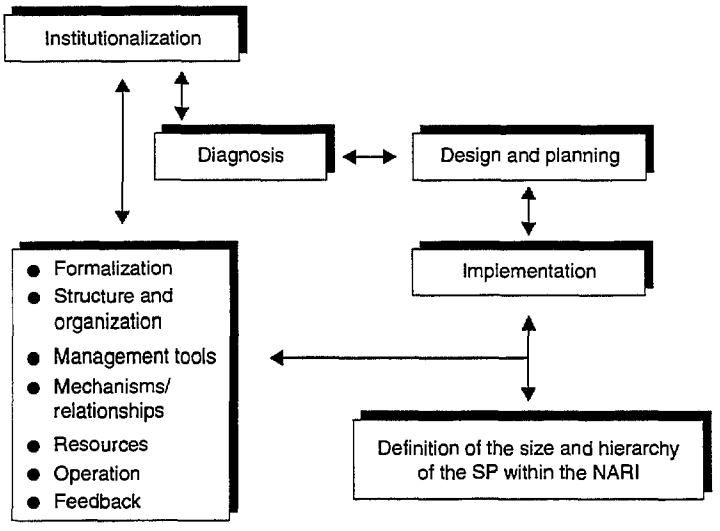

Figure 1. The institutionalization of strategic planning

Figure 1 could be used as a reference/framework, for example, for indicating that training activities should be included within the cluster of activities referred to as management tools. Training in the use and operation of Strategic Planning is the most important link to facilitate its internalization and future adaptation within the institution. It would be advantageous to have Strategic Planning Training Modules at hand. They are indeed helpful in its internalization process.

In the case of *formalization,* leadership, strategy, and institutional culture play very important roles in institutionalizing concrete, strategic activities, as in the case of Strategic Planning. Many national research institutions have formalized Strategic Planning as an official tool when planning their activities.

With regard to *structure and organization*, care should be taken not to lose sight of the fact that Strategic Planning is a methodology. It should not necessarily be seen in terms of structured boxes and divisions at all levels. Depending on the dimension of the national research system, particularly in small countries, the structure and organization of the Strategic Planning should not be rigidly framed. Rather, it should be organized as a strategic activity, and sometimes be of a loose nature in the form of an ad hoc committee or task force, fundamental for the institution. There should be a clear definition of the responsibilities and flows of information at the different levels of activity and operation.

In terms of *mechanisms and relationships*, institutionalization of the Strategic Planning should not be seen as isolated, but rather as a component of other managerial and administrative functions and activities, particularly those closely related to *programming, budgeting, and information.* It should be remembered that these components fulfill functions interrelated with those of monitoring and evaluation and, overall, constitute the planning process of any national research institution.

It is impossible to put Strategic Planning into operation without providing human, physical, and financial resources, which should be taken into account when determining its nature, dimension, and form of operation.

To make the application of Strategic Planning truly effective, the necessary tools must be provided. The necessary protocols, procedures, and guidelines must exist to permit the activities to be carried out and the Strategic Planning put into practice. The material provided in this training module offers the basic elements needed for preparing such tools.

Strategic Planning should be understood as an dynamic exercise, a flexible, interactive process, and open to continuous improvement. That is why it is necessary to have some kind of *feedback* mechanism.

Resistance to Change

Human behavior and the desire for change contribute toward the success or failure of any institutionalization effort. The institutionalization of essential strategic functions and activities, which usually bring about changes in the management and administration of an institute, require particular consideration in terms of the behavior of those related to, or affected by, its internalization and future operation. This is especially true when dealing with activities affecting or having operational consequences on the performance of the researchers and their collaborators.

It is possible that the institutionalization of Strategic Planning could meet with resistance. This could be expressed passively, actively, or sometimes aggressively (see Figure 2). Such resistance will need to be managed properly to facilitate the institutionalization of SP within a NARS.

This situation, commonly known as *resistance to change (RC)*, requires that any institutionalization process generating change, whether it be function or activity, pay special attention to Strategic Management. It also requires that the design and development of strategies manage those difficult circumstances which may be the cause of failure of the changes to be introduced through Strategic Planning and implementation activities.

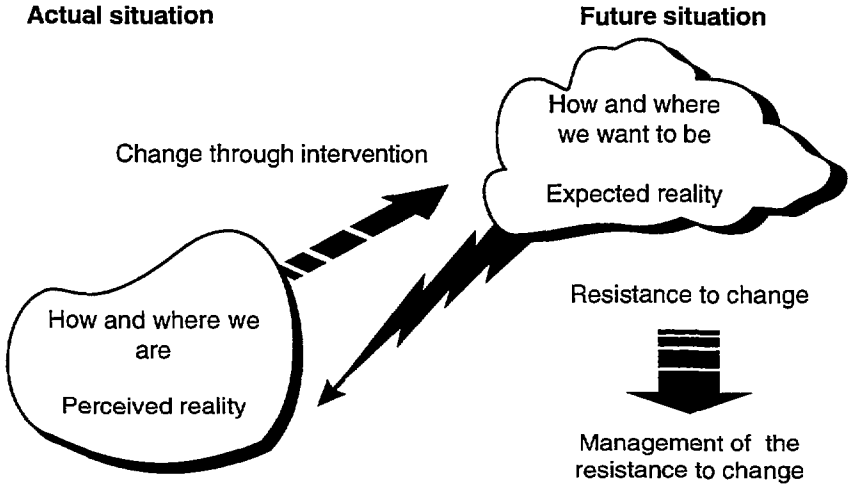

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Figure 2. The Change process

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Final Remarks

The institutionalization of Strategic Planning as an essential decisionmaking tool must avoid so-called "over-institutionalization." This would be futile, difficult to manage, and would probably fail. Neither should this institutionalization be exceptionally weak, only realistically suited to the conditions of the country. In extreme cases, it would be better not to institutionalize SP at all. The training of those who direct and implement SP it is important, as it gives the necessary importance and technical and professional precision to any Strategic Planning exercise.

There is no universal principle on how to institutionalize a strategic process. When trying to put Strategic Planning into operation at any NARI, it may be useful to take into account the diagram shown and the observation made on the fear of change.

The experience of both the actors involved in Strategic Planning and the directors of the research institutions is what counts when directing and making the institutionalization process happen.

The Meaning of Mainstreaming[1]

"Mainstreaming" means different things to different people. Here are a range of meanings and approaches to mainstreaming the women in development (WID) approach.[1]

Uses and meanings of mainstreaming:

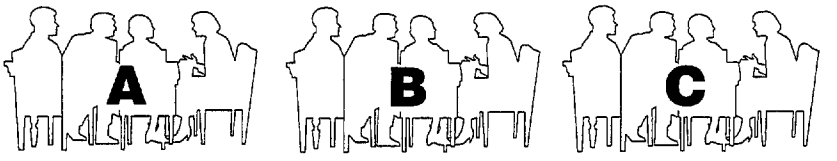
- To ensure that women's issues are incorporated into policymaking machinery.
- To influence the programming and policies of mainstream agencies.
- To make it impossible for people or agencies to ignore, forget, overlook, or fail to take account of women and women's issues.
- To gain resource allocations directed toward women.
- To enable women to acquire equitable shares in the control and management of development processes and outcomes.
- To strengthen women's active involvement in development.
- To catalyze other (mainstream) agencies, governments and non-governmental organizations to support activities to benefit women.
- To incorporate WID dimensions into agency structures and programs.
- To integrate gender dimensions (or women/women's concerns) into development, development programming and planning, development models.
- To incorporate women in decisionmaking at all levels.
- To ensure that women are seen as clients in all development programming.
- To get every department and division to use gender analysis in their work.
- To ensure gender responsiveness in mainstream projects.
- To devolve responsibility for ensuring gender-awareness to all sections and staff of the agency.
- To ensure that all programs serve to promote equality.

1 Mary B. Anderson. Women on the Agenda: UNIFEM's Experience in Mainstreaming with Women 1985-1990. New York:UNIFEM

Exercise 4. Organizational structure and gender issues in the NARS

Phase 1. Group work (45 minutes)

1. Form three groups, each group electing a rapporteur. Each group will be assigned a question.



2. Read this handout (2.4.4), and discuss the question assigned to your group. In this discussion share your experience in gender issues in research management in your country. You may want to use handout 2.4.5 to write down your answers. (30 minutes)

   A. What might be some of the advantages and disadvantages of each of the following approaches to gender-related advisory services?

      - creation of a gender **focal point or unit** within a NARO to act as an advisory service or lead group on gender-related research and management issues;
      - **mainstreaming** gender within the existing structure so that everyone is involved to some extent in gender-related research and management issues;
      - creation of an **ad hoc task force** for evaluating gender issues in research and management in the institution.

   B. What do you think are the major signs of "resistance to change" associated with forming gender advisory or evaluation services in NAROs? Please give examples from your NARO, if possible.

   C. Select one type of advisory and evaluation service for institutionalizing gender awareness in research management and write 5-10 key points as terms of reference.

3. The rapporteurs write a summary of their group's discussion. (15 minutes)

Phase 2. Reporting and discussion (30 minutes)

4. The rapporteurs present the summary of their group's discussion. Each rapporteur has five minutes to present.

5. The trainer will invite you to give feedback on the presentations.

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Exercise 4. Worksheet

What might be some of the advantages and disadvantages of each of the discussed approaches to gender-related advisory services? Are there other approaches used in your NARO?

What do you think are the major signs of "resistance to change" associated with forming gender advisory or evaluation services in NAROs? Please give examples from your NARO, if possible.

Select one type of advisory and evaluation service for institutionalizing gender concerns in research management and write 5-10 key points as terms of reference.

Sexist Management—A Dying Style?[1]

For several years ESAMI has been offering executive skills seminars to women. The similarity of experiences of discrimination reported by women made it clear that a survey of organizations in the region, to identify existing gender issues, was necessary.

The survey was conducted by Dr. Hilda M. Tadria, WID/WIM consultant, ESAMI. A comparative study was undertaken in three countries, in preparation for a workshop on critical development issues in management development for public enterprises, with funding from CIDA (MFCP). In each of the countries, the three major parastatal organizations were selected for the survey. The major objective of the comparative survey was to identify and try to understand the key issues involved in women's career advancement and success in corporate organizations.

Top management views

Views of female and male managers and top executives were collected in personal interviews and discussions with men and women from the top four levels of management.

In comparing the enterprises, 12 definite similar issues emerged:

1. The top executive levels in all organizations are occupied mainly by male managers, as statistics indicated. When the number of men and women in the top three levels were compared, women formed 11% of top management in organization A, 5.9% in B, and 1.2% in C.

2. In the few cases where women have progressed to the top, individual male bosses have played a big part in monitoring and pushing the female manager — sometimes against her own will.

3. In all the organizations, women joined several years after the organization was established. In fact, the women talked to were the second generation in the organization.

4. Corporate views, policy, and practice vis-à-vis women employees is, to a certain extent, still negatively influenced by individual perceptions of cultural gender roles, relations and hierarchies. The cultural perceptions were clear in the views of male managers about their female colleagues. The negative influence was experienced especially in relation to recruitment, task allocation, opportunities for career mobility, day-to-day interpersonal interaction, and in the distribution of corporate benefits. Every woman talked to had experienced some form of practical sexism at one time.

5. The women who had made it to the top credited the major part of their success to strong home management resources. A supportive spouse was identified as one of the major factors accounting for the women's success. Another factor was the women's ability to develop skills appropriate for survival in what they identified as sexism in management. The most important success skills were said to be: assertiveness, self-confidence, toughness, knowing your boss and your job, ability to work very hard (in fact, ability to work twice as hard as the man), and adopting honest and exemplary life styles.

1 Dr Hilda M. Tadria, African Management Development Forum, 2(2) August 1991

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6. All the women in top management were said to have progressed through hard work, and continued to put up with very heavy demands from both the social and corporate environment.

Be like men

7. Interviews with women managers showed that they felt caught between the contradictions and dilemmas in which corporate enterprises operated. On the one hand, the women were challenged and told (indeed, expected) to be "like men" in the corporate enterprise. On the other hand, corporate enterprises rewarded their female workers "like women," in line with domestic gender role expectations. The external social environment, too, positively evaluated the women who behaved "like women," while those who behaved "like men" were negatively evaluated.

8. Discussions with the male managers revealed an encouragingly growing awareness of the need to pay special attention to gender issues in management. A few of the male interviewees were of the view that sexist management was a dying style. They also recognized the need for male managers especially to critically examine their perceptions of the male and female manager.

9. The corporate enterprises surveyed had already initiated a number of meaningful and practical equal opportunity schemes. Although it was seen that, in some cases, individual bosses imposed personal gender biases in implementing the schemes.

10. In general, in comparing the management effectiveness of men and women in the corporate organizations surveyed, everyone (men and women) rated the women in the top levels higher than the men at the same level. The women were described as very hard-working, honest, stable, and committed to the organization.

11. While most of the men talked to viewed the family as the woman's biggest constraint in career development, the women who had reached the top no longer felt that the family was a constraint. Some women were aware, however, that the "corporate boss" uses the family as an excuse to deny women career opportunities.

12. In general, while a number of women were able to describe examples of how they were treated differently from men by corporate policy and practice, they still described their organization as an "equal opportunity employer," if women qualify. Very few women were able to perceive the possibility that some of the reasons women did not qualify could be related to the fact that their organization was NOT an equal opportunity employer.

During the brief study, so many young, enthusiastic men and women executives — as well as a number of other men and women — were all equally willing to question and break out of their cultural value boundaries. Because of these women and men, there is room to believe that "sexist management is a dying style of management."

Gender and Administration[1]

There is a feature of institutional failure in development which has not, by and large, been a concern of either the conventional development administration literature, or the efforts over the last decade to improve the accountability of public administration. It is the persistent failure of public service delivery agencies to include women equitably amongst the "publics" they ostensibly serve. Feminist policy advocates have responded to this problem since the 1970s with the demand that states and development institutions "integrate" women into development policy and practice. But despite the fact that the "integration of women in development" is now a virtually obligatory part of catechisms of social and economic justice in most developing states, the pursuit of gender policy[2] ambitions through public institutions has improved women's condition only at the margins of survival at best. Moreover, it has consistently failed to advance women's participation in decisionmaking, whether it be in the family, the community, bureaucratic institutions, or the state. This persistent institutional failure to respond to women's needs and interests in development, despite constant efforts by gender policy advocates to adapt feminist policy ambitions to changing development agendas, and despite the sometimes genuine good intentions of governments, invites theoretical attention to the gender dimensions and politics of public administration, which underwrite this particular pattern of institutional failure.

The problem here is not just that feminist policy ambitions are being ground to dust by the slow crunch of bureaucratic gears in the way of so much redistributive policy. Rather, this article will argue that public administration is in itself a gendered and gendering process, such that its outcomes, internal organization, and culture reflect and promote the interests of men. "Gender" refers to the socially constructed and institutionalized forms of identity which are attached to biological sex differences, and "gendering" is the process producing these forms, through the granting or withholding of significant social, political, and economic resources and values. The economic and political centrality of public service agencies in development contexts is such that they are in a position to contribute to this latter process through what they provide or regulate. Because of this, they can reflect and reproduce the pathologies of women's marginality which result from the interaction of a range of other institutions. At the same time, they are an important player for taking a public stance against this process, and for transforming it in women's interests. For this to be possible, for gender policy in development to be successful, it is important to understand not just the role of public administration in producing gendered outcomes, but the role of gender in structuring power and opportunity within administration, and the links between these two processes.

This article sets out a conceptual framework for the analysis of the gender of public administration in development. The focus will be primarily on public service delivery in the agricultural

1 Anne Marie Goetz, 1992 Gender and administration. IDS Bulletin 23(4):6-17

2 I use the term "gender policy" as a shorthand for policies designed to redistribute resources and values in development between the sexes, so as to transform asymmetries of significance and power associated with gender difference. It is distinct from the more familiar term "women in development" (WID) policy in that the stress on gender is a reminder that men are as much constrained by as implicated in systems of domination, and that attempts to redress gender inequities must directly involve men. WID policy, on the other hand, has preoccupied itself with easing women's access to development, which has tended to detract attention from the relational dimensions of their disprivilege.

sector, as this remains the institutional arena most resistant to the admission of women's needs and interests in agrarian economies.

Gender Policy Goals in Development: A Review of Implementation and Institutionalization

The traditional technicist view of bureaucratic organizations holds that administration operates on meritorious principles which are gender- (and class- and race-) neutral, and that neither the sex of bureaucrats nor of policy recipients makes a difference to the objectives of policy, to the ways policies are implemented, or to the ways in which the interests of men and women are institutionalized in public administration. A brief survey of the topography of public administration in development offers evidence to challenge these assumptions of gender-neutrality.

Analysts of gender policy in development have pointed to a gender-specific pattern in the way public service institutions address people's needs in development. Women are most often the objects of public administration for sex-typed services which target women's reproductive functions—either biological (as in the case of family planning services), or social (as in community management services). Public administration concerned with "mainstream" development sectors, such as industry, agriculture, and infrastructure, tend to exclude the majority of women outright. This exclusion is most striking in the case of agricultural sector services, despite evidence of women's centrality to subsistence agriculture in many agrarian economies. Across Africa, for example, where women are responsible for 60% of total agricultural output and 80% of food production (Downs 1991), women farmers receive less than 2% of extension contacts (Lele 1991,58; Staudt 1978a, 1978b, 1985). Kathleen Staudt has observed that the bias against women farm managers increases in intensity as the value of the agricultural service increases (Staudt 1978b), and this is true for a range of other agricultural institutions such as marketing boards, research institutions, and credit agencies (Downs 1991). That these services overlook women farmers raises serious doubts about the merit-based principles which supposedly guide bureaucratic processes of need identification and satisfaction.

Staudt's important early study of agricultural extension in Kenya pointed to the absence of clear gender policy goals as the cause of administrative neglect (1978b, 401). But although it has since become customary to espouse such goals, outcomes remain broadly similar. For example, despite policy rhetoric claiming gender-egalitarian approaches in both state and non-governmental rural credit and income-generating programs in Bangladesh, studies have shown common and consistent gender-differentials in project implementation. Fewer women than men are members of these programs but, even where they form a majority, as in the Graineen Bank or the Bangladesh Rural Action Committee, the credit they receive is not proportional to their representation as members. Individually, they receive credit in much smaller amounts than men, training is for low-profit, sex-stereotyped activities and, unlike men, their program membership may be made conditional on their acceptance of family planning measures (Feldman and McCarthy 1984; Safilios-Rothschild and Mahmud 1989; Goetz 1991).

The political history of feminist perspectives on development and efforts to institutionalize women's interests has followed a similar trajectory of marginalization. Bureaus concerned with gender and development in states and development administrations, and their research and policy initiatives, are often perched on the peripheries of "mainstream" development concerns; never in the economic planning divisions, often in the social welfare sectors. That the World Bank's Division of Women in Development is located in its Population and Human Resources Department, for example, clearly signals the Bank's view of women's place. Units such as these command few resources in staff or funds. The development agencies of the UN — the system which sponsored the international Decade for Women (1976-1985) — allocates just 0.2% of the

overall budget to projects which benefit women; less than 1% of Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) projects specify strategies to reach women farmers (Staudt 1990:5).

From the point of view of the distribution of responsibility, labor, and power between women and men as workers in public administration, it is possible to map out gender divisions in the administrative structures of most states along horizontal and vertical lines, both across public institutions at a collective level and within them. Women bureaucrats are to be found most often in institutions on the margins of the state apparatus: in the service sectors, such as nursing, community care, nursery and primary education, and involved in activities often modeled on extensions of women's domestic work. This gender segmentation occurs in public institutions devoted exclusively to these concerns, or in isolated policy desks within "mainstream" agencies — as is the case with "home economics" units in agricultural development agencies. Illustrative of this gendered functional division is again the case of agricultural extension services in Africa, where women are mostly absent from the ranks of extension agents trained in crop production: in the mid-1980s, on average, less than three percent of African extension agents were women, with a maximum of nine percent in Nigeria, and most of these were trained in home economics (Berger et al. 1984; Hirschmann and Vaughan 1984).

Even in these sex-typed specialization, women rarely break through management hierarchies to reach policymaking positions. Where governance, economic management, and coercion is concerned in more central state institutions such as the legislature, the judiciary, revenue-collecting services, the police, and the military, women virtually disappear as policymakers, managers, and administrators.

In the past, feminist explanations for the "misbehavior" (Buvinic 1986) of gender policy, for the marginalization of women's interests within public institutions generally, and for women's difficulties in climbing managerial hierarchies, have tended to suggest that women's disprivilege is largely the outcome of the operation of basic institutions through which social and economic values are distributed: the market, the household, and private property.[3] But from the above brief inventory, it is evident that the ideological and material factors which contribute to women's poverty and to the devaluation of their productive and reproductive contributions may actually be reproduced by the way women are made objects of policy attention, the way their interests are (or are not) institutionalized, and the way they are distributed as workers within public administration.

Feminist analyses of the gender-differential impact of public administration in development have exposed the fallacies of pretensions to gender neutrality in state policy by demonstrating that citizenship and public policy clientship are gendered. But the persistent misrouting of corrective gender policy measures and the institutionalization of women's interests on the peripheries of planning, powerfully suggest that administration is also gendered.

What a Gendered Theory of Organization Would Have to Address

What has to be explained is the persistence of male domination across a range of relationships, both internal and external, sustained by public service agencies in development. But for much of conventional organization theory, male domination in organizational structures and outcomes is so commonplace that it simply does not excite theoretical attention or even empirical

3 In this the gender and development (GAD) literature follows a pattern in the rich and vast, popular and academic feminist literature on women and work which follows human capital assumptions. Thus women's negative organizational prospects tend to be traced to extra-organizational constraints on women's educational levels and labor-force distribution (e.g. Pollert 1981; Wallace 1982).

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exploration. Even critical perspectives on organizations which focus on features of control, power, and exploitation within organizations have remained oblivious to the role of gender in shaping organizational power relations (e.g. Bacharach and Lawler 1980; Schaffer 1984; Wood 1985). Certainly this is the case in the enormous body of literature which applies public administration theory to the project of enhancing the responsiveness of rural development bureaucracies to local needs.[4]

A striking example of this is David Leonard's 1977 study of the determinants of the responsiveness of agricultural extension workers to farmers in western Kenya. Though his use of organization theory produces a set of systematic, empirically based propositions on supervision, staff motivation, feedback, and managerial structures to explain the determinants of extension worker behavior and the consequent class and ethnic biases of the extension service, he entirely overlooks its glaring gender bias — namely, the neglect of women's farming needs in the agrarian economy. Clearly, the "farmer" whose productivity is at the "very center" of Leonard's and the agricultural service's concern is not a woman (Leonard 1977). In contrast, Staudt's study of the same service, in the same period, in the same region, demonstrates how stark this oversight is: fully 40% of the farms in the area were female-managed (Staudt 1978a, 442).

What produces this gender-blindness in administration? Perhaps because the absence of women as workers in a range of public administrations is so striking, it is tempting to speculate that there is a relationship between the gender of bureaucratic agents and the targets of their interventions. On the other hand, are women's experiences with organizations, both as workers and clients, part of a substantive set of gendered power relations which saturate organization and administration and shape the relationship of administration to society? If the latter is true, then merely adding women on as independent variables affecting the bureaucratic form and bureaucratic outcomes is not enough to explain how and why bureaucracies discriminate against women.

The shortcomings of the failure to recognize gender as a dimension motivating bureaucratic forms and actions (interconnected with other dimensions such as race and class), are evident in one of the first systematic feminist explorations of organizational behavior, Rosabeth Moss Kanter's study of *Men and Women of the Corporation* (1977). Moss Kanter suggests that observed sex differences in managerial studies and women's promotional problems reflect less on women's gender than on their minority status as a group and their under representation in organizational authority hierarchies. In other words, what appear to be sex differences are problems of powerlessness: "power wipes out sex" (Moss Kanter 1977, 201) and, by extension, the gender characteristics of men and women are irrelevant to their prospects within organizations (Moss Kanter 1977, 291-2). But this cannot account for gender differences in experiences of minorities in organizations. Male nurses, for example, seem to manage to avoid much of the negative evaluation and lack of job mobility which women face in male-dominated organizations. In contrast, women fail to reach executive and policymaking positions in organizations in which they actually are dominant, as is the case in health, social welfare, and primary education institutions, as well as in much of the voluntary sector.

It also cannot explain why the women who do succeed in climbing organizational hierarchies seem to find it useful to adopt sociological attributes of masculinity in their dress and deportment, in their management styles, or their family responsibilities, minimizing the demands on their

4 See Montgomery (1988) for a review of two decades of research on rural development administration in developing countries.

time of domestic responsibilities (Hale and Kelly 1989, 146-7). In other words, biological and social masculinity seems to confer a certain amount of organizational power.

This is an insight which equal opportunity policies, animated by the suggestion that women's organizational powerlessness is a function of their under representation, have failed to take on board. As a consequence, equal opportunity policies have yet to fundamentally alter gendered opportunity structures within organizations; they have helped individual women, but not women as a group (Hale and Kelly 1989, 7-13; Lovenduski 1989). They have also yet to make appreciable inroads on upper-level management and on features of organizational structures and cultures which women may find oppressive and obstructive; features such as the organization of the working day around a time schedule which does not accommodate childcare demands, or performance reviews which punish women for taking time out for childbearing. Simply "adding women on," whether as individuals to organizations, or as categories to conventional organizational theory, fails to either challenge male dominance or specify the connections between masculinity and organizational power. In this conception, bureaucracies are inculpable, and the politics of gender privilege are assumed to occur somewhere else.

What is needed, then, is an appreciation of the connections between gendered social relationships, and gendered organizational relationships in public administration. The gendered "institutional materiality" (Poulantzas 1973) of organizations must be understood, as must a history of this process, if feminist policy ambitions are to be realized through public administration.

In recent years, feminist students of organizations have argued for a re-theorization of the field of organizational analysis from a gender perspective across a range of expressions of the bureaucratic form: from bureaucratic procedures and discourses (Ferguson 1984; Mueller 1985), to bureaucratic hierarchies and management structures (Acker 1990; Zellman 1976), to the effect of the sex composition of the workforce on workplace cultures (Izraeli 1983; Yancey-Martin 1985). The recognition that sexual harassment may be a component of organizational structure and not the expression of individual deviance (MacKinnon 1979; Gutek 1985) has provoked a concern to theorize sexuality, not just gender, as a key feature of organizational power (Hearn and Parkin 1987; Hearn et al. 1989). Since few of these feminist approaches have made their way into the empirical study of development administration in the gender and development literature,[5] I will apply insights from this feminist literature to such information as is available on gender in development administration.

Administration and the Gendering of the Public and the Private

Understanding gender as constitutive of, not contingent to, administration involves tracing the connection between gender, power, and organization. The essence of this connection is suggested by Joan Scott's proposal that the definition of gender "rests on an integral connection between two propositions; gender is a constitutive element of social relationships based on perceived differences between the sexes, and gender is a primary way of signifying relationships of power" (1986, 1067).

That gender is constitutive of social relations is familiar enough in the "domestic" sphere, where gender signals culturally specified divisions of labor, reward, and power in the family or kinship structures. But it is less evident in the case of supposedly gender-neutral "public" organizations.[6]

5 An important and consistent exception has been the work of the WID policy analysts Kathleen Staudt and Jane Jaquette, who were among the first to direct attention to the relationship of gendered authority structures in states and public services agencies — or what Staudt has identified as "gendered bureaucratic resistance" to patterns of gender inequality in society. See Staudt (1978a, b, 1985, 1990) and Staudt and Jaquette (1988).

Indeed, implicit in the typical Weberian bureaucracy, which is based on the separation of a public world of rationality and efficiency from a private world of emotional and personal life, is the notion that neither gender, nor any other "structures of domination which (have) no rational character" (Gerth and Mills 1958, 244) have any place in the merit-based impersonal organizations which replaced rule by patronage. But it is Scott's insistence on a connection between gender and power which invites consideration of the role of gender in the constitution of bureaucratic administration. This is because bureaucracy, as a form of institution and as an organizing practice, is one of the most conspicuous features of the way power and authority are organized and expressed in modern states (Foucault 1981).

Recent socialist-feminist analyses of social policy and public administration in the West have demonstrated that part of the definition of the state and the delimitation of its proper sphere involves the active codification and policing of the boundaries between the "private" and the "public" (Fraser 1989). In most modern states, these boundaries also delineate gendered spheres of activity: the paradigmatic subject of the public and economic arena is male, while that of the private and domestic arena is female. By confirming the institutional arrangements which distinguish the private from the public, public administrations are involved in the social and political institutionalizing of the power asymmetries attached to gender difference, through policy infrastructures which confirm and reinforce women's contractual inferiority in the family and the market.

This process, through which connections are forged between men's private and public power, occurs at several levels. To begin with, the modern state structures so celebrated by Weber were built out of a contract which, in its Lockean renunciation of political patriarchy and its relegation of the family to the periphery of the political organization of "free and equal men," quite literally and explicitly excluded women (Held 1990, 103; Pateman 1988, Moller Okin 1991). This was justified by the assumption that unitary gender interests existed both within the family and in relation to the public sphere, such that men as a collectivity were thought to be qualified to represent women's interests, just as individual male heads of households presumed to do this (Hale and Kelly 1989, 4-5). This has had enduring implications for the role of public institutions in constructing cultural distinctions between a masculinized public sphere and a feminized private sphere.

In the second place, men's literal, physical monopoly of public organizational space meant that organizational structures, hierarchies, norms, rules, and functional categorizations are designed to accommodate men's but not women's, socially-constructed labor and time capabilities — namely, their relative freedom from child care and domestic responsibilities, and the fact that they cannot give birth. As Pateman notes, "apparently universal categories, such as the individual, the worker, the social or the political, are sexually particular, constructed on the basis of male attributes, capacities, and modes of activity" (1986, 7). This bureaucratic grammar of internal rules and procedures directly affects the experiences of women as individual bureaucrats, where the obligation to adapt to organizational forms and practices designed for the bodily presence of men imposes a Procrustean template over their very different bodily functions and family responsibilities. Unable to guarantee the same quantity of time and emotional and physical

6 In the "public/private" dichotomy I am discussing here, I take the "private" to refer to the realm of the domestic—the family, and not to the socioeconomic arena of civil society. As Susan Moller Okin points out, there is considerable ambiguity in current usage of the public/private distinction , with the "private" often taken to include two major societal zones: the (formal) market and a range of other social institutions, and the family (1991,68).

energies to the organization as men can, women are penalized by exclusion from promotional opportunities, if not by exclusion from the working world altogether.

This literal male dominance has shaped organizational structures and workplace cultures, such that organizational hierarchies, languages, rationalities, means of coordination, and interpersonal interactions are ascribed a gendered character. Whether these distinctive features of administration, such as the valorization of instrumental rationality, top-down command and communication systems, specialization, as well as aggressive, goal-oriented studies of management, represent innate sex characteristics, is a matter of some debate and will be considered below. Again, this has implications for the experiences of women as individual bureaucrats and as a group: women who may favor different studies of management and interaction, but may find the expression of these preferences penalized.

In the third place, men's monopoly over public forms of material and power resources gives them control over the means of symbolic production (Mackie 1987, 28), with the consequence that greater cultural significance has come to be attached to public — and hence implicitly male — activities. Simultaneously domestic and implicitly female activities have been inferiorized. This is reflected in organizational value systems, in symbols of success and failure, in the gendering of particular types of skills, of permitted behaviors, and of locations in physical space. In all of this, symbols of masculinity are associated with achievement and accomplishment, and femininity with the opposite. Here, too, the symbolic significance of the gendered public/private divide may also be employed to devalue the contribution of women individually and as a group by associating their presence and effectivity with their roles in the private sphere — a feminizing, domesticating, and sexualizing of their public identities. To quote Pateman again, women "have not been incorporated into the patriarchal structure of capitalist employment as 'workers,' they have been incorporated as women; and how can it be otherwise when women are not, and cannot be, men? The sexual contract is an integral part of civil society and of the employment contract; sexual domination structures the workplace as well as the conjugal home" (1988, 142).

The most blatant expression of this is the problem of sexual harassment, now recognized to be more prevalent than ever across a range of institutions, from the shop floor (Pollert 1981), to white collar work (Gutek 1985; Di Tomasso 1989), to the ivory tower (Ramazanoglu 1987). Inescapably, sexual harassment, along with the associations made between symbolic expressions of masculinity and power, suggests that sexuality, as much as gender, is constitutive of organizational relationships. The Weberian supposition that administration can be separated from social relations is exposed as false once women trespass on organizational spaces.

This schematization of the connections between gendering processes, organizations, and power calls attention to the historically produced nature of masculine dominance in organizations. Third World public administrations, with different histories and traditions of socialization (albeit often deeply influenced in structure and practice by both Western colonial administrations and, in the context of aid dependency, by donor agencies), can be expected to have institutionalized different expressions of male power, and to be differently involved in the creation and policing of boundaries between public and private provision and effectively, depending upon domestic gender politics. This will have implications for the problems and prospects of feminist policy ambitions in developing countries. Attention to the historically and culturally specific nature of gendered dominance politics within organizations provides a reminder that the structures, cultures, and the power associated with gendered agency, and the way this is institutionalized in administrative relationships, is a socially constructed but not a necessary part of administration and is, therefore, open to change through purposive gender politics.

The role of public administration in gendering processes is of particular importance in developing countries, where it has played a much more central role in the direction and running of the economy than in most Western states. The imperatives of modernization and (sometimes) distributional justice highlight and justify the interventionist responsibilities of the state in the economic and social activities, both public and private, of its citizens. For this reason the political functions of the state are less straightforwardly detached from its administrative apparatuses, and the boundaries between "public" and "private" can be differently drawn. National development administrations are politically central in these contexts for another reason — they are the central arenas for competition over resources where conditions of scarcity and generalized poverty have disrupted traditional structures of provision. This makes them one of the most important locations from which gender-linked interpretations of people's needs and appropriate social roles emanate.

In what follows, gendered organizational relationships, structures, and cultures are explored and illustrated with examples drawn mainly from rural development administration in Bangladesh.

Gendered Organization Relationships, Structures, and Cultures

All organizations evolve characteristic structures adapted to the demands of the labor process, and develop workplace cultures which have their own conventions, formal and informal rules, norms of cooperation and conflict, and channels for exerting influence. For several related reasons — some historical, some inherent to the organization of development work, and some specific to particular cultural contexts — development administrations, both international and national, can be expected to have sharply gendered organizational structures and strongly masculinized workplace cultures.

Historically, many bilateral aid agencies had their origins in the colonial services that administered the outposts of an empire, as is the case with some European bilaterals, or in military supply services transformed after World War II to deliver Marshall Aid to Europe, as is the case with USAID and CIDA. These institutional legacies of imperialist or militarist projects were structured around sharp gender divisions of labor, signaled by such practices as the marriage bar (which was not lifted until 1972) restricting married women's employment overseas in the British foreign services (Ashworth 1985). A particularly masculine institutional culture was symbolized by the ways these organizations valorized myths of adventurous and violent frontier masculinities (provided with a sustaining foil by the virtuous *memsahib* at home). Lingering symbolic legacies of this gendered process can be found in the militaristic jargon in development planning languages (Leys 1969), and in the belligerently chauvinistic masculine cultures of agency outposts (Tendler 1975; Staudt 1985).[7]

Within certain national contexts, development administrations may acquire powerfully masculinized organizational structures and cultures for cultural reasons.

Isolated institutional ethnographies by women rural development agents in North India suggest a highly masculinized workplace culture (Mehendale 1991; Hale 1987). In Bangladesh's purdah culture, rural development is seen as a man's job. Field work requires high mobility, close involvement with large numbers of strangers, and time and energy commitments which stretch

7 Interestingly, the foreign development administrations of non-imperialist countries tend not to demonstrate these sorts of characteristics and have been the most open to gender policy, to the expanded employment of women bureaucrats, and to the establishment of cross-organizational performance incentives for positive gender policy implementation. These agencies include CIDA and the bilaterals of the Scandinavian Countries. On CIDA see Staudt (1990, 23) and on SIDA see Himmelstrand (1990).

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far beyond the nine-to-five of an office job; activities which are all features of male prerogative in Bangladesh, and female forfeiture. Further, strong cultural prohibitions on women mixing with non-kinsmen saturate workplace cultures, making them more explicitly masculine than in contexts lacking such intense taboos.

This gendered nature of rural development administration is not just a reflection of culture, nor does the process of minimalizing women's contribution happen automatically. In my study of five NGOs and three state rural development administrations in Bangladesh, I found that organizational structures reinforce these gender divisions by restricting women staff to work on women's programs which offer few opportunities for management roles, and by channeling them into gender-typed training — process of gendered ghettoization and stigmatization (Goetz 1991, 268). These stigmatizing choices about the placement and development of women staff were frequently justified by senior male administrators on the grounds that women's family-related mobility constraints made them ineligible for promotions which required relocation, that women lacked the necessary qualifications for training in "male" specializations and that, in any case, cultural taboos prohibited them from working with a male clientele or moving freely in the countryside.

The cumulative effect of these structural features of rural development organizations is to slow women's advance within organizations, curb their potential influence, and signal that they are not full organizational members. But these effects are not reflections of something immutable in women's social position; rather, they are the consequence of treating organizational rigidities as immutable. Thus, it is true that women's reproductive responsibilities condition their physical mobility and energy in the public realm to a greater extent than men. This is especially so for childbearing and child care. But these constraints on women's time are unlikely ever to be resolved if they are treated as constraints on the organization, rather than as challenges to be adjusted to by organizational structures. As regards women's qualifications, it is also true in Bangladesh that women enter the working world less trained than men because of institutionalized obstacles to women's education. But if the organizations in my sample were taking these constraints as given, the women were not; the majority of single women were studying privately to improve their qualifications.

Finally, as regards the claim that cultural taboos on male and female interaction was the greatest obstacle to women's capacity to move out of gender-stigmatized organizational functions, it is true that gender relations in Bangladesh appear to be amongst the least negotiable in the world (Cain, Khanam, and Nahar 1979). But like anywhere else, these taboos are not fixed in stone. Proof of this is that an outpost of one of the NGOs studied, the Rangpur-Dinajpur Rural Service (RDRS) had experimented successfully with assigning women Group Organizers to men's agricultural groups. As one of these women explained, once her displays of competence in agricultural knowledge gained her the respect of the men's groups, the men voluntarily changed their customary meeting time from the evenings, when travel alone for this woman was dangerous, to the day (Bokul Rani Mondol interview, cited in Goetz 1991, 233, 237). Other NGOs had been able to overcome constraints on women's public mobility by arranging for them to move in groups for support and protection. Such gender-specific modifications to the organizational structures supporting the labor process in rural development are likely to have a stronger gender-transformative effect that would the simple addition of women development agents.

Some feminists argue that certain salient defining features of bureaucratic structures — such as hierarchical calibrations of authority, exclusive patterns of management and decisionmaking, functional divisions of labor, and the specification of rules and procedures to guide behavior and

exchange, are themselves expressions of male domination and construct an organizational environment which is particularly hostile both to the participation of women and to the receptivity of bureaucracies to the needs of their female clients (Ferguson 1984). Do the flatter organizational hierarchies and more open, participative management and decisionmaking structures of some collectivist grassroots organizations and NGOs provide for more gender-egalitarian participation?

The record on this is mixed, not least in the cases of feminist organizational experiments which have found that collective and consensual management does not eradicate problems of domination, let alone coordination (Yancey-Martin 1990; Leidner 1991; Gould 1979). Studies of collectivist organizations which promote participatory democracy, non-hierarchical decisionmaking, and minimization of status differences have found no necessary correspondence between alternative organizational forms and feminist attitudes and outcomes (Yancey-Martin 1987, 547).

Sally Yudelman's study of the Inter-American Foundation found its relatively flat, decentralized operation actually contributed to the invisibility of gender policy issues, despite its participatory non-hierarchical style and its large complement of female staff (1990). The tendency amongst certain social movements to romanticize alternative organizational forms obscures the limits to how far staff can sustain the amount of energy, experimentation, and uncertainty required by these organizational forms. Rothschild-Whitt and Whitt's study of collectivist organizations describes serious worker resentment of the extra time required for internal decisionmaking (1986).

At the very grassroots level, participatory group-based organizational approaches for women of the same class are particularly favored by some feminist gender policy advocates as a formula for democratic decisionmaking and the building of solidarity networks to support mutual ventures. Yet it can be precisely this very local, molecular structure of association, especially where it includes women of the same kin group, which can harbor some of the greatest tyrannies that women experience. Some women may crave a form of organizational contract free of the small print which deeds over their unpaid labor to sustain ascriptive loyalties, even between women, such as the relationship of the daughter-in-law to her mother-in-law.

On the other hand, there is evidence that open command and communications styles can admit more sensitivity to women's interests. In some international NGOs, such as the Ford Foundation, an equity-oriented value system and participatory and decentralized management structures seem to have encouraged the inclusion of gender policy in development as a major agency goal, with six percent of agency funds directed to women's programs in the mid-1980s (Kardam 1989, 143). But as Nuket Kardam suggests, this shift in agency priorities did not occur until women staff became the majority (53.2%)of agency employees. This suggests that egalitarian management structures on their own were insufficient to prompt change.

In my comparison of the Rangpur-Dinajpur Rural Service with the state's Rural Poor Program in Bangladesh, differences in managerial and administrative style — which allowed for a greater bottom-up flow of information and lower-level involvement in decisionmaking in the NGO — accounted for a range of differences between the organizations in motivation, commitment, and productivity (Goetz 1991, 207-254). The NGO was also more successful in its group-based development activities with women. However, differences in the receptivity of male and female field workers to the needs of their female clients, as suggested by their attitudes toward, and routines of interaction with their female clients, were found to cut across both organizations. Women field workers in both programs more readily identified women's subsistence activities as legitimate work requiring productivity-enhancing interventions rather than welfare subsidies.

They were more interested than their male colleagues in finding ways of implementing stated program goals of empowering women, to the extent, in one case, of initiating legal rights training and supporting legal claims against husbands who violated family law.

Women field workers in the state agency also occasionally used their discretion to subvert agency policy in the interests of their female clients. There were a few striking cases of women field officers turning a blind eye to loan investments in sari smuggling from India, adulteration of edible oil, or grain hoarding, all of which were officially forbidden, but much more lucrative than officially sanctioned low-profit and sex-stereotyped activities such as livestock rearing or paddy husking (Goetz 1991, 207-302 *passim*). If neither the rigid operational procedures of the state program prohibited its women staff from responding to their clients' needs, nor the more open internal communications structure of the RDRS automatically fostered greater receptivity amongst its male staff to women's needs, then it cannot be assumed that local-level receptivity to women's needs can necessarily be engineered through administrative and managerial reforms.

These findings caution against assuming that organizational structures can be the bearers of gendered power independent of the principles and agents which animate them. They also point to the need to understand the role of the gender of bureaucrats, as well as their class, ideologies, and professional ambitions.

The Gender of Bureaucrats

Does the gender of bureaucrats make a difference in the way organizational relations are managed, internally and externally? This question has inspired considerable debate on a number of levels.

Since the Jacksonian experiments in bureaucratic populism, a recurrent theme in American organization theory is the notion that bureaucratic receptivity to client needs is likely to be enhanced where bureaucrats and clients share similar backgrounds and sociological characteristics. This is the basis of representative bureaucracy, which seeks to mirror relative percentages of certain sociological groups in the ranks of public servants on the assumption that these representatives will act as trustees for the interests of their particular group. Studies of experiments with representative bureaucracy, however, suggest that only weak correlations exist between background and attitude (Denhardt 1984), and that incentives to defend the interests of a particular social group pale in comparison to incentives to conform to organizational systems of motivation and reward (Downs 1967, 233).

Do women bureaucrats represent women's interests? Prominent women policymakers across different national contexts have been found to consistently articulate gender-specific policy concerns on such issues as child care, equal pay, maternity benefits, and so on (Mueller 1982; Hale and Kelly 1989; Dahlerup 1988; Hirschmann 1991). Differences also exist between male and female policymakers on broader policy issues such as the environment, violence in foreign affairs, poverty, and domestic affairs. Jahan's study of women parliamentarians in Bangladesh found women, unlike men, consistently placed poverty over national security as a policy priority (1982).

On the other hand, there is no reason to suppose that women hired to work in development administrations will necessarily be feminists. On the contrary, studies of women in high-level positions have found them to be highly ambivalent about being identified as feminists (Mueller 1982; Hale and Kelly 1989; Dahlerup 1988). For many of these women, success is both a function and expression of their ability to conform to organizational structures and cultures by taking on sociological characteristics of men in their dress, deportment, managerial styles and, most importantly, in their capacity to minimize the demands of the home. In a study of women state

administrators across California, Texas, Utah, and Arizona, women were shown to be three times as likely as their male colleagues to be single, divorced, and childless (Hale and Kelly 1989, 144). As a minority in most organizations, women have the least interest in challenging dominant agency practices because of the precariousness of individual career positions, and their effective "minority" status outside of organizations reinforces their need to conform within them (Dahlerup 1988).

Of course, women are to be found at different levels in bureaucracies, and perhaps those found in greater numbers at field/operational levels may be in a stronger position to represent their clients' needs than the few token women at the top of hierarchies. The evidence offered in the last section of differences between male and female field workers' attitudes and behavior towards their clients suggests this. But it cannot be assumed that these differences are an expression of some natural solidarity or sisterhood between women field workers and their beneficiaries. Whatever the class backgrounds of women field workers, their primary reference group is likely to be their superiors or colleagues, not their clients. To expand on women field workers' constructive use of their discretion, creative strategies are needed to build links between the interests of field workers and clients, and to build cultures of mutual support for women in rural administrations. I will return to this in the next section,

Also militating against women's capacity to express and enact oppositional perspectives on administration is the operation of workplace cultures which trivialize women's organizational presence, as studies in the West (Cockburn 1991; Ramazanoglu 1987), and in the South (Hale 1987; Hollway and Mukurasi 1991; Goetz 1991) have shown. In the rural development administrations I studied in Bangladesh, the increased employment of women had triggered reactions from individual male colleagues and superiors which ranged, with increasing violence, from deference control, negative stereotypes, sexual innuendo, insults and slights on competence, to exclusion from formal and informal networks, undermining of legitimate authority through non-cooperation, and sexual harassment (Goetz 1991, 276). These reactions carry gendered statements about worth, space, status, and ability, and erect powerful obstacles to women's capacity for personal advance. They construct women's identities as subservient and primarily sexual—a "sex-role spillover" (Gutek 1985, 40) which brings roles encouraged in private into public work relationships, undercutting women's autonomy from the domestic sphere by defining their identities on the same terms as at home, namely, as structured around providing services for men.

One corollary of the argument, mentioned in the last section, that organizational structures and management cultures inherently express men's interests, is that an alternative, and distinctively "feminine," approach to organization and management might exist. Kathy Ferguson's radical feminist case against bureaucracy posits the existence of a "feminine" ethic of care, nurturing, and responsibility to support her case for an alternative organizational form to bureaucracy (Ferguson 1984). Sociological studies of gender differences in management styles do find women to be more open and participative, more comfortable with teamwork, more responsive to learning from mistakes, and less authoritarian than men (Rosener 1990). But to assume that these differences are innate, as Ferguson implies, rather than active and strategic responses to the unequal organizational distribution of power, is to reinforce the discursive stability of notions of difference that devalue women's work in the public sphere. "Nurturing" styles of management once again bring private gender attributes into the public sphere. Since "feminine" styles of management may be a response to a lack of power in organizations, it may be counterproductive to advocate them as an expression of female empowerment within organizations, unless ways are found to invest them with social and political power.

Whether greater numbers of women within organizations will prompt gender-sensitive changes in organizations' internal structures and external effects remains an empirical question — there are simply not enough cases of gender-balanced organizations to permit comparison. Here it has simply been suggested that there is no simple correlation between women staff and gender-sensitive administration. Too many other variables, such as organizational structure and culture, intervene to inhibit women's capacity to express oppositional interests. This will have implications for policies to increase women's organizational presence and enhance their performance.

Conclusion and Some Policy Implications

To recapitulate, I have argued so far that public administration in development has been a poor instrument for implementing gender policies. This is not just because it reflects gender relations in society, but because, as a part of social relations, public administration is itself a gendering process. It has played an active, discretionary role in the construction and maintenance of men and women's unequal access to social and economic resources. This perspective may help illuminate the processes and relationships through which other inequalities, such as those of class, race, and the North-South divide, are reproduced in public administration. This argument also raises questions about the very nature of administration and organization, first by dispelling pretensions of gender neutrality, but more importantly, because the focus on gender moves analysis beyond questions of structure and process to questions of power relationships both within administration and between it and society.

Following this logic, new forms of public administration in the productive and social sectors will have to take rather different forms than currently envisaged, if a commitment to gender equity is to be a genuine part of corrective efforts to reverse institutional failure in development. The focus on gendered power relationships shows that tinkering with structures, procedures, or representative bureaucracy is inadequate to challenge power systems. These systems, of course, are embedded and endorsed in the broader context in which public administrations are embedded: the state. This means that gender-transformative bureaucratic change cannot occur independently of a political context supportive of women's empowerment; a context with effective women's interest groups and a responsive state. Of course, this conclusion removes practical organizational changes to an inaccessible level and, in any case, raises issues which cannot be explored here. There are, however, some immediate implications for public administration which arise from a gendered understanding of organization.

Effective forms of public administration, which respond to women's needs in development and recognize connections between internal gender politics and external organizational outcomes, will have to find ways of actively disorganizing gendering processes within the organization and between it and society. This can be done by ensuring genuine equity in service delivery, such that the needs of women clients are not sex-stereotyped and stigmatized. Internally, this might be done by introducing women's behavioral and value preferences into the hierarchies, work rhythms, symbolic systems, and organizational facilities which currently reflect men's preferences. Child care could be brought into the institution, as could flexible time management adapted to the requirements of extra organizational life. Motivational structures could be adapted to enhance the discretion of women field workers. Again, the Rangpur-Dinajpur Rural Service (RDRS) in Bangladesh provides an example of an interesting experiment in improving the receptivity of its women staff to local women's needs. In 1988 it introduced a "Central Women's Co-ordination Committee" based on a series of representative committees drawn from women at different organizational levels. It was designed to channel views up from the field to the center, and as such included at its bottom rung representatives of women program beneficiaries (Nellis n.d.). Not only did this structure allow for communication and exchange between women staff

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and beneficiaries, but it symbolically ruptured the distinction between the organization and its social context, thus contributing to a process of democratization. It also provided women in the organization with the possibility of developing cultures of mutual support; a potential resource for challenging male dominance practices within the organization.

The RDRS example gives reasons for optimism that organizations can change, but it has to be acknowledged that in the current development climate, changes of the sort just mentioned are unlikely. Even minimal measures like equal opportunity policies are resented in contexts of high male unemployment. And policies to ensure gender equity are precisely the ones which suffer where concerns with cost efficiency and introducing market incentives in public administration dominate. Such policies are not about cost-saving (indeed the opposite, given the costs of replacing women's domestic labor), they are not short-term issues, and successful implementation cannot be tied to market incentives and rewards. Following this logic, the shift in development administration in the 1980s toward fiscal coordination and market-oriented forms of structural adjustment cannot be seen as a gender-neutral change. Women have been the first to suffer and to bear the cost of conservative pro-market and anti-bureaucratic strategies which have sought to reprivatize the costs of reproduction, both within and outside of bureaucracies.

Unlike the market, where women do not tend to fare well, public administration has the power to distribute resources for reducing gender discrimination in access to productive resources, to promulgate laws and policies in women's interests, to offer protection from gender violence at home and in the community, and to alter public discourses about women's inferiority through information systems and education. All the more reason, then, to persist in efforts to transform public administration to reflect women's interests in development.

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The Combined Strategy: The Case of the Swedish International Development Agency[1]

The experience of a bilateral donor such as the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA) provides a useful example of the process that has to be undergone in order to achieve a combined strategy.

The WID Unit was established in 1979. Like Oxfam's Gender and Development Unit (GADU), it was a temporary arrangement to exist only until all SIDA's programs under the supervision of program officers had integrated the "women's dimension." Commenting on this, a recent head of the WID Office said, "This was the watchdog period." In the past few years its status has been confirmed as permanent, due to pressure, from both inside and outside the organization, that WID is not a trend of short duration (Himmelstrand 1990 : 110). The WID considers its location within the Planning Secretariat to be well-positioned since it has direct access to the Director General. Nevertheless, the Gender Office (as it is now called) has only five full-time appointments in Stockholm. Identifying themselves as *catalysts,* their institutional strategy comprises three clearly identified, interrelated priorities. First, they have focused on building up a support structure for WID personnel in the country-level Development Cooperation Offices (DCOs). The role of country-level officers is to ensure that sector programs integrate WID, as well as administering direct support. In 1990 there were 20 field-level personnel responsible for WID. They were mainly local, part-time appointments with rapid turnover (many of them Swedish overseas staff). The problems with junior-level appointments are not solely that officers lack knowledge of SIDA's structure and procedures; of greater importance is the fact that their low status impedes them when trying to challenge more senior staff on controversial gender issues. To counteract these tendencies, the Gender Office would like to have two positions at program officer level. This would consist of a Gender Officer responsible for integration aspects, until all SIDA staff are sufficiently gender-aware, and a Gender Adviser who ideally should be a national, responsible for work on direct support and acting as a long-term adviser on all programs.

The second component is training in gender-awareness and gender planning methodology based on SIDA's case studies and related to SIDA's planning cycle. Heads of DCOs, as well as Program Officers and consultants all undertake such training. The purpose is not only to make them gender-aware, but also to introduce planning methodology to them, which includes identifying the institutionalization of the WID officer in the mission's work. WID officers also undertake gender training. This helps professionalize them in their job, and assists them in identifying critical entry points for WID strategy in the SIDA planning cycle.

By way of comparison with SIDA's strategy, the OECD, in its Monitoring Report, assesses the creation of full-time positions for WID experts in the field to be one major achievement accomplished. Five countries currently appoint full or part-time positions (ranging from the United States with 70 part-time positions to Denmark with 4 full-time). However, while the

1 Source: Moser C. (1993).Gender Planning and Development Theory, Practice and Training. (To order, contact Routledge Publishers, 11 New Fetter, London, EC4P4EE).

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report states that there has been a noteworthy expansion in the countries undertaking this, the number of personnel is the same as two years previously.

NGOs also comment that where a WID field officer has been appointed, the likelihood is that gender issues will be more effectively integrated into projects and more resources allocated to women's projects. While this is obviously a critical move to mainstream, clearly the importance of WID field officers relates directly to their status and legitimacy, both from the local field office as much as from headquarters. If their mandate is simply collecting information on women, this does not necessarily in any way impact major policy decisions or program and project-level resource allocations.

The third component in SIDA's strategy is the development of methodological tools to be used in the different stages of SIDA's planning cycle (SIDA 1989). The Gender Office has its own small budget for supporting initiatives at national, regional and international level. However, inputs made within sector programs are normally financed within the existing country frame. This means that budgetary issues, therefore, have become mainstreamed.

Outlined below is the comparative experience of two international NGOs based in the United Kingdom and funding Third World development projects. It highlights some of the advantages and disadvantages of Gender Unit and Mainstreaming as alternative strategies.

Oxfam is one the largest UK NGOs with a staff of more than 1,000. It has created a designated WID office, the Gender and Development Unit (GADU), emphasizing the importance of gender specialists. In Oxfam the impetus to create a special WID focus came "bottom-up," from a group of women field officers. Working in collaboration with regional headquarters staff, they proposed the establishment of a separate unit (Williams 1983)

In contrast, Christian Aid, a smaller organization numbering about 230 staff, has chosen a mainstream approach. Its Women's Group (an advisory body of women working in the organization) drew up a set of organizational recommendations in 1983. These identified constraints and blockages to WID. A second set followed in 1987, when the group formalized itself into a Women' Forum (Christian Aid 1987). Thus, in common with GADU and, in fact, most organizations, the original catalyst for change came in the early 1980s — "bottom-up," and from women within the organization.

GADU was established in Oxfam in 1985 as one of the first initiatives of a new overseas director. Its purpose was to "to tell people about the gender issue." The director perceived this as a short-term initiative that would cease once everyone had understood the issue. In Christian Aid one of the divisions, the Aid Sector, responded to the Women's Group's recommendations. This came from a concern that the organization's project documents did not adequately incorporate gender issues. In Oxfam the final impetus for the creation of a separate institutional structure was a top-down directive from a sympathetic senior male staff member. In Christian Aid, the planning pre-occupation of its division directly concerned with the allocation of project finance was particularly important in endorsing the initiative to mainstream gender. At its inception, Christian Aid's support for a WID initiative had a broader support base than that of Oxfam, where one senior-level staff member played a deciding role. Different policy approaches in these two NGOs, therefore, influenced the particular procedures and methods used to institutionalize gender.

Different organizational strategies were also important. In Oxfam, GADU was one of several specialist units which also included research and evaluation, technical and health units. In a management structure which excluded them from the main line, their function was an advisory one. Because Oxfam defines itself as a "field-led" organization, with most of its staff working

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in the Third World, GADU, more like the other units had a "responsive approach". It started by focusing its work at the field level, responding to requests for advice and funding. This was followed by the promotion of the employment of gender project officers in the field to do the work *insitu* and, more recently, the endorsement of the need for regional offices to develop a gender policy. It identified networking through regional workshops as a means to influence the attitudes and working practices of staff in their Oxford headquarters. Given its advisory mandate, it did not initially prioritize training.

Christian Aid, as a smaller organization without field offices or a structure of advisory units at headquarters, from the start prioritized gender planning training of all staff with responsibility for project funding decisions. It saw this as a long-term process and, therefore, institutionalized it through three gender-aware generalists and a trainer. They all took on the responsibility for training as one of their mainstream activities. In addition, planning procedures changed because of redesigned checklists and the introduction of project level gender guidelines. Both planning tools used the concepts and planning methodology introduced through training.

Both organizations say they have made progress in institutionalizing gender, but still have a long way to go. Both confirm that, at the time, the strategy adopted was the appropriate one for their particular organization. The strength of a WID unit such as GADU, is that it can act both as a monitoring unit to ensure integration, as well as a pressure group to ensure that WID is constantly on the agenda. A recent survey of NGOs in Europe confirms these findings. A correlation was shown between the existence of a person, group, or department dealing with gender issues and the formulation of WID policy documents (LCD 1989). In the same vein, proponents of separate organizations argue that the strategy to mainstream hides the fact that WID is not a sufficient priority to warrant a separate unit. Reliance on mainstreaming also can mean that WID has to challenge overriding concerns in each sectoral interest. It therefore is more likely to be institutionalized into areas in which women already predominate (such as health, education, welfare and nutrition) than the more technical sectors of the institution.

Anderson and Chen (1988) have argued that it is not possible to predict if effective programming will occur based solely on which institutional model an agency adopts. While it may not decide the outcome, the type of institutional model chosen reflects organizational "culture." The evidence suggests that a mainstream approach is more likely to occur in organizations with an organizational culture of consensus management. The creation of a separate unit is far more likely to be advocated in organizations with a "culture" of conflict management. The creation of a separate unit frequently results in higher levels of organizational tension and trauma than does a mainstream strategy. The holder of the WID post has a mandate to confront those not delivering but, also, must be prepared to be on the receiving end of abuse. The staff of GADU are clear that the creation of a separate institution has been critical in providing the necessary space to think through a WID policy.

Strengths and Weaknesses

- **Please list what you consider to be three strengths of day two**

1.
2.
3.

- **Please list what you consider to be three weaknesses of day two**

1.
2.
3.

- **Suggestions for improvements**

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Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop

1. **The Module**

   Content

   - usefulness/relevance
   - amount of information

   Structure

   - sequence
   - duration
   - balance between trainers' and trainees' participation
   - instruction to trainers
   - visual aids
   - handouts
   - extra readings
   - PAPA
   - evaluation

2. **Process: training techniques and direction**

   - usefulness/relevance/effectiveness
   - group interaction
   - clarity of questions/exercise instructions
   - opening and closure of the days

3. **Trainers', facilitators', and trainees' performance**

   - presentation/communication skills
   - interaction/effective participation
   - punctuality/interest/commitment/willingness to facilitate learning/willingness to participate
   - other attitudes

4. **Logistical support**

   - organization
   - accuracy
   - punctuality
   - willingness to assist participants
   - services provided in general

5. **Workshop environment**

   - physical (training facilities, training material, hotel facilities in general)
   - psychological (personal feelings such as self-motivation, interest, satisfaction, self-achievement)
   - social (development of friendship, relaxed, comfortable among participants, etc.)

6. **Workshop results/outputs**

   - personal and professional assessment
   - recommendations

7. **General comments**

PAPA — FIRST STAGE

Ideas for action items

Date: _____

Workshop title : SADC/ESAMI/ISNAR Workshop on Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

Date/Venue : _____

Name : _____

Organization : _____

Ideas I would like to try when I return to work at my research institute, based on what I have learned in this training workshop.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Note: You can use the workshop objectives, what you learn during the workshop, handouts, conversations with participants and trainers, etc., to come up with ideas.

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DAY THREE

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

DAY THREE — Overview

Objectives

By the end of the day the participants will be able to do the following:

1. Further understand the significance of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management.
2. Describe and define gender issues in human resource management.
3. Describe the research program formulation process and project management cycle.
4. Identify how gender analysis can engender the research program process and the project management cycle.
5. Discuss the tools used in gender analysis.

Handouts

3.5.1 Overview
3.5.2 Tentative Schedule
3.5.3 Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Resource Research Organizations (Part II): Human Resource Management (summary of presentation)
3.5.4 Exercise 5. Gender Issues in Human Resource Management in the NARS
3.5.5 Exercise 5. Narrative
3.5.6 Exercise 5. Worksheet
3.5.7 "Sameness" and "Difference" for Women Bureaucrats: Experience from a Management Development for Women Program (text)
3.6.1 Gender Analysis and Engendering the Research Program Formulation Process and Project Management Cycle (summary of presentation)
3.6.2 Tables
3.6.3 Exercise 6. Engendered Project Proposal
3.6.4 Exercise 6. Worksheet
3.6.5 Proposal A
3.6.6 Proposal B
3.6.7 Proposal C
3.6.8 Proposed Guidelines for Incorporating Gender Issues in Natural Resource Projects and Programs (text)
3.6.9 Exercise 6. Ranking Sheet
3.6.10 Strengths and Weaknesses of Day Three
3.6.11 Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop
3.6.12 PAPA Form — First Stage

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Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

DAY THREE — Tentative Schedule

08:30 – 09:00	**Opening of the Day's Activities**
09:00 – 10:30	**Session 5. Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations (Part II): Human Resource Management** (Presentation and exercise 5)
10:30 – 10:45	Tea/Coffee Break
10:45 – 13:00	**Session 6. Gender Analysis and Engendering the Research Program Formulation Process and Project Management Cycle** (Presentation and exercise 6)

13:00 – 14:00 Lunch

14:00 – 15:30	**Session 6. (Continued)**
15:30 – 15:45	Tea/Coffee Break
15:45 – 16:30	**Session 6. (Continued)**
16:30 – 17:00	**Feedback on the Day's Activities and PAPA**

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Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

DAY THREE — Checklist for Trainers

Handouts

		Yes ✓	No ✓
3.5.1	Overview	❒	❒
3.5.2	Tentative Schedule	❒	❒
3.5.3	Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations (Part II): Human Resource Management (summary of presentation)	❒	❒
3.5.4	Exercise 5. Gender Issues in Human Resource Management in the NARS	❒	❒
3.5.5	Exercise 5. Narrative	❒	❒
3.5.6	Exercise 5. Worksheet	❒	❒
3.5.7	"Sameness" and "Difference" for Women Bureaucrats: Experience from a Management Development for Women Program (text)	❒	❒
3.6.1	Gender Analysis and Engendering the Research Program Formulation Process and Project Management Cycle (summary of presentation)	❒	❒
3.6.2	Tables	❒	❒
3.6.3	Exercise 6. Engendered Project Proposal	❒	❒
3.6.4	Exercise 6. Worksheet	❒	❒
3.6.5	Proposal A	❒	❒
3.6.6	Proposal B	❒	❒
3.6.7	Proposal C	❒	❒
3.6.8	Proposed guidelines for Incorporating Gender Issues in Natural Resource Projects and Programs (text)	❒	❒
3.6.9	Exercise 6. Ranking Sheet	❒	❒
3.6.10	Strengths and Weaknesses of Day Three	❒	❒
3.6.11	Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop	❒	❒
3.6.12	PAPA Form — First Stage	❒	❒

Overheads

3.5.1	Objectives of Day Three	❒	❒
3.5.2	Schedule of Day Three	❒	❒
3.5.3	Objectives of Session 5	❒	❒
3.5.4	Key Components of Institutionalizing Gender Awareness	❒	❒
3.5.5	To Begin With	❒	❒
3.5.6	Change Process	❒	❒

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		Yes ✓	No ✓
3.5.7	Public Service Institutions	❒	❒
3.5.8	Share of Women in the Total Number of Agricultural Researchers, 1991	❒	❒
3.5.9	Human Resource Management	❒	❒
3.5.10	Equity	❒	❒
3.5.11	Strategies for Equitable Staffing	❒	❒
3.5.12	Participation by Professional Women in NARS	❒	❒
3.5.13	Efficiency	❒	❒
3.5.14	Effectiveness	❒	❒
3.5.15	Research Leaders Have Many Choices to Make	❒	❒
3.5.16	Management of Change	❒	❒
3.5.17	Vision and Voice	❒	❒
3.5.18	Strategic Considerations	❒	❒
3.6.1	Objectives of Session 6	❒	❒
3.6.2	The Management Cycle	❒	❒
3.6.3	Planning	❒	❒
3.6.4	Define the Unit of Planning	❒	❒
3.6.5	Research Programs	❒	❒
3.6.6	Program Planning Steps	❒	❒
3.6.7	Program Planning Analysis	❒	❒
3.6.8	Analysis of Constraints	❒	❒
3.6.9	Review of Research	❒	❒
3.6.10	Determining of Research Objectives	❒	❒
3.6.11	Identifying Research Projects	❒	❒
3.6.12	Setting Project Priorities	❒	❒
3.6.13	Resource Gap Analysis	❒	❒
3.6.14	Program Planning — Project Cycle	❒	❒
3.6.15	Project Management	❒	❒
3.6.16	Project Cycle — Six Steps	❒	❒
3.6.17	Project Cycle	❒	❒
3.6.18	Engendered Project Cycle	❒	❒
3.6.19	Project Planning Analysis	❒	❒
3.6.20	Project Planning Analysis	❒	❒
3.6.21	Project Planning Analysis	❒	❒
3.6.22	Project Management	❒	❒
3.6.23	Project Management (continued)	❒	❒
3.6.24	Logical Framework Matrix	❒	❒
3.6.25	Logical Framework Matrix	❒	❒
3.6.26	Engendered Logical Framework Matrix	❒	❒
3.6.27	Implementation	❒	❒
3.6.28	Major Uses of M&E	❒	❒
3.6.29	Monitoring	❒	❒

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	Yes ✓	No ✓
3.6.30 Project Planning — Final Evaluation	❒	❒
3.6.31 Evaluation	❒	❒
3.6.32 Impact	❒	❒

Materials

• Cards	❒	❒
• Overhead projector	❒	❒
• Projector screen	❒	❒
• Flipchart stands (minimum 2)	❒	❒
• Flipchart paper/pads (about 10 per day)	❒	❒
• Markers for writing on newsprint	❒	❒
• Markers for writing on transparencies	❒	❒
• Blank transparencies	❒	❒
• Stapler	❒	❒
• Tape (strong masking tape and regular tape)	❒	❒
• Push pins	❒	❒
• Glue	❒	❒
• Pencils/notepads/pens	❒	❒
• Pencil sharpeners	❒	❒
• Extension cords	❒	❒
• Certificates	❒	❒
• Photocopying facilities	❒	❒
• Spare bulbs for overhead projector	❒	❒
• Extra notepads and pens	❒	❒
• Scissors	❒	❒

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DAY THREE

Session 5
Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations (Part II): Human Resource Management

Instructions to Trainers

PRE-SESSION

08:30 – 09:00 Opening of the Day's Activities

- Review the previous day's activities.
- Discuss the previous day's evaluation.
- Summarize today's activities.

OBJECTIVE

By the end of this pre-session, the participants will be able to do the following:

- Summarize the objectives and agenda for the day's activities.

OPENING

In day two of the workshop we were able to do the following:

- Identify the different policy approaches for incorporating gender into research and development-related activities.
- Understand the significance of policy for achieving gender awareness in research management and for acting on this awareness.
- Recognize the benefits of policy that takes gender issues into account.
- Broadly define the term "institutionalization of gender awareness."
- Identify some approaches for institutionalizing gender awareness and addressing gender-related problems in agricultural and natural resource research management organizations.
- List some of the specific benefits of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management.

Distribute the objectives and the schedule for day three (handouts 3.5.1 and 3.5.2) to the participants. Review the objectives and schedule, using overheads 3.5.1 and 3.5.2. Ask if clarifications are needed.

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SESSION 5

09:00 – 10:30 Session 5. Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations (Part II): Human Resource Management

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this session, the participants will be able to do the following:

- Further understand the significance of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management.
- Describe and define gender issues in human resource management.

Use overhead 3.5.3 to present the objectives.

PROCEDURE

Training techniques: presentation, role-playing, discussion.

RATIONALE

This session continues with the topic from the previous day, focusing specifically on gender issues within the topic of human resource management. It examines different approaches to gender and human resource management. After the presentation, there is a role-playing exercise to allow participants to explore the issues in a new way. An open discussion follows.

PRESENTATION

The presentation focuses on gender issues in human resource management from the angle of organizational or institutional gender policy in NARS. Overheads 3.5.4 through 3.5.18 support the presentation. At the end of the presentation be sure to allow sufficient time to ask the participants if they have any comments or questions, or if they need clarifications. Distribute handout 3.5.3. (45 minutes)

EXERCISE 5

Exercise 5. Gender issues in human resource management in the NARS. (45 minutes)

1. Prepare the room for the roleplay. Distribute handouts 3.5.4 through 3.5.6. (5 minutes)

Phase 1. Role-playing (15 minutes)

2. The trainer asks the six participants (identified the previous day) to act out the narrative (handout 3.5.5).
3. Remind the role-players to speak loudly and clearly. Later, congratulate the players on their acting ability.
4. Distribute handout 3.5.7.

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Phase 2. Discussion (20 minutes)

5. As a large group, discuss the messages presented in the role play. Handout 3.5.5 lists some questions for discussion.

6. *(process)* At the end of the exercise provide feedback on the content of the presentations. Refer to handout 3.5.7 which explains another case of the experience of women professionals involved in the management of development and the civil service. Discuss the results with the participants. (20 minutes)

CLOSURE

Closure (5 minutes)

1. *(application)* Ask the participants to tell their neighbor two things they might do differently as a result of what they have learned. Ask some volunteers to give examples.

2. Make a transition to the next session.

10:30 – 10:45 Tea/Coffee Break

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Day Three

Session 5
Summary of Overheads

Objectives of Day Three

1. Further understand the significance of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management
2. Describe and define gender issues in human resource management
3. Describe the research program formulation process and project management cycle.
4. Identify how gender analysis can engender the research program process and the project management cycle
5. Discuss tools used in gender analysis

3.5.1

Schedule of Day Three

08:30 – 09:00	Opening of the Day's Activities
09:00 – 10:30	Session 5. Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations (Part II):
	Tea/Coffee Break
10:45 – 13:00	Session 6. Gender Analysis and Engendering the Research Program Formulation Process and Project Management Cycle
	Lunch
14:00 – 15:30	Session 6. (Continued)
	Tea/Coffee Break
15:45 – 16:30	Session 6. (Continued)
16:30 – 17:00	Feedback on the Day's Activities and PAPA

3.5.2

Objectives of Session 5

1. Further understand the significance of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management
2. Describe and define issues in human resource management
3. List some specific benefits of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management

3.5.3

Key Components of Institutionalizing Gender Awareness

A. Operational structures and interventions
- gender policy, statement, plan of action or guidelines for the institution

B. Organizational structures and approaches
- advisory and evaluation services for staff

C. Human resource management
- staffing
- training, recognition, and promotion
- strategies for change

3.5.4

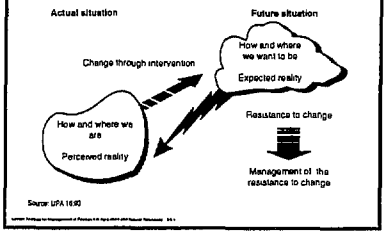
To Begin With

Most organizations are not gender-neutral

They may, however, be gender-blind

3.5.5

The Change Process



3.5.6

Public Service Institutions

- Often fail to include women equitably among the public they are supposed to serve.
- Public administration produces gendered outcomes because of the way it structures power and opportunity within administration.

3.5.7

Share of Women in the Total Number of Agricultural Researchers, 1991

Country	Government	Semi-public	Academic	Total
Burkina Faso	12.8	–	2.9	12.2
Cote d'Ivoire	8.1	–	9.0	8.3
Ghana	8.6	–	4.0	8.0
Kenya	19.2	13.4	9.4	18.5
Madagascar	32.1	–	20.6	31.4
Malawi	7.5	0.0	0.0	5.8
Niger	5.1	–	13.8	7.0
Nigeria	12.8	–	5.3	11.6
Rwanda	7.7	–	5.9	7.6
Senegal	11.3	–	0.0	11.1
South Africa	25.4	8.7	6.8	22.9
Sudan	17.9	–	6.1	16.8
Swaziland	16.7	–	33.3	21.6
Tanzania	25.6	–	10.5	23.8
Togo	7.4	–	0.0	7.3
Zambia	9.5	–	8.3	9.4
Zimbabwe	20.4	18.5	18.3	19.9
Total	18.3	11.1	8.0	17.0

3.5.8

Human Resource Management

Staffing, Training, Recognition, and Promotion

1. equity
2. efficiency
3. effectiveness

3.5.9

Equity

Meaning

all people, men and women, have equal rights to employment

Problems

- varied experience of equitable employment
- 1990 study by ISNAR: women researchers in NARS range from less than 1% to more than 50%!
- factors for this are largely cultural but also political

3.5.10

Strategies for Equitable Staffing

- must ensure access
- staffing decision taken in favor of women applicants, when a woman is as qualified as a man
- must ensure survival and achievement

vicious circle of inequitable gender staffing

3.5.11

Participation by Professional Women in NARS

COMPONENTS (of female participation in eg. research)	FACTORS (relative to human resource development)	
	Endogenous	Exogenous
Access	• Managers/professionals as role models (mentorship, mentors) • Facilities (e.g. housing) • Recruitment standards • Recruitment procedures (for informing and attracting applicants) • Linkages to universities and other labor pools • Expectations, attitudes of managers	• Availability (shortage) of females in professional labor market • Specialization of females who enter the professional labor market • Societal perceptions of careers and roles • Female perceptions of opportunities in agricultural research • Job search institutions (location, preferences and mobility limitations)
Attrition	• Managers/professionals as role models (mentorship, mentors) • Facilities (e.g. housing) • Benefits (e.g. maternity leave, pre-/post-natal care)	• Pregnancy/child-rearing • Gender-linked roles (family responsibilities) • Mobility limitations
Achievement	• Sex-biased career practices (screening and selection for training, advancement) • Managers/professionals as role models (mentorship, mentors) • Expectations, attitudes of managers	• Average qualifications • Mobility limitations • Gender-linked roles (responsibilities, application for advancement) • Societal perceptions of leadership qualifications

3.5.12

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Efficiency

Meaning
- reduce the waste of human and financial resources
- issues of staffing, recognition, and promotion linked with the desire to make the best use of available human resources

Problems
- inefficiency can lead to failure in reaching objectives or mandates
- many research managers undervalue or do not account for human resources

Strategies for efficient human resource management
- account for all staff contributions
- management decisions taken in relation to efficient use of all human resources

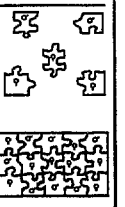
3.5.13

Effectiveness

Meaning
- identifies that women and men bring similar but also different skills, abilities, and needs
- includes leadership, problem-solving, decisionmaking and team-building skills

Problems
- ineffective diversity management reduces strength and capacity of the institution

Strategies for effective human resource management
- diversity management
- organized and balanced diversity can lead to a strong institution
- organizations that work against diversity in human resource management cannot be sustained



3.5.14

Project Management

A framework for:

- Translating research objectives into projects
- Monitoring progress during implementation
- Evaluating outputs after completion
- Communicating results to appropriate users

3.5.15

Management of Change

How to manage changes in NARS to benefit those who work in and outside the system?

Two principles

- leadership of NARS must be engaged in the *creation* and *pace* of change
- managers and professional staff must have a voice in the direction of change

3.5.16

Vision and Voice

Vision. Capacity to imagine new conditions that a system is capable of achieving. Central to all forms and levels of leadership.

- Vision of leadership is needed to identify, create, and understand change
- If change is recognized then the best management choices can be made

Voice. Concept in communication studies: speaking out against discrimination.

- Important for women to use their voice but may be even more important for male research leaders to find their voice

3.5.17

Strategic Considerations

Considerations	NARS with few professional women	NARS with many professional women
Objectives	• Increase numbers of professional women • Efficient utilization of resources in labor market	• Increase survival and achievement of professional women • Efficient utilization of resources in NARS
Actors	• Leaders • Advisory council • Planning committee • Policymakers • WID groups • Outside consultants (SIMAR, NGOs, etc.)	• Leaders • Advisory council • Planning committee • Focus group • Outside consultants (SIMAR, NGOs, etc.)
Focus	Exogenous and endogenous factors affecting access: • Data collection • Availability analysis • Needs assessment • Information sharing • Policy development • Recruitment strategy • Management training	Primarily endogenous factors affecting survival and achievement: • Data collection • Utilization analysis • Needs assessment • Information sharing • Procedure and program development • Orientation, mentoring, career counseling, benefits packages, etc. • Management training

3.5.18

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Handout — Overview of Day Three

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

Objectives

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4. Identify how gender analysis can engender the research program process and the project management cycle.
5. Discuss the tools used in gender analysis.

Handouts

3.5.1 Overview
3.5.2 Tentative Schedule
3.5.3 Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations (Part II): Human Resource Management (summary of presentation)
3.5.4 Exercise 5. Gender Issues in Human Resource Management in the NARS
3.5.5 Exercise 5. Narrative
3.5.6 Exercise 5. Worksheet
3.5.7 "Sameness" and "Difference" for Women Bureaucrats: Experience from a Management Development for Women Program (text)
3.6.1 Gender Analysis and Engendering the Research Program Formulation Process and Project Management Cycle (summary of presentation)
3.6.2 Tables
3.6.3 Exercise 6. Engendered Project Proposal
3.6.4 Exercise 6. Worksheet
3.6.5 Proposal A
3.6.6 Proposal B
3.6.7 Proposal C
3.6.8 Proposed Guidelines for Incorporating Gender Issues in Natural Resource Projects and Programs (text)
3.6.9 Exercise 6. Ranking Sheet
3.6.10 Strengths and Weaknesses of Day Three
3.6.11 Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop
3.6.12 PAPA Form—First Stage

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Handout — Tentative Schedule of Day Three

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

08:30 – 09:00	**Opening of the Day's Activities**
09:00 – 10:30	**Session 5. Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations (Part II): Human Resource Management** (Presentation and exercise 5)
10:30 – 10:45	Tea/Coffee Break
10:45 – 13:00	**Session 6. Gender Analysis and Engendering the Research Program Formulation Process and Project Management Cycle** (Presentation and exercise 6)

13:00 – 14:00 Lunch

14:00 – 15:30	**Session 6. (Continued)**
15:30 – 15:45	Tea/Coffee Break
15:45 – 16:30	**Session 6. (Continued)**
16:30 – 17:00	**Feedback on the Day's Activities and PAPA**

Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations (Part II): Human Resource Management
(summary of presentation)

It is impossible to ignore the subject of gender in managing human resources in agricultural and natural resource research. Components of human resource management, such as staffing, training, recognition, and promotion, are infused with gender issues and relations.

This means that most organizations are not "gender neutral," but they may be "gender blind." Addressing gender issues in human resource management often encounters resistance. Resistance is a factor that must be taken into account in the management of change process. Public institutions encounter a number of problems in changing their human resource management even though they are accountable to women as members of the public they serve. Public administration produces gendered outcomes because of the way that public institutions structure power and opportunity within administration. Before we explore this situation further, let us look at the situation of women as agricultural researchers in sub-Saharan Africa.

Female agricultural researchers in sub-Saharan Africa

In a recent survey by ISNAR's Indicator Series Project on national agricultural research staff and expenditures in Sub-Saharan Africa, one of the survey questions dealt with the breakdown of the number of national researchers by sex. These national level data have been reported in a series of country statistical briefs but, since these briefs do not deal with gender issues specifically, they may have been overlooked by those who are specifically interested in gender issues.

To our knowledge, no systematic attempts have been made to collect this type of data for multiple countries. These data are also not readily available for developed countries. Therefore the data collected and summarized in Table 1 are the first benchmarks in a rather unexplored territory.

Together with IFPRI, ISNAR is currently analyzing this information and expects to produce a more detailed analysis of the gender data later this year. For the time being, however, the summary table already provides some interesting insights. The percentage of female researchers in African NARS ranges from a low 6% in Malawi to a high of 31% in Madagascar. Of the 6,100 full-time-equivalent (FTE) agricultural researchers identified in the 17 African countries, about 320 female agricultural researchers were found in South Africa, followed by Kenya, Tanzania, and Nigeria, each of which has between 100-150 female agricultural researchers.

In Table 1, a distinction has been made among government, semi-public, and academic research agencies. Across the board, government research agencies employ substantially higher percentages of female researchers than semi-public or academic research agencies. The difference between the academic sector and the government sector is particularly striking. To some extent this difference can be explained by the fact that the average education profile of women few have postgraduate degrees. Regarding semi-public research agencies, they tend to be financially better off than government research agencies and, because of their autonomy, may follow private-sector recruitment policies.

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Since this is such unexplored territory, the project team would very much appreciate obtaining similar data for agricultural research organizations in Africa and other parts of the world.

Table 1. Share of Women in the Total Number of Agricultural Researchers, 1991

Country	Government	Sem-public[1]	Academic	Total[2]
Burkina Faso	12.8	--	2.9	12.2
Cote d'Ivoire	8.1	--	9.0	8.3
Ghana	8.6	--	4.0	8.0
Kenya	19.2	13.4	9.4	18.5
Madagascar	32.1	--	20.6	31.4
Malawi	7.5	0.0	0.0	5.8
Niger	5.1	--	13.8	7.0
Nigeria	12.8	--	5.3	11.6
Rwanda	7.7	--	5.9	7.6
Senegal	11.3	--	0.0	11.1
South Africa	26.4	8.7	6.8	23.9
Sudan	17.9	--	6.1	16.8
Swaziland	16.7	--	33.3	21.6
Tanzania	25.6	--	10.5	23.8
Togo	7.4	--	0.0	7.3
Zambia	9.5	--	8.3	9.4
Zimbabwe	20.4	18.5	18.3	19.8
Total	18.3	11.1	8.0	17.0

1 Semi-public includes commodity board type of organizations with an autonomous board as well as a certain degree of funding (>25%) which does not come from the government or foreign donors.
2 The total is a weighted average of the different components in the agricultural research system.

Source: Questionnaire Responses and Commonwealth University Yearbook (1992)

Issues of Staffing

Staffing issues may be approached from at least three perspectives: *equity, efficiency, effectiveness*. Equity in staffing is impartial and fair treatment of employees based on the principle that groups are inherently equal. Efficiency in staffing refers to the appropriate utilization of those resources to achieve the objectives of their functions. Effectiveness in staffing means choosing appropriate human resources to carry out the functions of the research organization.

Equity

The equity view is a human rights standpoint, that all persons should have the right to work. In many countries, women's commissions were founded for the single purpose of developing policies and practices that provide employment equity for women. Where governments have affirmed this policy, NARS may use the principle of equity as a direct and potent approach to women's staffing issues. This approach may be less successful in NARS in countries where culture, government mandate, or legal precedent do not give equality a high priority. The environment for human resource management varies in relation to the size, structure, organizational culture, and level of institutional development of the NARS. Some NARS use management tools that others lack (e.g. job descriptions, career paths, performance management systems). National systems also differ in the number of professional women on staff. The absence of professional women has been well documented in some African countries, where between 0.2 and 7% of the trained agricultural work force is female. In a continent where women produce as much as 80% of the food, the reasons for such low participation are manifold and complex. Prominent among these reasons are educational obstacles, which include sex role socialization, pregnancy and school drop-out, limited college facilities, and lack of academic mentors and institutional support.

There are common factors and components that we may use to build our understanding of the participation of professional women in NARS. The management environment of developing organizations is influenced by both outside (exogenous) and inside (endogenous) factors. In NARS, most management interactions are influenced by both types of factors.

In relation to these factors, the components of participation by women in organizations. These include access (entry), attrition (survival), and achievement (output). Exogenous and endogenous factors influence each of these components. Examples of such influences in NARS are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Components of Participation by Professional Women in NARS and Examples of Factors That May Influence That Participation

COMPONENTS (of female participation in ag. research)	FACTORS (relative to human resource environment)	
	Endogenous	Exogenous
Access	- Managers/professionals as role models (networks, mentors) - Facilities (e.g., housing) - Recruitment standards - Recruitment procedures (for informing and attracting applicants) - Linkages to universities and other labor pools - Expectations, attitudes or managers	- Availability (shortage) of females in professional labor market - Specialization of females who enter professional labor market -Societal perceptions of careers and roles - Female perceptions of opportunities in agricultural research - Job search restrictions (location preferences and mobility limitations)
Attrition	- Managers/professionals as role models (networks, mentors) - Facilities (e.g. housing) - Benefits (e.g. maternity leave, pre-/post-natal care)	- pregnancy/child-rearing - Gender-linked roles (family responsibilities) - Mobility limitations
Achievement	- Sex-biased career practices (screening and selection for training, advancement) - Managers/professionals as role models (networks, mentors) - Expectations, attitudes of managers	-Average age/experience -Mobility limitations - Gender-linked roles (expectations, application for advancement) - Societal perceptions of leadership qualifications

These factors and components provide us with building blocks for our conceptual framework to address women's staffing issues in NARS. For example, they indicate targets for analysis and potential interventions to address staffing issues: policy and procedure reform, training and development programs, etc. They suggest that intervention on some factors may be more feasible than on others (e.g. on manager's attitudes rather than on societal precepts). Factors may be considered as independent variables upon which women's participation depends; this stimulates hypotheses to be explored (e.g. that participation in organizations with few women may be limited more by exogenous than by endogenous factors).

Efficiency

The efficiency standpoint is a management perspective that deals with the way available resources are used to achieve objectives. In this perspective, women's staffing issues are to be linked with the desire to make the best use of human resources. It calls into question those factors that may result in professional women being under-utilized and focuses on management strategies to optimize the use of this resource. Discrimination sub-optimizes human resources and can reduce the efficiency of the total system. Loss of efficiency may be manifested in attrition, absenteeism, alienation, low morale, work stress, and in some cases, sabotage.

For the research organization, the other most important considerations dealing with efficiency concern the type of disciplines that are needed and how disciplinary strengths can best be combined to generate appropriate and useful technology for the farmers. Are the social scientists present on the research team sufficient to provide the necessary skills required to develop gender-focused research? The odds of having good gender analysis are likely to be improved with the presence of social scientists and women on the team. But the presence of either does not guarantee an approach which, while paying attention to gender, attends directly to the questions of the technical or biological scientists. Social scientists need help to see the agronomic research questions and to shape social science research to answer the production researcher's questions. Early collaboration between technical and social scientists in joint training, or in planning the specifics of a survey or interview, will enhance the possibility of focusing the research on farmers' problems.

Effectiveness[1]

The effectiveness perspective deals with notions derived from observations that women in professional organizations have different abilities and needs than men, and that women have attributes that better suit them to some activities or occupations than others. This assumption is controversial, as it may create or reinforce stereotypes of women's gender roles. A CGIAR study points out that "gender analysis is not gender specific [and] male and female researchers can be equally proficient in gender analysis".

The effectiveness perspective has also been applied to styles of leadership and management. The notion that women may have a style of leadership that gives them an advantage to be successful managers has stirred the effectiveness debate among business leaders academics.

NARS may find they have the opportunity to integrate women professionals rather than to assimilate them. Integration includes the recognition and valuing of diverse characteristics. Two processes occur in integration: the individual is strengthened and the larger society has to show increased tolerance toward less usual types. In the work place, integration is the acceptance by the dominant group that minority group characteristics can contribute to organizational goals, and the application of the characteristics of the minority to achieve those goals. Integration entails strategic action to benefit from the characteristics that women bring to the work place, as opposed to assimilation, which requires them to give up characteristics. The choice is to create policies, procedures, and skills that recognize, value, and benefit from diversity.

Strategies for change

Managing diversity has, at its root, the objective of increased productivity by more efficient use of all workers. To achieve this, it attempts to understand and deal with the "diversity of employee wants and needs". It may involve the entire range of human resource policies and programs. It is often initiated through "sensitivity" or "awareness" training for leaders, line managers, and human resource managers. They are trained to recognize and analyze their attitudes about "who is desirable" for recruitment, hiring, and promotion, and to re-examine their image of competence and success, in terms of biases of sex, race, ethnicity, and social class. Management of diversity may include a review of compensation and employee classification to ensure equal pay for equal work, as well as analysis of comparable worth of jobs to ensure that certain jobs are not

1 Brush, E.G. and Rao, A.R. 1993. Issues of Professional Women in Agricultural Research in Developing Countries. Discussion Paper No. 93-22. ISNAR: The Hague.

downgraded because they represent "woman's work." Diversity management programs may include human resource initiatives in personnel development (training, monitoring, establishing career paths), staff (accommodating dual-career couples, relocation of spouses), performance management, benefits (maternity leave, child care), and the management of sexual harassment.

Change can be managed and directed to benefit a system. In this section, we propose a methodology for managing change related to women's staffing issues. Although we discuss a single approach to managing change, others are available. Our model has two key principles: the leadership of a NARS must be engaged in the creation and pace of change, and managers and professional staff must have a voice in the direction of change.

NARS leadership and women's staffing issues

Vision, the capacity to imagine new conditions that a system is capable of achieving, is a central characteristic of leadership. In agricultural research, the vision of leaders is needed to identify necessary change and to see that the right things are done by managers. To address women's staffing issues, the leaders of national agricultural research systems must first see these issues as a matter of organizational development. Action on women's staffing issues in NARS has to be ushered in from the top, through the commitment of the leaders.

NARS leaders who see the need to address women's staffing issues face a spectrum of options, among which are possibilities of bringing more professional women into the system and of making better use of the women already there. Within the spectrum there are various combinations of these options.

Affirmative action (from our perspective noted earlier) is a strategy to efficiently use labor market resources, to increase the number of professional women in a system. A need for this strategy is likely to be more acute in NARS with few women than in those with many women. Diversity management is a strategy to more efficiently utilize women already employed in a system, to increase their survival and achievement. This need is likely to be more acute in NARS with many professional women than in those with few.

In all issues leaders choose to address, there will be strategic considerations in managing the required organizational changes. Leaders must ensure the participation of other actors in the change process, communicate the objective toward which the changes should be directed, and indicate the focus of the change and the tactics needed. Table 3 (On following page)summarizes some strategic considerations for NARS leaders.

A leader who is determined to address women's staffing issues will benefit by engaging others in the change process at an early stage. Early participation of individuals from outside and inside the organization can help leadership to manage change by leveraging influence, providing information on the issues, assessing needs, and identifying alternative approaches. This gives leaders a solid foundation for managing later stages of the process such as consensus building, reform of policy and procedures, program development, and implementation.

Table 3. Strategic Considerations for NARS

Considerations	NARS with few professional women	NARS with many professional women
Strategic	Affirmative action	Diversity management
Objectives	- Increase numbers of professional women - Efficient utilization of resources in labor market	- Increase survival and acheivement of professional women - Efficient utilization of resources in NARS
Actors	- Leaders - Advisory council - Standing committee - Policymakers - WID groups - Outside consultants (ISNAR, NGOs, etc.)	- Leaders - Advisory council - Standing committee - Focus group - Outside consultants (ISNAR, NGOs, etc.)
Focus	Exogenous and endogenous factors affecting access: - Data collection - Availability analysis - Needs assessment - Information sharing - Policy development - Recruitment strategy - Management training	Primarily endogenous factors affecting survival and achievement: - Data collection - Utilization analysis - Needs assessment - Information sharing - Procedure and program development - Orientation, mentoring, career counseling, benefits policies, etc. - Management training

Gender training as an important part of human resource development[2]

Training has an important role in enhancing awareness of gender issues and skills of gender analysis. In a recent survey of farming systems research and extension projects to determine the integration of gender issues and analysis it was found that in every case where training (either formal or informal) did occur, those projects subsequently conducted or improved gender analysis. The relationship between training and gender issues was stronger than the relationship between having either women or social scientists on the project team and gender issues. This points to the usefulness of explicitly including training as part of an overall strategy to incorporate gender issues in project activities.

Training in gender issues and gender analysis works to make project personnel more aware of gender and to conduct gender analysis more effectively. The results from the survey cited above showed that when project staff had training in gender issues and analysis, they were able to devise effective strategies to overcome the difficulties and obstacles which often stand in the way of effectively including women in projects or incorporating gender analysis in the process of technology development. Personnel without training could often recognize the need for including gender issues but were unable to overcome the obstacles preventing it. Training in gender issues and analysis is more effective when formal and informal mechanisms are used.

2 (Feldstein et al. 1989)

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Formal training in short courses or workshops dedicated exclusively to gender issues may be appropriate in some settings. In others, developing modules on gender and incorporating them into on-going training in agricultural research may be more effective.

Follow-up to formal training programs will ensure that professionals newly introduced to the issues can actually use these skills in their on-going work. Follow-up can be informal, consisting of short-term support from outside consultants with gender analysis expertise. In the survey cited above, several respondents mentioned that group data analysis and discussion meetings, in which entire teams brainstormed strategies based on shared gender analysis results, were quite effective. Managers of agricultural research and development projects can help ensure subsequent attention to gender issues by installing self-evaluation mechanisms, whereby projects report periodically on how they are focusing attention on gender issues in their work. The exchange of information among project staff or between different projects is also useful reinforcement.

It is important not to target a single individual or discipline for gender training, but to include gender as an issue of responsibility for all team members. While it is true that social science is the domain for detailed, in-depth research on gender issues and the development of innovative methodologies for pursuing gender research, use of the results from this work are the responsibility of all team members.

Exercise 5. Gender issues in human resource management in the NARS
(role playing)

Phase 1. Role play (15 minutes)

1. The actors assigned yesterday act out the narrative of one female research leader's experience in her NARO (handout 3.5.5).

Phase 2. Plenary discussion (30 minutes)

2. The trainer invites you to participate in a discussion, in which the following questions will serve as guidelines:

   A. What do you think were Jane's main obstacles in her job?

   B. What would you do if you were Jane?

   C. What might be the concluding scenario of this story, perhaps one year from where it left off?

3. The group discusses their different courses of action and any differences or similarities in their problem-solving approach.

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Exercise 5. Narrative
(role playing)

For the role play you will need the following characters:

- **Narrator**
- **Director of Crops Science**
- **Head of the Institute**
- **Other Scientists Around Interview**
- **Dr. Jane Malo**
- **Director of Finance**

Narrator: Dr. Jane Malo was at her desk at the National Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Institute and she was thinking back to the day when she first entered the Institute for the interview for her position as a Senior Crops Research Scientist. That morning she had dropped her children off at their primary school and then went on to her interview with the Head of the Institute and several senior scientists. She had wondered if her children would have a different life ahead of them. When she had been in primary school, Jane remembered for every girl there was a boy student. When she reached high school, there were slightly fewer girls than boys. Then in university, the ratio of female to male students grew further apart. Here at her interview she was not surprised to find that all of the interviewers were male and the only other female in the room was a secretary.

Director of Crops Science: "So, have you any prior experience in social sciences, Mrs. Malo?"

Jane Malo: "Well, an interest perhaps but no specific training. I have been working for the last five years at the university as a researcher in the Genetics Department, so I have not had much exposure to this area. Will this job involve training in the social sciences?"

Head of Institute: "Well, not exactly. We require someone to design a gender component for our largest program. We have already sent another of our Senior Scientists for a short course on social sciences so there won't be further training at this time."

Director of Finance: "And, Dr. Malo, do you have any experience in administration?"

Jane Malo: "Well yes, some experience, from the university, but I was also a consultant to a larger research program and this involved some administration of the grant."

Director of Finance: "Good, this position of Senior Research Scientist needs someone with administrative skills because the other scientists are not particularly good at keeping neat books and making reports. (Ha, ha, laughs from the directors and scientists in the room.)

Head of the Institute: "Well, you are something of a "women's libber" from your C.V. (laughs), but I am sure you will like working here. As for your contract, I expect your husband earns a housing allowance through his job at the Ministry, so that won't be needed; same for children's school allowance. I expect you wouldn't be interested in the Institute's credit and savings program. Well, I guess that it will be a straightforward contract."

Narrator: Jane Malo doesn't know why, but she felt reluctant to say ...

Jane Malo's voice: "Actually, Dr. So-and-so, I am interested in the Institute's allowances, and yes, I would like to be in the credit and savings scheme."

Narrator: She felt oddly shy and uncomfortable discussing her contract and negotiating her position with the Research Institute. Maybe she would have another opportunity to do so once she was employed at the Institute.

Narrator: Two years later, this situation was unchanged. Jane had tried on different occasions to have the Head of the Institute discuss her allowances, as well as the possibility of further training, but he always changed the discussion to other matters. Now there was a new Head of the Institute who seemed even less likely to want to address this issue. Today Jane is heading to another interview; this time she is on the interview committee for a new staff member.

Jane Malo: "Well, I see she is applying for the position of Senior Livestock Scientist. I wonder what she will do when it comes to negotiating her contract? I better get going to the interview, I hope she is a good candidate....."

Exercise 5. Worksheet

1. Jane's main obstacles in her job...

2. What you would do if you were Jane?

3. What might be the scenario of this story one year from where it left off?

"Sameness" and "Difference" for Women Bureaucrats: Experience from a Management Development for Women Program[1]

Introduction

This article is written from a practitioner's perspective, from the perspective of designing and delivering a management development program for women civil servants from "developing countries." It is based on the experience of bureaucratic life shared by successive participants in a course for women civil servants from the south who attended a three-month program based in London.

The program is concerned with examining the barriers for women within civil service organizations, and with the development of gendered management tools to clarify their own goals in their management role to influence the production of gendered outcomes. It focuses on increasing the effectiveness of women managers, and on identifying and reducing the barriers they face. It provides some material from within institutions to explore what Goetz identifies as "the persistent failure of public service delivery agencies to include women equitably amongst the publics that they ostensibly serve" and the need to "understand not just the role of public administration in producing gendered outcomes but the role of gender in structuring power and opportunity within administration, and the links between these two processes" (Goetz 1992: 6).

This article focuses on just one aspect of the program, using women's words and narratives as case material. Over the last four years of the program, the majority of the participants have consistently entered the program with the view that the organization is gender neutral. By the end of the three months, they have made a substantial shift: they see the organization as a site of gendered subordination. Both the gendered outcomes and the role of gender in structuring power and opportunity within administration are visible to them, and they have developed some strategies appropriate to their situation to challenge this subordination. The article will examine how both the group process and the training process contribute to this shift.

The Management Development Program

All the participants in this program are women civil servants from a range of developing countries, including Bangladesh, India, Sri Lanka, Nigeria, Ghana, Kenya, Tanzania, the Sudan, and Yemen. The program is funded through the British aid program. The focus of the management development program is women civil servants as agents of change in the development process, with a value base that puts redistribution of power at its center. Its aim is to enable the participants to analyze the links between the two features identified by Goetz: the membership, processes and culture of the institutions they work in, and the policy and practical outcomes of those institutions; and to intervene in the complex and unequal relations of power in order to influence these outcomes for women's benefit, both within and outside the organization.

The curriculum is based on a model which places the woman bureaucrat at the center of a series of concentric circles, which represent the domains which influence her ability to act: from the

1 Marion Macalpine, IDS Bulletin, Institute of Development Studies. Sussex University, Vol. 26, No.3.

center, she is surrounded by her household, the section she manages, her department, the civil service, the communities it serves, the national and the international context. The curriculum includes a wide ranges of themes, concepts and skills which bridge and connect these different circles. It includes analysis of the international and national environment within which the civil administration operates, including the role of the World Bank, the IMF, and the GATT; strategic management and policy development; organizational analysis, staff management and development, personnel and finance management, and information technology. It looks at all of these through the gender lens, and locates them in the context of the multiple roles of the woman at the center, and in the context of development policy and practice, and over-arching north-south relations. It also takes into account diversity in a range of meanings, differences between civil servants and "beneficiaries," differences of class, region, education, religion, ethnic origin, and marital status. To enable constant interconnections to be made between these different elements and levels of analysis, the curriculum is spiral rather than modular, referring back and forth in making these links, weaving strands of learning together, rather than completing building blocks. Personal and explicit connections are made between different parts of the program and the participants' own experiences.

Indeed, a key feature of the model of learning is that it is firmly based in participants' experiences. The program provides an exciting opportunity for these experiences to be reflected on and shared, within and across countries. New concepts and generalizations emerge from this process of women sharing, which challenge accepted ideas of how things are. The exploration of the idea of the gender-neutral organization, and how far this matches women's actual experience, is one example of this process of building theory from experience.

"Sameness and Difference": Perceptions of the Institution

Many delegates to the program arrive with a gender-neutral model of how their institutions work: "Of course there is equality: there are no barriers for women. Men and women are treated equally." The picture they have of the institution is the Weberian organization chart, with posts arranged in a hierarchy, in functional units determined by the work to be done. They see these posts as filled, not by gendered "bodies" (Acker 1990), but by gender-neutral post-holders. This picture works powerfully to camouflage or suppress women's actual experience. It is only by jointly collecting data of women's actual experience that this model can be challenged, and the consistently gendered nature of structures, culture, and work relationships be made visible.

Early in the program participants are invited to present a "dilemma" that they have faced in the workplace, which they have either been able to resolve, or which they wish to discuss. It is on the experience presented in these sessions over the period 1991-94 that this article is based. Although this is not part of the briefing they are given, almost all the dilemmas presented are rooted in gender relations inside the institution, or at the intersection between the "private" and "public" domains of the women's lives.

Some are accounts of institutional barriers; some are of individual men's responses to women in management positions, which contribute to a culture which is uncomfortable for women and which challenges their legitimacy.

One woman described her first posting to a civil service station far from the capital. She arrived on the day before a local election. Her new boss said to her: "I hope you are very much aware that our service is for 24 hours, and you have to put up with every problem that you meet." So, on her first day, she was kept sitting in the control room until two o'clock in the morning, and then taken to a rest house occupied only by men.

An intense discussion followed this presentation: some women felt that this treatment was cruel and unnecessary, and indeed constituted a hostile initiation ritual, and put the woman's reputation at risk. Many of the other women felt that this was "normal" treatment of a new officer, and women should not require anything different. If they did, they ran the risk of harming the prospects of women rising in the ranks of the civil service.

Another woman described her attempts to get women's toilets in the central offices in the capital city. She said she would use "all the usual channels" to get this agreed, and if these did not work, she would start to hang posters on the buildings. Other women were very shocked at this suggestion.

Another account was again from the field; the Bangladeshi woman telling this story was posted to a district far from Dhaka. At the time she had a nine-month-old son. Of the small number of women civil servants in this district, all the others were unmarried, and shared a women's house. Nothing was provided for this officer. "It's up to you," she was told. She had to work until 7 or 8 at the night, and had to send her son far away to her mother's house. She lodged in the unmarried women's house. However, her son reacted unhappily to this separation, and she was forced to send for him. There was "no woman boss and no sympathy," she said.

A Sri Lankan was appointed to coordinate the work of a Minister. According to the usual practice, she had to work until the Minister left the office, which was sometimes at midnight. She was a young unmarried woman and her parents were very unhappy with this.

In all of these cases, women were required to act as if they were men. Cynthia Cockburn, in her study of gender relations in organizations in the UK, found that men could argue: "If you want to join men as equals in the public sphere, you must leave behind womanly things. You must be indistinguishable from a man. You must, in short, assimilate." (Cockburn 1991:164.) Women's own expectations reflect this pressure. A Sri Lankan delegate in charge of a government district said, "I do my work ambitiously, bravely, without thinking that I am a woman."

However, most of the dilemmas were concerned with women expecting to be treated as "officers," but being seen as women who belonged in the "private" domain. When a Senior Evaluation Officer visited projects, she found that the senior project personnel:

> *always tried to avoid giving me proper attention. They sometimes start gossiping, asking me about my personal affairs such as what does my husband do, how many children do I have. After this type of attitude, I start my questions about their project and they realize that I am not only a woman. I am also an officer who knows every in and out of their project and then they pay attention to me. To overcome this situation, I always prepare myself and inform myself about the projects which I want to visit.*

Only by preparation and determination does she avoid attempts to diminish her role and authority.

One participant went to her manager to discuss the place she had been offered on a "Management Development for Women" course. Her boss told her: "How could you manage this offer? Would you go to London for management development? But you know you are a lady officer. You manage the office — it is a very tough job. You can't do this." He refused to give her permission to go to a meeting about the program at the British Council. The senior manager told her: "You have very important work in your office, then why will you go for your personal work within office hours?" She replied: "No sir. It is not my personal work. The government has nominated me so I think it should be treated as my official work, too." She commented: "I think it was the jealousy to a lady officer from a male boss."

Another woman was faced with a charge of overstaying her leave when she went to Dhaka to take some exams. "It could have happened to anyone from the service," she commented. "But I have the feeling that because I am from the other gender and I was the only female executive in my organization, that may have created this issue. A male colleague would not have faced such charges." Another delegate commented: "Men manipulate the rules to suit themselves but are never prepared to relax them to accommodate women."

Several women were ignored when they joined an office. They were provided with neither room, desk, nor work.

> *My big boss told me to manage my seating arrangements by myself. I waited for about two weeks to see whether any of the male colleagues offered me his room or offered to share. But I did not have any response from any of them. So I found a small anteroom and I myself went to the common service section, and applied for the necessary logistical supports. After decorating this small room, I invited two male colleagues to tea. They were surprised to see how beautifully I arranged that small, not spacious room. Although my room is small, has only one window, no proper ventilation, I feel independent, free to think, to work and to stay. Though I haven't been able to recover my whole power, I was able to establish myself, my work — that was my achievement.*

She also faced what she felt was special and unwelcome attention as a woman.

> *There are some colleagues who are always against women. They are always ready to identify me as a woman. In our constitution and service rules, there is no word like "female officer." Officers are designated as "officer", not "male" and "female." But these male colleagues always talk beside me about how I behave, how I walk, what I wear. If I do my duty sincerely and efficiently they never appreciate me, but if I do any wrong that becomes a story to them.*

Some forms of different treatment are even more blatant, and bring sexuality even more clearly into the practices that men use to control women. A woman appointed to a senior post, the first woman at this level in her area, had to walk up a long stairway on the outside of the place where she was working every day, with all eyes upon her. She also received offensive anonymous notes delivered in her post.

Other women found that their gender was used directly to challenge their authority. A magistrate in Bangladesh told the story of what happened to her on her first day in court. "The situation in the court was not so quiet. Many of the lawyers were shouting in the court. The comments were like these: 'Look, we have a young woman magistrate.' I was a little bit nervous for the moment but I managed the situation. Some of them were making comments about me which I overheard. The District Magistrate was making comments like the lawyers: "A woman does not have detailed knowledge about the laws". It was really a challenge for me. For days together I thought about whether I should be there or seek a transfer to another district."

This story had a happy ending:

> *I was very much reserved in the court and passed the orders according to the rules. I always followed the principle that everyone is equal in the eyes of the law. After a few days I went to my boss and explained to him the whole situation. He felt sorry for undermining me. The lawyers were moved by the proceedings and judgments made by me. They begged pardon for their first days' behavior in the court. Even when I was transferred to another district they wanted me to stay there.*

Other women wanted to take action against corrupt practices they were faced with, but felt limited by being women. Nasrin felt her manager was protecting a man who wanted to acquire some purchase deeds illegally. "If I tell something to my Deputy Commissioner against my boss, he may take it otherwise and term me a tactless officer because I am a lady." She wrote a factual report and recommended that the Anti Corruption Unit be brought in. Her manager was forced to agree. "I was bold and adamant enough from the administrative viewpoint, so that my boss was convinced and appreciated me much."

"Same" or "Different": Implications for Management Development for Women

"Organization is precisely and uniquely the means by which power is effected," writes Cockburn (1991, 17). These stories provide some illustrations within the civil administration of ways in which gendered power is exercised, particularly how "men decide when women's difference becomes relevant" (Cockburn 1991, 63). In the course of telling and listening to these dilemmas, women became aware of the contradictory nature of the demands made of them, and the way in which these demands trivialize their presence (Goetz 1992, 14). Analysis of their experience shows that men maintain their power both through formal means and through fluid and informal ways, through cultural practices and discourse.

A management program for women provides an opportunity for explicit sharing and joint analysis, so that these informal processes become visible and the idea of a gender neutral organization can be challenged. The program provides a space for legitimizing women's perspectives on how they are required to fit into male-designed institutions. It can also allow women to begin to clarify what institutions would look like if they were designed for both women and men, and to clarify their own view on where difference is relevant and where it is not. They found, as Cockburn concluded from her UK study, that they need to "keep the ideas of sexual and gender difference in play but on their own terms. Women are the ones who must be able to say when difference is relevant" (Cockburn 1991, 9).

The program offers various management tools for women to use on their own terms. Strategic management through the "gender lens" enables them to clarify their own purposes and goals wherever they are within the institution. A stakeholder analysis vividly demonstrates the gendered power relations within and outside the organization, and illustrates other sources of power difference, such as class, education, and ethnic origin. The participants develop gendered "statements of purpose" for the units that they manage. A Ghanaian manager in the Cocoa Marketing Board defined the purpose of her department as "providing good education through scholarships for cocoa farmers' daughters and sons." A Tanzanian policy adviser aimed to "develop floriculture to benefit women farmers as well as men." Participants then use a SWOT analysis (of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) to determine gendered strategic goals for themselves and their staff, such as improving access to their offices for both women and men users of the services they provide. These formal analytic tools enable them to have some confidence in challenging the "file" culture of their organizations, and to be proactive in setting their own goals rather than being handed a daily list of tasks.

They are introduced to a "power net" to analyze the informal power relations within the institution, and identify potential allies and ways of working with them. They also identify men or occasionally women who could act as mentors for them, and can begin to see themselves as potential mentors for other women. They explore the opportunities for staff development for their women staff. They sometimes plan to set up networks for their own support, an idea which has been developed in Bangladesh in the creation of the Gender Management Network, in the context of an in-country training program for women civil servants.

All of these management tools enable women managers to articulate the different needs of women in the organization, and of women and men as external stakeholders. Another focus of the management development program is to build bridges between the experience of middle class women civil servants, rooted in the culture of the bureaucracy, and their clients and users. Role play is used to make links between the experiences of women bureaucrats and women "beneficiaries" of government services, to begin to analyze what is similar and what is different in their experience. "I have discovered myself most privileged in the context of my sisters back home." "I see women as more oppressed than I thought before. Professional women are more or less a privileged group compared with rural women in Bangladesh but then even professional women are being controlled by men, everywhere from home to office." Becoming aware of similar processes of invisibility and marginalization enables a new perspective on women as "contributors" rather than "beneficiaries" and as "subjects" of the development process rather than "objects."

Similarities and Differences among Women

There is another concern about similarity and difference that arises in the context of this program: that is, the temptation to celebrate the similarities among women, particularly where there is the opportunity of sharing experiences across countries, cultures, and continents, and to lose the sense of diversity of experience and of power among women. To quote Cockburn again, "A further danger of subscribing too heavily to difference is the implication that if women are all different from men they are all similar to each other" (1991, 162). Chandra Mohanty points to the dangers of a focus on finding similar cases to show that women are oppressed, rather than on uncovering the specific causes of oppression for a particular group of women (1988, 79). This is a particular danger when programs for women from the "south" are run in the "north."

Outcomes from the Management Development Program

The process of viewing through the gender lens is a painful one. Women commented on this during an in-country follow-up session nine months after the program.

> *There is turmoil in my heart.*
>
> *What was new was my sense of men's "disappreciation" for women in the department. I came to realize that it exists.*
>
> *I never thought that there was any discrimination. After we came back and having the (gender) lenses on, I can always feel that people (i.e. men) feel very differently about women colleagues. We are very much depressed about it, there is a great discrimination going on, we feel it very strongly now. I try to deal with it. I am still in the process.*

What is clear is that there has been a major shift in beliefs about how the organization is structured. Many of the women have moved from collusion in their own oppression to the legitimization of their new perspectives on their experience. It becomes clear that their experience is not an individual one which is hard to recognize and name, but is due to the structuring of power by gender within the organization. This recognition has an immediate and dynamic effect on women's confidence. They also feel legitimated by developing their management skills: "Never before had I so much confidence in myself, the confidence which was supported by effective skills and techniques. I am now able to analyze and assess my potentialities, their perceptions. We did not call these strengths; there was no methodical analysis of the situation."

Those management skills enabled them to focus on women's and men's different needs, in terms of strategic analysis and goal-setting. Some women were able to influence outcomes outside the

institution: for example, setting up new women's programs at the village level. Other women are so buried within the layers of the institution that users of government services are remote. These women, however, have been able to influence the informal culture of the institution in a way that is fluid, relational and dynamic. They look for changes in the "mini-climate" for themselves and their staff, where they cannot make big or formal changes. Their colleagues clearly noticed a change: "Their attitude is that this lady is now a changed woman, with new skills and techniques at her disposal, so we should be aware of her."

Participants' own self images changed, and with this the possibilities for action. A Bangladeshi woman observed: "Whatever he (the manager) will feel about me, I must express my view. How far he will accept it or not will depend on him." Another said, "Now I am able to say to a man: This is my strength: asking for my legal rights. This is your weakness: you are not carrying it out." A third commented: "We're still looked down upon as women but we're fighting."

The participants make this substantial shift in their perceptions on the gendered structures of power in the organization by sharing their experience and theorizing anew to challenge accepted ideas. "This process, "wrote a Tanzanian delegate in an evaluation of the course", made us reflect and think deeply and explore possibilities, examine and scrutinize and be creative."[2]

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Acker, J. 1990. Hierarchies, jobs, bodies: a theory of gendered organizations. *Gender and Society* 4(2).

Cockburn, C. 1991. In the way of women. London: Macmillan.

Goetz, A.M. 1992. *Gender and administration.* IDS Bulletin 23(4): 6-17.

Mohanty, C. 1988. Under western eyes: feminist scholarship and colonial discourses. *Feminist Review* 30.

2 A full account of this approach to management development for women will be found in Macalpine, M. and Williams, G. 1995, forthcoming. The gender lens: management development for women in developing countries, edited by C. Itzin and J. Newman. In: Gender, Culture and Organizational Change: Putting Theory into Practice, London: Routledge.

DAY THREE

Session 6
Gender Analysis and Engendering the Research Program Formulation Process and Project Management Cycle

Instructions to Trainers

SESSION 6

10:45 – 13:00 Session 6. Gender Analysis and Engendering the Research Program Formulation Process and Project Management Cycle

13:00 – 14:00 Lunch

14:00 – 15:30 Exercise 6. (Continued)

15:30 – 15:45 Tea/Coffee Break

15:45 – 16:30 Exercise 6. (Continued)

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this session, the participants will be able to do the following:

- Describe the research program formulation process and project management cycle.
- Identify how gender analysis can engender the research program process and the project management cycle.
- Discuss the tools used in gender analysis.

Use overhead 3.6.1 to present the objectives.

PROCEDURE

Training techniques: presentation, group work.

RATIONALE

This session begins with an introduction to gender analysis and then discusses the role of gender analysis in the program and project cycle for agricultural and natural resource research management. After the presentation, participants work in groups to understand and use various gender analysis tools.

PRESENTATION

The presentation focuses on analysis research management, now from the angle of program formulation and project management in NARS. Overheads 3.6.2 through 3.6.32 support the presentation. At the end of the presentation be sure to allow sufficient time to ask the participants if they have any comments or questions, or if they need clarifications. Expect this session to have many questions and clarifications. Distribute handouts 3.6.1 and 3.6.2. (2 hours 15 minutes)

13:00 - 14:00 Lunch Break

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EXERCISE 6

Exercise 6. Engendered project proposal. (2 hours 15 minutes)

Phase 1. Group work (55 minutes)

1. Divide the participants into three groups, and ask each group to elect a rapporteur.
2. Distribute handouts 3.6.3 and 3.6.4. Handout 3.6.3 gives clear instructions for the exercise. Go over the instructions step by step. Ask if clarifications are needed. Distribute the proposals (handouts 3.6.5 through 3.6.7) and handout 3.6.8 to the different groups.
3. While the groups work, circulate among them to check on progress. Clarify any concerns they may have while they are working. (45 minutes)
4. Distribute the ranking sheet (handout 3.6.9) to the participants, to write down the evaluation of the presentations in the next phase.

Phase 2. Reporting and discussion (1 hour 20 minutes)

5. Each rapporteur has five minutes to present their new engendered project proposal to the audience. (15 minutes)
6. Invite the audience to evaluate the proposals presented, according to the following ranking scale: 1=reject, 2=revise and re-submit, 3=approved. Ask them also to justify their responses, and to write the answers on the ranking sheet (handout 3.6.8). (15 minutes)
7. Collect the ranking sheets and compile the responses on a flipchart in front of the audience.
8. Read the major justifications and explain the results to the group. (10 minutes)
9. Provide feedback to the presentations and invite the participants to join in the discussion. (40 minutes)

CLOSURE

Closure (5 minutes)

1. *(application)* Ask a volunteer to list the major things they have learned from this exercise.
2. Make a transition to the last session.

16:30 – 17:00 Feedback on the Day's Activities and PAPA

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this session participants will be able to do the following:

- Describe the day's activities.
- Consider possible actions they would like to implement in their own organizations.

PROCEDURE

Training techniques: discussion, PAPA.

Distribute handouts 3.6.10, 3.6.11, and 3.6.12. Discuss any positive or negative points of the day. Note areas that may need additional attention in the workshop. Participants can write some strengths and weaknesses of the day on handout 3.6.10. (15 minutes)

PAPA

(application) Ask the participants to take some time to jot down some "action ideas" they may have for themselves as a result of today's activities. They can use handout 3.6.12. (15 minutes)

POST-SESSION

Remind the participants to read handout 4.7.3 (the case study), which was distributed on the first day. This handout will be used in session 7.

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DAY THREE

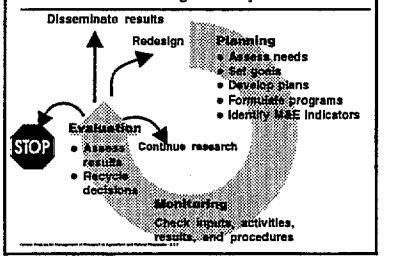
Session 6
Summary of Overheads

Objectives of Session 6

4. Describe the research program formulation process and project management cycle.
5. Identify how gender analysis can engender the research program process and project management cycle
6. Discuss tools used in gender analysis

3.6.1

The Management Cycle



3.6.2

Planning

A process for:

- Assessing needs
- Setting goals
- Setting priorities
- Developing plans
- Identifying M&E indicators
- Determining resources
- Building consensus

3.6.3

Define the Unit of Planning

- Program, project, or study?
- Characterize changes that research results will bring to farming systems
  - changes to entire production system (e.g. irrigation schemes)
  - step-by-step iterative changes based on target area or community

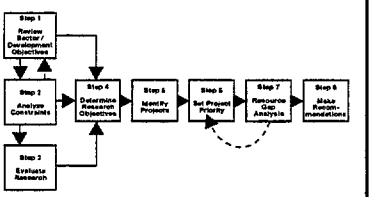
3.6.4

Research Programs

- Responsive to NARS goals
- Long-term objectives
- Composed projects
- Provide leadership
- Approve research proposals
- Participant in evaluation
- Are periodically evaluated

3.6.5

Program Planning Steps



3.6.6

Program Planning Analysis

Subsector review

1. Policy analysis — gender sensitivity
2. Resource analysis
3. Resource management practices — gender-based roles

3.6.7

Analysis of Constraints

Gender-based constraints in:

- production input/resources
- production technology use
- post-harvest technology and processing and marketing and utilization

3.6.8

Review of Research

Gender-based constraints in:

- Review impact analysis reports to assess sex-disaggregated impact of previous technologies
- Review the disaggregated benefits of previous technological intervention
- Assess the NARO's capacity for doing gender-focused research

3.6.9

Determining Research Objectives

Based on:

- identified constraints in inputs
- identified constraints in technology
- identified constraints in post-harvest and processing technologies
- marketing and utilization constraints

3.6.10

Identifying Research Projects

Based on gender-conscious program objectives and goals

3.6.11

Setting Project Priorities

Based on sector/subsector policy approach and gender dimension
1. Equity
2. Efficiency
3. Empowerment

3.6.12

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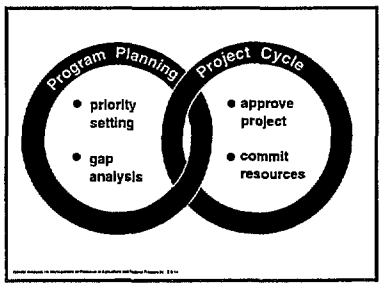
Resources Gap Analysis

- Human resources
  Disciplinary mix of research team
- Finance
  For implementation of activities

3.6.13



3.6.14

Project Management

A framework for:

- Translating research objectives into projects
- Monitoring progress during implementation
- Evaluating outputs after completion
- Communicating results to appropriate users

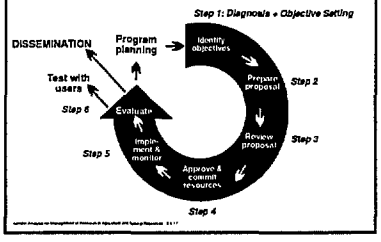
3.6.15

Project Cycle — Six Steps

1. Identify research project areas and objectives
2. Prepare proposal
3. Review proposal
4. Approve project and commit resources
5. Implement and monitor on-going project
6. Evaluate completed project

3.6.16

Project Cycle



3.6.17

Engendered Project Cycle

Step 1: Diagnosis + Objective Setting
- gather sex-disaggregated data
- analyze gender constraints of objectives and strategies
- analyze priorities from gender perspective
- analyze activities, resources, benefits/incentives

Step 2: Prepare Proposal
- use engendered logical framework matrix to develop the proposal
- include both male and female participants in proposal, design, development, and review
- select and promote female researchers and research assistants

Step 3: Review Proposal
- involve gender specialists in the review of the proposal

Step 4: Approve and Commit Resources
- involve both male and female participants in research implementation

Step 5: Implement and Monitor
- test and verify research results using gender-analysis tools

Step 6: Evaluate
- use sex-disaggregated indicators and benchmarks for assessing impact and evaluating project

Following the Project Management Cycle:
- disseminate gender research results to policymakers, media
- disseminate research results to male and female participants
- include male and female researchers in follow-up seminars, etc.
- test final results with male and female participants
- evaluate adoption among both males and females

3.6.18

Project Planning Analysis

1. Activity analysis

Identify sex and gender roles with the production system

For example: - goat production
- vegetable production
- maize production

3.6.19

Project Planning Analysis (Continued)

2. Resource analysis

Identify resources for production and their quality
- who has access to them
- who controls their use

For example: - land
- capital
- inputs for production

Analysis identifies actual and potential constraints in resources for production

3.6.20

Project Planning Analysis (Continued)

3. Benefit and incentives analysis

who has access and control on outputs of the production system

For example: - goat production

3.6.21

Project Management

Planning
- Strategic and practical gender needs and constraints translated into project objectives
- Identify gender-based target groups
- Identify gender-based project activities

3.6.22

Project Management (Continued)

- Identify gender-based research benefits and impact
- Identify sex-disaggregated indicators of success and gender-sensitive MOVs
- Develop a gender-sensitive logframe

3.6.23

Logical Framework Matrix

	Narrative Summary	Objectively Verifiable Indicators (OVI)	Means of Verification (MOV)	Important Assumptions
Goal				
Purpose				
Outputs				
Activities				

3.6.24

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Logical Framework Matrix (Continued)

Narrative Summary	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Means of Verification	Important Assumptions
Goal: the higher order objective to which the project contributes (often a program objective)	Measures to verify accomplishment of Goal	Sources of data needed to verify status of Goal-level indicators	Important external factors necessary for sustaining objectives in the long-run
Purpose: the effect or impact of the project	Measures to verify accomplishment of Purpose	Sources of data needed to verify status of Purpose-level indicators	Important external factors needed to attain the Goal
Outputs: the deliverables of the project	Measures to verify accomplishment of Outputs	Sources of data needed to verify status of Output-level indicators	Important external factors needed to attain the Purpose
Activities: the main activities that must be undertaken to accomplish outputs	Inputs: A summary of the project budget and resources	Sources of data needed to verify status of Activities	Important external factors that must prevail to accomplish the Outputs

3.6.25

Engendered Logical Framework Matrix

Narrative Summary	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Means of Verification	Important Assumptions
Goal: influences gender relations in some way	Measures to verify accomplishment of gender-conscious goals	Sex-disaggregated data for verifying status of goal-level indicators	External factors for sustaining gender-conscious long-term objectives
Purpose: conscious objectives	Means to verify accomplishment of gender-conscious objectives?	Sex-disaggregated data for verifying status of purpose-level indicators	Important external factors needed to attain the gender-conscious goal
Outputs: gender-conscious distribution of benefits	Means to verify benefits to both sexes	Sex-disaggregated data for verifying status of output-level indicators	Important external factors needed to attain the purpose

3.6.26

Implementation

- Identify gender-based roles in implementation
- If on-farm research, sex-disaggregated activities
- Operationalize the logframe

3.6.27

Major Uses of M&E

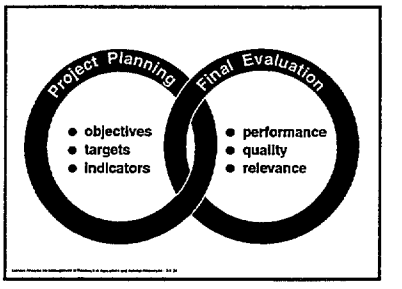
- Accountability
  - Reporting
  - Assessing impact
- Decisionmaking
  - Improving implementation
  - Periodic review
  - Improving planning
- Guidance for researchers

3.6.28

Engendered Monitoring

- Identify sex-disaggregated indicators
- Collect sex-disaggregated data on project activities

3.6.29



3.6.30

Evaluation

Judging, appraising, determining the worth, merit value, or quality of research (proposed, on-going or completed)

In terms of:
- relevance
- effectiveness
- efficiency
- impact

3.6.31

Impact

- Use sex-disaggregated monitoring data to assess gender-based benefits
- Assess whether the gender-based objectives of the the project were met

3.6.32

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Gender Analysis and Engendering the Research Program Formulation Process and Project Management Cycle
(summary of presentation)

Introduction

Over the years, ISNAR has received requests from NARS to provide them with methods for program and project planning which include priority setting and resource allocation. This would help them respond to policymakers, and satisfy both their own scientific prerogatives and their other clients, especially farmers. This is not a simple task. Besides dealing with different actors, the method has to deal with different levels, starting with the macro policy and system level to the micro experiment and trials on farmers' fields.

In response to this challenge, ISNAR has pursued two strategies. First, two methods have been developed. One for program planning and priority setting, and another for project planning, monitoring and evaluation. The second strategy has been to identify appropriate linkages between the different tasks and actors to ensure a coherent and effective performance of agricultural research systems. Proponents of gender planning have argued that the methodology for gender planning must emphasize procedures as well as debate, negotiation, and conflict resolution, and should, therefore, involve participation, consultation and interaction among the different actors.

This presentation focuses on the *planning components* of those strategies and reviews the processes involved from a gender perspective. There are steps and procedures within each method which deal with research agenda setting. Of course the entire process should be gender sensitive, but we choose to focus on the planning phases because these are key points for integrating gender.

The different methods are interrelated and form integral parts of the research management process. The first is an eight-step program planning and priority-setting method. The second is a six-step research project planning and monitoring method, which picks up from where the first one ends with some overlap. For linkages, we have a systems approach with the tasks necessary for the development and transfer of technology.

We shall attempt to go through these steps and, with the help of a review of the existing literature, identify relevant gender considerations.

Use of this method is aimed at improving the efficiency and effectiveness of programs and projects, as well as their chances of successful implementation and completion. However, gender-blindness is a big risk for failure to achieve positive results. Many projects went wrong because they were conceived, planned and implemented without the necessary gender considerations. There are several consequences of "gender-blindness" in design and development of technologies. We shall, therefore, review these methods and suggest ways of gendering the processes involved in program and project management of agricultural research. Although the steps are discussed one by one, they are interrelated and the process is iterative.

This method starts with the program as the unit of planning. It assumes that the agricultural research system organizes its work into programs, projects and experiments. A research organization wishing to plan its activities following this method must identify its planning unit

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and characterize the types of changes they would bring to farming systems (i.e. whether changes will affect entire production systems, such as irrigation systems, or whether they will be step-by-step iterative changes in the production systems, based on a target area or on an enterprize or a commodity). Such characterization helps to focus on the scale and scope of the plan as well as ensuring that no vital activities are left out.

Gender diagnosis of technological problems

This step includes a review of broad development objectives and of producers' situations in order to translate them into objectives for research strategy. Along with the review of the national development objectives, this step should include a review of the national women and development policy and plans.

The review of the farmer's situation should be disaggregated by sex. A framework and methodology for such an analysis has been developed for farming systems research[1]. The framework proposes four areas of analysis which can provide a gender disaggregated description of the farming system. These are:

- **Activities analysis** (i.e. who does what when). This analysis identifies sex roles and gender roles within the household and the farming system. First, the different activities and their place in the seasonal calendar are identified. Then the people who perform each activity are identified by sex and age, indicating where there is sequential collaboration between males and females and where there is sole responsibility of only one sex. This analysis reveals the spread of labor requirements throughout the season, showing periods of peak, even, and low labor requirements, and the competing tasks by sex and age.

  With respect to activities analysis, Moser (1993)[2] proposes that the different sex roles and gender roles should be further distinguished according to three categories: productive, reproductive, or community managing.

  The *productive role* comprises work done by both men and women for payment in cash or kind. It includes both market production with an exchange value, and subsistence/home production with an actual use value but, also, a potential exchange value. For women in agricultural production, this includes work as independent farmers, peasants' wives and wage workers (1993, 31).

  The *reproductive role* comprises the child bearing/rearing responsibilities and domestic tasks undertaken by women or men, required to guarantee the maintenance and reproduction of the labor force. It includes not only biological reproduction (i.e. child bearing), but also social reproduction, i.e. the care and maintenance of the workforce (husband, wife and working children) and the future workforce (infants and school-age children) (1993, 29).

  The *community managing role* comprises activities undertaken primarily at the community level. Women often perform these tasks as an extension of their reproductive role. This is to ensure the provision and maintenance of scarce resources of collective consumption, such as water, health care and education. It is voluntary and typically

1 See Feldstein et al, 1988. The gender variable in agricultural research. Canada: IDRC/CRDI/CIIDS.

2 See Moser, 1993. Gender Planning and Development: Theory, Practice and Planning. London: Routledge.

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unpaid labor undertaken in "free time." *The community politics role*, in contrast, comprises activities undertaken by men at the community level organizing at the formal political level. It is usually paid work, either directly or indirectly, through wages or increases in status and power.

Distinguishing these three types of roles is important in highlighting women's and men's multiple roles, as well as revealing the big risk of not visualizing those roles of women which have no exchange value and get easily identified with leisure time. Not recognizing reproductive tasks — especially those performed by women — can lead to productive and/or reproductive bottlenecks.

The result of such activities analysis yields profiles which assist in constraints diagnosis, selection of research strategies and priorities, and identifying the actors and interactions necessary in implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

- **Resource analysis** (i.e. who has what access and control to which critical resources for the implementation of activities related to the sector of the program being planned). The difference between access and control is that, while often women as wives can use resources such as land belonging to their husbands (i.e. have restricted access), it may be the husbands who decide how the land is to be used by their wives. Resources include land, capital and inputs, as well as information and knowledge, both indigenous and research generated.

  The results of such resource analysis indicate actual and potential constraints which technological changes will encounter. This also helps in identifying research strategies and predicts the likelihood of success.

- **Benefits and incentives analysis** (i.e. who has access and control over the output of production or the results of changes in production, and the preferences of men and women farmers to those end products). Often women give priority to consumption requirements, while men prefer to sell output for cash. Women's role in cash activities may also be underestimated. Certain changes introduce risk factors (e.g. credit with strict repayment demands). Women farmers may wish to refrain from the harassment associated with debt collection, while men with greater mobility may feel more inclined to take the risk.

  The results of benefits and incentives analysis is important for deciding on research strategies, including the choice of what types of experiments or studies to conduct to avoid gender bias.

Define research objectives and strategies

The second step is to analyze the results of the first step and define the objectives and strategies that can be used to solve those constraints. This means specifying changes which are necessary to resolve constraints for both men and women in their different roles, with different access to resources and with different expectations. Thus, this step involves defining the constraints in terms of gender, and distinguishing between strategic and practical gender constraints to assess the potential and limitation of solving them, and to identify correct strategies for overcoming them.

Gender constraints can be defined as needs based on women's (or men's) *interests*, which arise from women and men's positions in the gender hierarchy as well as in the division of labor. The multiple roles of women in the division of labor presents them with a dilemma of balancing

competing demands for their time and efforts. Gender hierarchy channels and targets men for needs which are both men's and women's or even primarily for women. This inevitably precipitates the problem of women not getting the means to fulfill their role satisfactorily and not being properly acknowledged.

Strategic gender constraints are the needs women identify because of their subordinate position in relation to men in their society. Strategic gender constraints vary according to particular contexts. They relate to the gender division of labor, power, and control and may include such issues as legal rights, domestic violence, equal wages, and women's control over their bodies. Meeting strategic gender needs helps women to achieve equality. It also changes existing roles and therefore challenges women's subordinate position.

Practical gender constraints are the needs women identify in their socially accepted roles in society. Practical gender needs do not challenge gender divisions of labor or women's subordinate position, although they arise from them. Practical gender needs are a response to immediate perceived necessity, identified within a specific context. They are practical in nature and often are concerned with inadequacies in living conditions, such as water provision, health care, and employment.

Identify research project objectives[3]

1. The identification of specific research project objectives is a decisionmaking point that receives input (rationale and general research goals and objectives) from the program planning process. Project objectives become the input for the next step in the project cycle, the preparation of research proposals.

2. In the program planning process, a tree of research objectives is developed, each objective generally corresponding to a major constraint in agricultural production. In the research project cycle, the project objectives generally correspond to the research program objectives, but are more specific in terms of activities. The objectives are later grouped into coherent sets of related research activities (projects), so that they may be effectively managed.

3. Each project objective should have clearly specified activities and measurable indicators or outputs, so that the people monitoring and evaluating the project at a later date can accurately determine whether or not the objective has been achieved.

4. Besides being clear and logical, the objectives should be realistic and attainable, considering available resources and methods to be used. They should also be expressed in terms of the problems faced by research output users.

5. An important tool which provides guidelines for monitoring and evaluation and specifies the intermediate and final objectives of a project or a program is the *logical framework.* The logical framework (logframe) is a matrix which gives the structure of the project, specifies the components of the activities, and identifies the linkages between a set of means and a set of ends. This framework lays the basis for analysis and evaluation of the project at different stages. The horizontal rows represent the levels of objectives (goal, purpose, outputs, inputs), the vertical logic columns indicate how the achievements of the objectives can be verified.

3 Source: ISNAR. 1996. Training Module on Planning , Monitoring, and Evaluation of Research Projects, pages 143 and 144.

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6. The logframe allows project planners and evaluators to specify the key elements of their projects and to identify the logical linkages between a set of means and a set of ends.

7. The key concept is one of cause and effect. If a series of activities are carried out, then outputs will have been obtained; if the outputs (the results or deliverables) are obtained then the purpose will be achieved; and if the purpose (project objective) is achieved then the project will contribute to achieving the goal (the higher order objective).

8. The logframe defines different levels of objectives (outputs, purpose and goal) and the activities necessary to achieve them. It also considers the external environment of the project, by identifying the external factors that could affect implementation of the research activities and the achievement of objectives.

9. A complete logframe also specifies indicators of achievement for the different levels of objectives and the means to verify them. The indicators become measures by which managers and a project team can monitor progress and evaluate results. Indicators should be targeted. That is, they should be measurable in terms of quantity, quality, and time. In our next exercise, participants will become much more familiar with the logframe.

Set priorities among projects

Even though agricultural research institutions have shown that they can achieve attractive rates of return, governments and the institutions themselves face increasing budget reductions. Therefore, it is not always possible to pursue all the projects identified and a selection has to be made to separate the essential from the non-essential projects for meeting the goals of the program. The decision may concern a fresh allocation of resources or whether the efforts on one project or activity should be increased, left constant, or decreased.

From the scientist's point of view, the achievements of technical objectives, such as yield targets, desired product characteristics, or reduction of production risks may be obvious yardsticks. However, from the above concerns, it is clear that other national development goals such as efficiency, equity, welfare, anti-poverty, sustainability, etc., have to be met as well. Therefore, the selection process has to integrate these goals in a compatible manner. It is important, however, to recognize that these goals meet different gender constraints in different ways. They may meet strategic or practical gender constraints in productive, reproductive, or community managing gender roles.

Traditional tools for priority setting make use of criteria and/or weights which are ascribed values. Proponents of gender planning have argued that the values and weights assigned to selection criteria are directly or indirectly market related, and are not sensitive to women's invisible tasks and related constraints.

Program research activities

Identification of a research strategy by defining projects is the first step in programming. Proposals then have to be written to specify the objectives to be met, the methods to be used, the groups to be targeted, and the resources required. The selection of the strategy has to be sensitive to the identified gender constraints. Therefore, the choice of experiments and studies must take into account the difference in constraints and preferences between women and men. Note that many research and development projects which yield negative results for women are not explicitly planned to do so, but are planned in a "gender-blind" manner.

Table 1. Logical Framework Matrix

	Narrative Summary	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Means of Verification	Important Assumptions
Goal	The higher order objective to which the project contributes	Measures to verify accomplishment of goal	Sources of data needed to verify status of goal-level indicators	Important external factors necessary for sustaining objectives in the long-run
Purpose	Objectives of the project	Measures to verify accomplishment of purpose	Sources of data needed to verify status of purpose-level indicators	Important external factors needed to attain the goal
Outputs	The deliverables of the project	Measures to verify accomplishment of outputs	Sources of data needed to verify status of output-level indicators	Important external factors needed to attain the purpose
Activities	The main activities that must be undertaken to accomplish outputs	Inputs: A summary of the project budget and other resources	Sources of data needed to verify status of activities	Important external factors that must prevail to accomplish the outputs

Table 2. Engendered Logical Framework Matrix

	Narrative Summary	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Means of Verification	Important Assumptions
Goal	Does the project have a goal that influences gender relations in any way?	Measures to verify accomplishment of gender-conscious goal	Is the data for verifying status of goal-level broken down by sex and analyzed in ters of gender?	Important external factors necessary for sustaining gender-conscious objectives in the long run
Purpose	Does the project have gender-conscious objectives?	Means to verify accomplishment of gender-conscious objectives	Is the data for verifying status of purpose-level broken down by sex and analyzed in terms of gender?	Important external factors needed to attain the gender-conscious goal
Outputs	Is the distribution of benefits taking gender-conscious into account?	Means of verifying benefits for both men and women	Is the data for verifying status of output-level broken down by sex and analyzed in terms of gender?	Important external factors needed to attain gender-conscious purpose
Activities	Are gender issues clarified in the implementation of the project?	Inputs: Is the contri-bution of all actors accounted for (all of women's and men's multiple roles and access and control over resources)?	Is the data for verifying status of activities broken down by sex and analyzed in terms of gender?	Important external factors that must prevail to accomplish benefits for men and women

In scientific institutions such as those of agricultural research, project proposals are normally sent for peer review to obtain approval for scientific merit. The covering memo will normally provide terms of reference for such a review. To maintain the gender-conscious objectives throughout the project and improve the chances of success, it is important that the terms of reference for peer review include gender considerations. This may require that experts and advocates of gender-conscious planning form part of the review panel.

Implement and monitor research projects

Along with project implementation, there are routine checks of the performance and progress in accordance with goals, objectives, inputs, and outputs defined at the outset. Thus, if gender-conscious goals and objectives were identified, this process will guarantee that they are implemented. If gender objectives were not identified, monitoring can reveal unanticipated negative gender effects on gender relations and facilitate modifications to effectively "engender" the project. Therefore it is important to apply sex-disaggregated indicators and benchmarks for assessing the impact of the project on gender relations. Indicators or benchmarks are references or standards by which performance may be measured.

Another approach to monitoring is the sequence of the 4 Rs:

- Record keeping
- Report writing
- Regular monitoring
- Reviewing what to do for improvement

Test and verify research results

In many agricultural and natural resource research systems, the task of verifying research results is performed by farming system teams. This involves on-farm trials to assess the performance of technologies under farm conditions. The role of local people in this phase is important for providing the plots as well as the performance information and preferences. The selection of farmers to participate should, therefore, include men and women to reflect the different roles, access to resources, and perceptions and distribution of benefits. Information about performance and preferences should be disaggregated by sex to show the differential impact of the technology on men and women farmers, and determine real or potential change to gender relations.

Synthesize results and formulate recommendations

The farming systems approach focuses recommendations by problem domains. This focus can obscure constraints which may be different for men and women in the same domain. The formulation of recommendations, therefore, should refer back to the gender diagnosis and the distinction between practical and strategic gender constraints in production, reproduction, and community management.

Disseminate research results

The dissemination of research results has two destinations. One is the scientific community through journals, conferences, seminars, etc. The other is the farmer community through rural extension procedures. Gender considerations including the complementary and conflicting needs of women and men must be included both for the scientific and farmer arenas.

For the scientific arena, the content of journals should analyze sex-disaggregated data. For the farming community, dissemination has to be explicitly geared to women and men farmers. With recommendations that focus on gender constraints, extension workers will have relevant messages for men and women farmers.

Evaluate adoption, and identify emerging problems

Rates of adoption studies should disaggregate adoption by sex and focus on gender constraints to adoption.

Table 1. Program Formulation and Priority Setting with a Gender Perspective – A Review of the program-planning and priority-setting method

Step	Program-planning and priority-setting Method	Objectives	Gender-planning considerations
1	Review sector: ● national macro economic data ● producers socioeconomic data	From national development objectives and farmers' situation, identify research strategy and objectives for step 4	Establish baseline data: ● include sex-disaggregatd data (e.g. from census) ● include key socioeconomic indicators that show trends or patterns in gender relations in agricultural and natural resource management Establish historical and cultural context: ● identify key constraints and opportunities
2	Analyze constraints: ● technical constraints ● socioeconomic ● institutional Construct tree of contraints	Break down vague general statements of constraints into concise causes of problems for step 4	Gender constraints analysis of: ● practical/strategic needs and constraints ● do objectives address these constraints or create more?
3	Review research results: ● review available domestic and external research results which address identified constraints Research result availability matrix	Compare constraints with available research results and identify technology gaps	● Assess sex-disaggregated impact of available research results ● Consider problems for gender relations in terms of conceptualization and methodology that lead to the results
4	Determine research objectives and strategy: ● construct tree of objectives ● identify strategy	Identify what research can do to alleviate constraints	Determine sex-disaggregated research objectives and formulate a gender-conscious strategy (see questions raised by SADC document, handout 3.6.8)
5	Identify projects: ● from the tree of objectives aggregate groups of objectives that can be addressed together	Identify projects by constraints, objectives, activities, disciplines, duration and costs	● Formulate projects that address strategic as well as practical gender constraints ● Design projects for which the results will respond to both men and women farmers' needs and constraints

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Table 1. Programe Formulation and Priority Setting with a Gender Perspective – A review of the program-planning and priority setting method (Continued)

Step	Program-planning and priority-setting Method	Objectives	Gender-planning considerations
6	Set project priority: ● checklist ● scoring ● (simplified) cost-benefit analysis	Determine essential projects from the non-essential in accordance with resource availability	● Set and select gender-sensitive weights and criteria (Women's multiple roles give rise to reproduction as well as production constraints) ● Use benchmarks for charting progress towards priorities
7	Perform human resource gap analysis: ● inventory of researchers by discip-line related to by selected projects (step 5) and their time availability	Determine the human resources necessary to carry out the selected projects	● Carry out a sex-disaggregated human resource gap analysis ● Male and female scientists should be involved in the diagnosis and analysis of results
8	Recommend implementation: ● synthesize results — essential projects,number of extra researchers needed,list of policy changes	Translate the results of planning exercise to policymakers	Recommend implementation — highlight strategic constraints which cannot be addressed by research alone ● legal rights ● political participation

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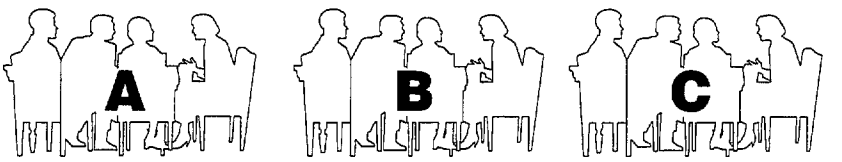
Table 2. Research Project Planning and Monitoring

Step	Project planning and monitoring	Objectives	Gender-planning considerations
1	Identify project objectives	Link constraints with objectives for step 2	Revise the strategic and practical gender needs and constraints to be addressed by the project
2	Prepare project proposal	Give details about goals, objectives, methods, resources, and execution	• Identify project's target group by sex • Highlight women's multiple (triple) roles
3	Review proposal	Assess scientific merit of proposal	Assess coverage of gender needs and constraints
4	Approve project and commit resources	Decide whether project is essential and allocate resources	Apply gender-conscious criteria for approval
5	Implement and monitor project	Check the performance ofthe project and provide feedback	Apply sex-disaggregated benchmarks and data on impact, conflicts, distribution of costs and benefits: • Were sex-disaggregated benchmarks set? • How much impact was achieved?
6	Evaluate results and impact of project	Judge the merit, value, and quality in terms of relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, and impact, and to obtain feedback	• Check whether gender-conscious objectives are met • Highlight lessons learned about gender and provide feedback

Exercise 6. Engendered project proposal
(group work)

Phase 1. Group work (55 minutes)

1. Form three groups, each group electing a rapporteur. Each group is assigned to one project proposal (handouts 3.6.5, 3.6.6 or 3.6.7).



2. Work on the proposal assigned to you.

   Group A: Proposal A
   Developing drought-resistant vegetable varieties and disseminating them to women farmers in the semi-arid zone.

   Group B: Proposal B
   Adapting rain-fed agricultural technologies to resource conditions in Region IV and disseminating such technologies.

   Group C: Proposal C
   Merging agricultural research results with indigenous knowledge in promoting food self-sufficiency in semi-nomadic regions.

3. With the sketch information of the project proposal provided, "engender" the project and develop an engendered logical framework. The proposal is merely a sketch, so the group can adapt it to the format normally used in the different fields of specialization (e.g. proposal A for crops research; proposal B for natural resource management; and proposal C for livestock scientists).

Phase 2. Reporting and discussion (1 hour 20 minutes)

4. Use the SADC Proposed Guidelines for Incorporating Gender Issues in Natural Resource Projects and Programs as a reference to your group discussion (handout 3.6.8).

5. The rapporteurs present the new engendered project proposal and logframes to the audience. Each rapporteur has 5 minutes to present. (15 minutes)

6. Evaluate the proposals, according to the following ranking scale: 1=reject, 2=revise and re-submit, 3=approved. Write down your evaluation, including the reasoning behind it on the ranking sheet (handout 3.6.9). (15 minutes)

7. The trainer collects your responses to compile the group's results, and provides feedback on the presentations.

8 You will be invited to discuss the engendered project proposal and logframe.

Exercise 6. Worksheet

Proposal A

Project title:

Development of drought-resistant vegetable varieties and disseminating them to women farmers in the semi-arid zone.

Project team:

Dr. A.B. Njuga, Ph.D. Horticulture (principal researcher)

Mrs. D.E. Mazao, M.Sc. Biotechnology (co-researcher)

Duration of project: 4 years

Objectives of the project:

- To provide women with an independent source of income through the development and introduction of drought-resistant vegetable varieties.
- To improve nutritional standards of households in the semi-arid zone by promoting the production, consumption and marketing of drought-resistant vegetables.

Background and rationale:

In the 1950s and 1960s women in the semi-arid zone used to produce plenty of vegetables for home consumption as well as for the market. Up to 80% of economically active men migrated to neighboring cities in search of employment and the remaining 20% engaged in artisan's work, commerce and other income-generating activities. However, because of successive years of drought and encroaching desertification, women can no longer produce enough vegetables to eat and/or sell.

Lately, the Fresh Produce Exporters Company (FPEC) has been searching for farmers to recruit in order to fulfill their export quotas. The horticultural department can develop drought-resistant vegetable seeds which can grow in the zone. The biotechnician has isolated the genes of drought tolerance in some of the plants naturally occurring in the area. These genes have been transferred to vegetable varieties which are in demand for consumption and sale. Tests have shown that these new varieties have the potential to perform well in the semi-arid zone. Local authorities have approved the release of these transformed varieties.

Project execution:

Phase 0: Refinement of varieties at research station.

Phase 1: Testing; demonstration and assessment of performance of vegetable varieties on farmers' fields.

Phase 2: Release, multiplication and distribution of planting material and supervision by researchers.

Phase 3: Evaluation of overall performance.

The varieties to be tried and adopted include tomatoes, carrots, french beans, peppers and onions. At the multiplication and distribution stage, FPEC will be contacted to facilitate input provision and establish marketing channels.

Expected output:

- Adoption of drought-resistant varieties by women farmers in the semi-arid zone.
- Improvement in incomes and nutritional standards of households in the semi-arid zone.

Budget:

Items	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Total US$
Staff					
- Principal researcher (@ $ 200/month)	2,400	2,400	1,200	600	6,600.00
- Co-researcher (@ $ 150/month)	1,800	1,800	900	450	4,950.00
- Extensionists' allowances		250	250	250	750.00
Travel					
- Transport (@ $ 0.50/km)	200	250	250	200	900.00
- Per diem	900	1,800	1,260	900	4,860.00
Field days with farmers	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	4,000.00
Training of women farmers	--	1,000	1,000		2,000.00
Inputs and materials	500	500	--	--	1,000.00
Production of publications	--	--	800	1,250	2,050.00
Total	6,800	8,000	6,660	4,650	27,110.00
Overhead (13% of $ 25,110)					3,524.30
Grand total					30,634.30

Proposal B

Project title:

Adapting rain-fed agricultural technologies to resource conditions in Region IV and disseminating such technologies.

Project team:

Dr. G.H. Changamoto, Ph.D. Agronomy (project leader)

Mrs. J.K. Sayansi, M.Sc. Tropical agriculture (co-researcher)

Mr. L.M. Pandamiti, M.A. Rural sociology (co-researcher)

Duration of project: 4 years

Objectives of the project:

- To increase agricultural productivity by improving the soil potential in Region IV.
- To improve nutritional and living standards of households in Region IV.
- To achieve these benefits with an equitable distribution among men, women and children.

Background and rationale:

Region IV has had high soil fertility since the clearing of land in the early 1960s. Production was much higher than in the other parts of the country—as long as the rains were good. Approximately one-third of the country's maize and beans output came from this region, which makes up only 10% of the agricultural land. Over the years, however, soil fertility has declined, requiring more and more fertilizer to try and realize substantial yield. Furthermore, the tractors used for mechanical cultivation were heavy and compressed the soil, thereby causing an increase in evaporation and water loss. The ploughs that were used tore the soil only superficially and led to soil erosion, aggravated by the predominantly monoculture cropping pattern. All these factors have contributed to this former "bread basket" of the country becoming a food deficit area with signs of malnutrition in women and children.

In this project, research will experiment with cropping patterns which conserve soil fertility. Husbandry practices which prevent run-off and retain moisture for longer periods to allow plants a greater chance of surviving and maturing will be introduced. New varieties which are more tolerant to moisture and nutrient stress will be sought, tested, and disseminated. Multipurpose trees will be introduced as hedgerows to prevent soil erosion and provide animal feed and fuel wood.

Project execution:

Phase 0: Refinement of technologies at research station.

Phase 1: On-farm trials to assess technologies against farmers' and scientists' criteria.

Phase 2: Dissemination of technologies to farmers.

Phase 3: Evaluation of overall performance.

Cropping patterns will include crop rotation to allow the soil to recuperate its fertility. Zero tillage and other cultivation practices, such as use of micro-catchments and litter/leaf mulch for manuring purposes, will be tested to find appropriate moisture retaining methods. Varieties of sorghum, millet and drought-resistant maize will be assessed by farmers (men and women) and scientists for suitability. The National Tree Seed Project will be asked to recommend indigenous and exotic species which will be tested and evaluated by men and women farmers and scientists. Village nurseries will be established with the selected species. Researchers and extension workers will train male and female villagers to manage the nurseries and plant the trees in their fields.

Expected output:

- Increased farm productivity and environmental conservation in Region IV.
- Improved nutritional and living standards of all the inhabitants of Region IV.

Budget:

Items	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Total US$
Staff					
- Principal researcher (@ $ 200/month)	2,400	2,400	1,200	600	6,600.00
- 2 Co-researchers (@ $ 150/month/ researcher)	3,600	3,600	1,800	900	9,900.00
- Extensionists' allowances	750	750	750	750	3,000.00
Travel					
- Transport ($ 0.50/km)	200	200	200	200	800.00
- Per diem	900	3,600	1,800	1,800	8,100.00
Inputs and materials	1,000	1,500	500	--	3,000.00
Production of publications	300	--	800	900	2,000.00
Total	9,150	12,050	7,050	5,150	33,400.00
Overhead (13% of $ 33,400)					4,342.00
Grand total					37,742.00

References:

Boserup, E. 1970. *Women's Role in Economic Development*. London: George Unwin Ltd.

Chambers, R. and J. Jiggins. 1986. Agricultural research for resource-poor farmers: a parsimonious paradigm. *IDS Discussion Paper*, No 220. Brighton, UK: Institute for Development Studies.

Kotschi, J. (ed.) 1990. *Ecofarming Practices for Tropical Smallholdings*. Wekersheim, Federal Republic of Germany: Verlag Josef Margraf.

Proposal C

Project title:

Merging agricultural research results with indigenous knowledge in promoting food self-sufficiency in semi-nomadic regions.

Project team:

Dr. N.O. Mbuga, Ph.D. Range management (project leader)

Mr. R.S. Kasheshe, M.Sc. Agriculture and rural development (co-researcher)

Duration of project: 5 years

Objectives of the project:

- To promote policies which encourage the appreciation and use of indigenous knowledge to foster sustainable development.
- To develop and introduce relevant and sustainable food security technologies for semi-nomadic regions.
- To establish an institutional basis for interaction and exchange between the different parties involved in the project, thereby improving agricultural technical assistance to the semi-nomadic region.

Background and rationale:

People in the semi-nomadic regions of this country have always been regarded as backward and reluctant to change their lifestyle for the better. They combine shifting cultivation and semi-nomadism. In the rainy season they keep their livestock at the homestead and in the dry season they move their stocks by river valleys in search of food and water. These semi-nomads frequently experience food deficiency and can hardly ever contribute to national food self-sufficiency.

Government response has been to discourage this unsettled way of life and persuade the semi-nomads to cut down the livestock numbers and establish permanent dwellings where they can farm and rear their animals, send their children to school and have access to technical services and health care. However, the semi-nomads are reluctant to change their lifestyle to one in which benefits have not been demonstrated.

This project aims to bring about positive change with a farming systems perspective. Previous studies indicate that food shortage is the key problem, both for men and women farmers in the area. In some villages in the neighboring district, traditional irrigation systems were upgraded and in two years those villages could produce food surplus. Competition between crops and livestock is leading to voluntary reduction of the latter.

In this project scientists will select some promising technologies to test with farmers. At the same time, they will observe indigenous knowledge of semi-nomads which can be used to devise relevant technologies.

Project execution:

Phase 0: Literature review and establishing contacts with semi-nomadic communities.

Phase 1: Village workshops to analyze the situation, plan activities, and consolidate local institutions.

Phase 2: Trying out indigenous and research station options.

Phase 3: Replicating results of the second phase.

Phase 4: Evaluation.

Researchers will screen research results on microclimate management and other relevant technologies that can be tried by the semi-nomads. Village workshop for a will be used to elicit information from semi-nomads about plants, animals and farm practices used in the area. The knowledge from these two sources will be used to plan joint trials on selected farmers' fields. The results will be shared with all the semi-nomads interested in using them. In the process of this project, local institutions such as traditional and informal farmer groups, will be encouraged to participate and provide support to the process of fighting food shortage.

Expected output:

- New relevant technologies for food self-sufficiency for the semi-nomadic regions.
- Strengthened local institutions through their involvement in the development and use of food security technologies.
- Improvement in availability and access to food for semi-nomadic people.

Budget:

Items	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Total US$
Staff					
- Principal researcher (@ $ 200/month)	2,400	2,400	1,200	1,200	7,200.00
- Co-researcher (@ $ 150/month)	1,800	1,800	900	900	5,400.00
- Extensionists' allowances		250	250	250	750.00
Travel					
- Transport (@ $ 0.50/km)	200	300	300	200	1,000.00
- Per diem	900	1,800	1,800	900	5,400.00
Field days with farmers	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	4,000.00
Training of collaborators	2,000	2,000	--	--	4,000.00
Inputs and materials	500	500	--	--	1,000.00
Production of publications	500	--	800	1,250	2,550.00
Total	9,300	10,050	6,250	5,700	31,300.00
Overhead (13% of $ 31,300)					4,069.30
Grand total					35,369.30

Proposed Guidelines for Incorporating Gender Issues in Natural Resource Projects and Programs

Gender Analysis Training Workshop for the Environment, Land Management and Forestry SADC Sectors

PREAMBLE

The SADC Council of Ministers, at their meeting held in 1982, recommended that "Sector Coordinators should ensure that the interests of women are fully accommodated into the development of all SADC projects and programs."

As a follow-up to the Council's recommendations, several gender analysis training workshops have been conducted for SADC officials in various sectors including those of Natural Resources, i.e. Fisheries, Wildlife, Forestry, Environment and Land Management. The workshops are funded by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) through the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) and have been conducted under management and technical assistance provided by the Eastern and Southern African Management Institute (ESAMI). The overall objective of this training workshop was to sensitive SADC officials on gender issues, strengthen their skills and knowledge on gender analysis, and to mainstream gender in SADC projects and programs.

These guidelines are an output from two such workshops held in September 1993 and February 1994 for SADC experts drawn from Fisheries, Wildlife, Forestry, Environment and Land Management Sector Co-ordination Units; Sector Contact Points from relevant national ministries; and officials from women machineries of the Sector Coordinating countries, i.e. Malawi and Lesotho.

The key objective of the guidelines is to facilitate mainstreaming of gender during the preparation, design, appraisal and implementation of natural resource projects and programs. Specifically, the guidelines will enable the project planners or formulation missions to incorporate gender issues in all stages of the project cycle. The stages have been presented in these guidelines as follows:

1. Base Line Data
2. Project Planning / Planning Team
3. Project Identification
4. Feasibility Analysis
5. Project Formulation and Design
6. Project Appraisal
7. Project Implementation
8. Monitoring and Evaluation
9. Reporting

It is expected that once the guidelines are approved by the SADC Council of Ministers, they will become a critical component of the overall guidelines for preparation and design, as well as the criteria for selection of SADC projects.

1. BASE LINE DATA

Description of study area: location, physical and biological resources and impact of gender

General description of physical features

a) Climate (e.g. temperature, rainfall)

b) Topography (e.g. altitude)

c) Soil (types of soil)

d) Water sources, distribution and access by the community

Land use

a) Arable land
- Area of land under different crops and yield
- Farm sizes
- Land uses pertaining to both genders
- Land allocation to both genders
- Decisionmaking on land use

b) Range land
- Land uses pertaining to both genders
- Land allocation to both genders
- Decisionmaking on land use

Natural resources

a) Forests
- Extent
- Types
- Production
- Uses
- Rate of deforestation

b) Fisheries

c) Wildlife, i.e. types and distribution

d) Minerals

Gender analysis

a) Definition of gender

b) Historical and present cultural relations

c) Historical and present cultural roles

d) Historical and present cultural attitudes

e) Prevailing customs and morals

Review of key socioeconomic indicators by gender

a) Health and nutrition
- Live birth rate by sex
- Life expectancy by sex
- Calorie intake
- Consumption of natural resources per person; per household; per country
- Death rate and causes by sex

b) Employment data disaggregated by gender
- Participation in formal/informal employment
- Percentage of total labor force in professional and administrative occupations
- Percentage of unionized labor
- Time use structure by both genders
- Income levels and sources
- Population below poverty income level

c) Education and training
- Literacy rate by sex
- Enrollment in schools by sex
- Enrollment in short-term professional training program by sex
- Ratio of women beneficiaries of community development programs
- Existence of women's study programs and funds
- Gender concerns in training institutions' curricula
- Career guidance and counseling
- Training extension officers in gender-sensitive skills and techniques

d) Legal rights and political participation
- Human rights and gender equity
- Civil rights of gender
- Property rights of gender
- Labor legislation related to gender
- Representation and participation of gender in legislative bodies and industries

e) Population
- Breakdown of total population by gender and age
- Percentage of women versus men, rural and urban population
- External and internal migration pattern by sex
- Percentage of women and men heads of households, rural and urban
- Population growth rate and density

f) Country's development plan and program
   - General, regional/national policy on WID/GAD
   - Regional and national policies on gender issues in natural resources
   - Government assistance to the needy
   - Programs of local NGOs
   - Presentation and use of disaggregated data

Suggested methodology in data collection

Primary sources

Method used to collect information:

a) Questionnaire — formulate questionnaire which will be answered by both genders

b) PRA — Participatory Rural Appraisal

Secondary sources

a) Forest land
   - Land uses pertaining to both genders
   - Land allocation to both genders
   - Decisionmaking on land use

b) National parks and game resources

c) Land tenure (specific types) — access to and control of land affects both genders

d) Division of labor

2. PROJECT PLANNING

Planning team

Terms of reference (TOR)

a) Gender objectives should be integrated into the mission's TORs

b) Gender concerns should be included in the TORs

c) Natural resource expert should be on the team

d) Project report should incorporate gender issues

e) Gender specialist should be on the team

f) Participation should include target group

Selection and definition of the roles of the gender specialist

A gender specialist should have skills appropriate to the mission's overall objectives and to the environmental context

Team composition

a) Team leader

b) Gender analyst

c) Local counterpart

d) Natural resources expert

Mission team leader qualities:

a) Should be a professional in the field of study and should have relevant experience

b) Should also have strong support and understanding of gender dimensions

3. PROJECT IDENTIFICATION

Using participatory method, identify practical gender needs, strategic gender needs, and community needs.

4. FEASIBILITY ANALYSIS

a) Gender impact

b) Economic viability

c) Environmental impact

d) Socio-cultural impact

e) Political impact

5. PROJECT FORMULATION AND DESIGN

a) Logical framework — identified by gender and capacity

b) Project goal — to address the needs of target group by gender

c) Project purpose — include elements that mainstream/integrate gender issues

d) Outputs
- Anticipated outputs
- Plan for specific outputs to ensure that the disadvantaged gender benefits
- Access to project outputs by gender

e) Activities — who will do what, by both genders in the target group

f) Inputs
- Resources provided to integrate gender in the projects
- Choice of technology should be gender sensitive

g) Objective verifiable indicators (OVIs)
- Integration of gender in terms of goal purpose, output, and input
- Target groups identified by gender
- Assessment of gender on the basis of OVIs

h) Means of verification (MOV)—include a collection of data by gender

i) Important assumptions — key factors beyond the project's control that would affect integration of gender, e.g.:
- Receptivity to gender in government structures

- Legal constraints regarding gender in access to credit
- Socio-cultural barriers to carrying out a project in a sector where there are a few women
- Qualification and availability of resources necessary to integrate gender in non traditional sector
- Resistance to change (e.g. cultural beliefs)

6. PROJECT APPRAISAL

a) Goals

b) Use information from feasibility analysis on:

- Community/organization
- Technical feasibility
- Social consideration (participation and benefits)
- Impact (economic, social, political, health, employment, psychological)

7. PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION

a) Personnel

- Awareness of/sensitivity to gender issues
- Provision of support services according to gender
- Composition involves both genders
- Skills to provide inputs required by women and men
- Capacity to involve both genders in project management positions

b) Organizational structures

- Should enhance access to resources by both genders
- Should have power to address different gender resource needs
- Should have institutional capacity to support and protect both women and men during the process of change

c) Operations and logistics

- Accessibility of communication delivery channels to both gender groups
- Existence of dependable delivery of goods and services to both genders
- Mechanisms to ensure that project resources are not usurped by one gender group to the detriment of the other
- Active participation of both genders in project activities

d) Finances

- Preferential access to resources by the disadvantaged gender
- Possibility of tracing funds for women and men from allocation to delivery should have a fair degree of accuracy
- Consideration of income generation in view of sustainability of the project

e) Flexibility

- Management information system to regularly detect gender-specific effects on the target group
- Ability to adapt its structures and operations to meet changing gender-specific roles, responsibilities and needs

8. MONITORING AND EVALUATION

a) Data requirements

- Explicit measurement of project effects according to gender (use appropriate methods: e.g. participatory rural appraisal (PRA) or questionnaire
- Data that will update the *activity* analysis and the *access and control* analysis (rapid appraisal)
- Involvement of beneficiaries in designing data requirements

b) Monitoring

- Frequent data collection so that necessary adjustments can be made during the project implementation
- Understandable data feedback to project personnel and beneficiaries to allow timely adjustments
- Data analysis to provide guidance for the design of other projects and to identify key areas of research (statistical models could be used if appropriate)

c) Evaluation

- Measure impact of project against set objectives
- Adapt project design as necessary (after mid-term evaluation)
- Involve the target group, men and women, when undertaking evaluation of project

9. REPORTING

a) Report to target group to obtain feedback

b) Report to management

c) Report to donor

d) Report should reflect gender issues

e) Specify reporting time to the recipients

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Exercise 6. Ranking Sheet

Please circle the number that is, in your opinion, appropriate to evaluate the new engendered project proposals presented during the second phase of exercise 6, according to the following ranking scale: 1=reject, 2=revise and re-submit, 3=approved.

Evaluation of Group: _____

1 2 3

Please justify your answer:

Evaluation of Group: _____

1 2 3

Please justify your answer:

Evaluation of Group: _____

1 2 3

Please justify your answer:

Strengths and Weaknesses

- **Please list what you consider to be three strengths of day three**

1.
2.
3.

- **Please list what you consider to be three weaknesses of day three**

1.
2.
3.

- **Suggestions for improvements**

Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop

1. **The Module**

   Content

   - usefulness/relevance
   - amount of information

   Structure

   - sequence
   - duration
   - balance between trainers' and trainees' participation
   - instruction to trainers
   - visual aids
   - handouts
   - extra readings
   - PAPA
   - evaluation

2. **Process: training techniques and direction**

   - usefulness/relevance/effectiveness
   - group interaction
   - clarity of questions/exercise instructions
   - opening and closure of the days

3. **Trainers', facilitators', and trainees' performance**

   - presentation/communication skills
   - interaction/effective participation
   - punctuality/interest/commitment/willingness to facilitate learning/willingness to participate
   - other attitudes

4. **Logistical support**

   - organization
   - accuracy
   - punctuality
   - willingness to assist participants
   - services provided in general

5. **Workshop environment**

   - physical (training facilities, training material, hotel facilities in general)
   - psychological (personal feelings such as self-motivation, interest, satisfaction, self-achievement)
   - social (development of friendship, relaxed, comfortable among participants, etc.)

6. **Workshop results/outputs**

   - personal and professional assessment
   - recommendations

7. **General comments**

PAPA — FIRST STAGE

Ideas for action items

Date: _____

Workshop title : SADC/ESAMI/ISNAR Workshop on Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

Date/Venue: _____

Name: _____

Organization: _____

_____

Ideas I would like to try when I return to work at my research institute, based on what I have learned in this training workshop.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Note: You can use the workshop objectives, what you learn during the workshop, handouts, conversations with participants and trainers, etc., to come up with ideas.

DAY FOUR

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

DAY FOUR — Overview

Objectives

By the end of the day the participants will be able to do the following:

1. Analyze a small-scale livestock project from the gender perspective and use gender tools.
2. Incorporate knowledge and tools learned into an operational plan to address gender awareness and analysis n the research management of agriculture and natural resources in your institution.
3. Synthesize knowledge of gender awareness in research management.
4. Identify the knowledge gained in the workshop.
5. Prepare a list of action items for future activities in gender issues.
6. Evaluate the workshop.

Handouts

4.7.1 Overview
4.7.2 Tentative Schedule
4.7.3 Incorporating Gender into a Livestock Improvement Project Involving Research, Extension, and Farmers (case study)
4.7.4 Exercise 7A. Small-Scale Livestock Development Project Analysis
4.7.5 Exercise 7A. Worksheet
4.7.6 Exercise 7B. (alternative exercise) Gender Analysis Tools to Analyze the Case Study
4.7.7 Exercise 7B. Worksheet
4.7.8 Exercise 7B. Task A
4.7.9 Exercise 7B. Task B
4.7.10 Exercise 7B. Task C
4.7.11 Exercise 7B. Task D
4.7.12 Exercise 7B. Task E
4.7.13 Exercise 7B. Task F
4.8.1 Exercise 8. Operational Plan for Institutionalizing Gender Awareness and Analysis in Research Management
4.8.2 Exercise 8. Worksheet
4.8.3 Exercise. Test your Knowledge Again
4.8.4 Exercise Worksheet
4.9.1 PAPA—Second Stage
4.9.2 Evaluation Forms for the Four-Day Workshop
4.9.3 Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

DAY FOUR — Tentative Schedule

08:30 – 09:00	**Opening of the Day's Activities**
09:00 – 10:30	**Session 7. Incorporating Gender Awareness and Analysis into a Research and Extension Project** (Presentation and exercise)
10:30 – 10:45	Tea/Coffee Break
10:45 – 12:00	**Session 7. (Continued)**
12:00 – 13:00	**Session 8. Operational Plan for Institutionalizing Gender Awareness and Analysis in Research Management**

13:00 – 14:00 Lunch

14:00 – 15:30	**Session 8. (Continued)**
15:30 – 15:45	Tea/Coffee Break
15:45 – 16:00	**Exercise. Test Your Knowledge Again**
16:00 – 17:00	**Session 9. Participant Action Plan Approach (PAPA) and Workshop Evaluation**
17:00 – 17:15	**Final Remarks and Closing**

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Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

DAY FOUR — Checklist for Trainers

Handouts

		Yes ✓	No ✓
4.7.1	Overview	❐	❐
4.7.2	Tentative Schedule	❐	❐
4.7.3	Incorporating Gender into a Livestock Improvement Project Involving Research, Extension, and Farmers (case study)	❐	❐
4.7.4	Exercise 7A. Small-Scale Livestock Development Project Analysis	❐	❐
4.7.5	Exercise 7A. Worksheet	❐	❐
4.7.6	Exercise 7B. (alternative exercise) Gender Analysis Tools to Analyze the Case Study	❐	❐
4.7.7	Exercise 7B. Worksheet	❐	❐
4.7.8	Exercise 7B. Task A	❐	❐
4.7.9	Exercise 7B. Task B	❐	❐
4.7.10	Exercise 7B. Task C	❐	❐
4.7.11	Exercise 7B. Task D	❐	❐
4.7.12	Exercise 7B. Task E	❐	❐
4.7.13	Exercise 7B. Task F	❐	❐
4.8.1	Exercise 8. Operational Plan for Institutionalizing Gender Awareness and Analysis in Research Management	❐	❐
4.8.2	Exercise 8. Worksheet	❐	❐
4.8.3	Exercise. Test your Knowledge Again	❐	❐
4.8.4	Exercise Worksheet	❐	❐
4.9.1	PAPA — Second Stage	❐	❐
4.9.2	Evaluation Forms for the Four-Day Workshop	❐	❐
4.9.3	Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop	❐	❐

Overheads

4.7.1	Objectives of Day Four	❐	❐
4.7.2	Schedule of Day Four	❐	❐
4.7.3	Objective of Session 7	❐	❐
4.7.4	Training-Oriented Case Study	❐	❐
4.7.5	Small-Scale Livestock Improvement Project	❐	❐
4.7.6	Objectives of the Project	❐	❐

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		Yes ✓	No ✓
4.7.7	National Development Policy Goals	❐	❐
4.7.8	Modifications	❐	❐
4.7.9	Initial Project Design	❐	❐
4.7.10	Results	❐	❐
4.7.11	Gender Diagnosis and Analysis	❐	❐
4.7.12	Resource-Constraint Diagnosis	❐	❐
4.7.13	Inputs and Technical Assistance	❐	❐
4.7.14	Distribution of Benefits	❐	❐
4.8.1	Objectives of Session 8	❐	❐
4.9.1	Objectives of Session 9	❐	❐
4.9.2	Steps in PAPA	❐	❐
4.9.3	Step 2: In-course Activities	❐	❐

Materials

●	Overhead projector	❐	❐
●	Projector screen	❐	❐
●	Flipchart stands (minimum 2)	❐	❐
●	Flipchart paper/pads (about 10 per day)	❐	❐
●	Markers for writing on newsprint	❐	❐
●	Markers for writing on transparencies	❐	❐
●	Blank transparencies	❐	❐
●	Stapler	❐	❐
●	Tape (strong masking tape and regular tape)	❐	❐
●	Push pins	❐	❐
●	Glue	❐	❐
●	Pencils/notepads/pens	❐	❐
●	Pencil sharpeners	❐	❐
●	Extension cords	❐	❐
●	Certificates	❐	❐
●	Photocopying facilities	❐	❐
●	Spare bulbs for overhead projector	❐	❐
●	Extra notepads and pens	❐	❐
●	Scissors	❐	❐

DAY FOUR

Session 7
Incorporating Gender Awareness and Analysis into a Research and Extension Project

Instructions to Trainers

PRE-SESSION

08:30 – 09:00 Opening of the Day's Activities

- Review the previous day's activities.

- Discuss the previous day's evaluation.

- Summarize today's activities.

OBJECTIVE

By the end of this pre-session, the participants will be able to do the following:

- Summarize the objectives and agenda for the day's activities.

OPENING

In day three of the workshop we were able to do the following:

- Further understand the significance of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management.
- Describe and define gender issues in human resource management.
- Describe the research program formulation process and project management cycle.
- Identify how gender analysis can engender the research program process and the project management cycle.
- Discuss the tools used in gender analysis.

OVERVIEW

Distribute the objectives and the schedule for day four (handouts 4.7.1 and 4.7.2) to the participants. Review the objectives and schedule using overheads 4.7.1 and 4.7.2. Ask if clarifications are needed.

09:00 – 10:30 Session 7. Incorporating Gender Awareness and Analysis into a Research and Extension Project

10:30 – 10:45 Tea/Coffee Break

10:45 – 12:00 Session 7. (Continued)

OBJECTIVE

By the end of this session, the participants will be able to do the following:

- Analyze a small-scale livestock project from the gender perspective and use gender tools.

Use overhead 4.7.3 to present the objective.

PROCEDURE

Training techniques: presentation, operational plan design.

PRESENTATION

The presentation focuses on a case study from Kagera, Tanzania, concerning a livestock research and extension project. The case study has considerable information which can be used for conducting a gender analysis of its management cycle and impact. Use overheads 4.7.4 to 4.7.14. The presentation only reviews the case study; participants have already been asked to read the case study. (15 minutes)

RATIONALE FOR EXERCISE 7A or 7B

Exercise 7A **OR** 7B can be selected by the trainer depending on the preferences and expectations of workshop participants. Exercise 7A is a general exercise which uses the case study to analyze the research management cycle. Exercise 7B looks specifically at the use of various gender analysis tools. Six gender analysis tools are included in this exercise and if only three are selected, the trainers should select tools which they think participants would benefit from most. Each group should examine one tool, or, at most, two tools. Exercise 7B also uses the case study to operationalize and elaborate on these tools.

EXERCISE 7A

Exercise 7A. Small-scale livestock development project analysis: a case study from Africa. (2 hours 30 minutes)

1. Distribute handouts 4.7.4 and 4.7.5. Handout 4.7.4 gives clear instructions for this exercise. Go over the instructions with the participants. Ask if clarifications are needed.

Phase 1. Group work (1 hour 30 minutes)

2. Divide the participants into five groups.

3. The groups discuss all the issues (A through E) explained in handout 4.7.4, but the group members are individually responsible for writing down only one of the issues on handout 4.7.5. (45 minutes)

4. Reorganize the groups. Those who have worked on the same issue, now form a new group. (So one group is working on issue A, another group on issue B, etc.)

5. Each new group selects a rapporteur and discusses their issue. Rapporteurs write a summary on handout 4.7.5. (45 minutes)

Phase 2. Reporting and discussion (55 minutes)

6. The rapporteurs write the summary of their groups' discussion on a flipchart. Each rapporteur has 10 minutes to present.

7. Provide feedback to the presentations, and facilitate a discussion. (15 minutes)

OR EXERCISE 7B

Exercise 7B. (alternative exercise) Gender analysis tools to analyze the case study. (2 hours 30 minutes)

This exercise is based on the same case study (handout 4.7.3) as exercise 7A.

Phase 1. Group work (1 hour 30 minutes)

1. Distribute handouts 4.7.6 and 4.7.7. Handout 4.7.6 describes the exercise. Divide the participants into three groups and assign one task to each group (or two tasks if time permitting).
2. Distribute handouts 4.7.8 through 4.7.13 to the relevant groups. Invite the groups to read their task(s) while you walk around. Visit each group to read and explain the instructions. Make sure that everyone understands the exercise.
3. While the participants work, circulate among the groups to check progress. Ask if clarifications are needed.

10:30 – 10:45 Tea/Coffee Break

Phase 2. Reporting and discussion (55 minutes)

4. The rapporteurs have 10 minutes each to explain their gender tool to the larger group. (30 minutes)
5. After each presentation, take five minutes to discuss with the groups the tool and the training technique. (15 minutes) Summarize the major lessons learned during this exercise and provide feedback on the presentations. (25 minutes)

CLOSURE

Closure (5 minutes)

1. *(application)* Ask the participants to tell their neighbor two things they might do differently as a result of what they have learned. Ask some volunteers to give examples.
2. Make a transition to the next session.

DAY FOUR

Session 7
Summary of Overheads

Objectives of Day Four

1. Analyze a small-scale livestock project from the gender perspective and use gender tools
2. Incorporate knowledge and tools learned into an operational plan to address gender awareness in research management of agriculture and natural resources in your institution
3. Synthesize knowledge of gender awareness in research management
4. Identify the knowledge gained in the workshop
5. Prepare a list of action items for future activities in gender issues
6. Evaluate the workshop

4.7.1

Schedule of Day Four

08:30 – 09:00	Opening of the Day's Activities
09:00 – 10:30	Session 7. Incorporating Gender Analysis into a Project
	Tea/Coffee Break
10:45 – 12:00	Session 7. (Continued)
12:00 – 13:00	Session 8. Operational Plan for Institutionalizing Gender Analysis in Research Management
	Lunch
14:00 – 15:30	Session 8. (Continued)
	Tea/Coffee Break
15:45 – 16:00	Exercise. Test your Knowledge Again
16:00 – 17:00	Session 9. PAPA and Workshop Evaluation
17:00 - 17:15	Final Remarks and Closing

4.7.2

Objective of Session 7

1. Analyze a small-scale livestock project from the gender perspective and use gender tools

4.7.3

Training-Oriented Case Study

Incorporating gender analysis into a livestock improvement project involving research, extension, and farmers

4.7.4

Small-Scale Livestock Improvement Project

Project designed to promote small-holder dairy farming among the rural population of the Kagera, Region, Tanzania

4.7.5

Objectives of the Project

- increase milk consumption from 70 g/capita/day to 200 g/capita/day within 20 year; meat consumption is also expected to increase
- increase food and cash crop production through the availability and use of manure
- achieve those goals with an equitable distribution of benefits among all income groups and among women and men

4.7.6

National Development Policy Goals

- improvement of nutritional standards and rural incomes
- achieve equity among men and women

4.7.7

Initial Project Design

- produce and distribute improved heifer breeds on ability to pay basis
- extension unit to select members and provide technological support

Results:
- high mortality rate (80%)
- exclusion of resource-poor farmers

4.7.8

Modifications

- introduction of enhanced techniques and methods of zero-grazing
- establishment of a farmer training center
- improvement of farmers' own stocks
- establishment of *heifer-in-trust* credit scheme

4.7.9

Results

- reduction of mortality rate and increased production beyond targets
- growth in project participation
- wider distribution of project benefits
- participation of women only 4% of total membership

4.7.10

Gender Diagnosis and Analysis

Gender roles:
Women contribute 64% of total labor requirements:
- 55% of productive activities; (11% of livestock rearing)
- 84% of reproductive activities; and
- 60% of community activities

Effect of Zero grazing:
- Women's working day extends from 10 to 11 hours
- Men's increased work largely absorbed by hired labor

4.7.11

Resource-Constraint Diagnosis

Land:
- 61% of all women have insecure land tenure
- buying land is costly

Cattle:
- women own 9% of local cattle and 16% of dairy cattle
- 4% of households have women owning cattle
- price of cattle is high, but the project has a *heifer-in-trust* credit scheme

4.7.12

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Inputs and Technical Assistance

- more than 40% of recurrent costs are on inputs
- the project provides inputs at subsidized prices

Training:
- women comprise 10% of trainees of the FTC
- reproductive responsibilities interfere with women's training

4.7.13

Distribution of Benefits

Both men and women report that they benefit from the project:

- women stress nutritional benefits
- men stress income benefits

4.7.14

Handout — Overview of Day Four

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

Objectives

By the end of the day the participants will be able to do the following:

1. Analyze a small-scale livestock project from the gender perspective and use gender tools.
2. Incorporate knowledge and tools learned into an operational plan to address gender awareness and analysis in the research management of agriculture and natural resources in your institution.
3. Synthesize knowledge of gender awareness in research management.
4. Identify the knowledge gained in the workshop.
5. Prepare a list of action items for future activities in gender issues.
6. Evaluate the workshop.

Handouts

4.7.1 Overview
4.7.2 Tentative Schedule
4.7.3 Incorporating Gender into a Livestock Improvement Project Involving Research, Extension, and Farmers (case study)
4.7.4 Exercise 7A. Small-Scale Livestock Development Project Analysis
4.7.5 Exercise 7A. Worksheet
4.7.6 Exercise 7B. (alternative exercise) Gender Analysis Tools to Analyze the Case Study
4.7.7 Exercise 7B. Worksheet
4.7.8 Exercise 7B. Task A
4.7.9 Exercise 7B. Task B
4.7.10 Exercise 7B. Task C
4.7.11 Exercise 7B. Task D
4.7.12 Exercise 7B. Task E
4.7.13 Exercise 7B. Task F
4.8.1 Exercise 8. Operational Plan for Institutionalizing Gender Awareness and Analysis in Research Management
4.8.2 Exercise 8. Worksheet
4.8.3 Exercise. Test your Knowledge Again
4.8.4 Exercise Worksheet
4.9.1 PAPA — Second Stage
4.9.2 Evaluation Forms for the Four-Day Workshop
4.9.3 Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop

Handout—Tentative Schedule of Day Four

Gender Awareness and Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

08:30 – 09:00	**Opening of the Day's Activities**
09:00 – 10:30	**Session 7. Incorporating Gender Awareness and Analysis into a Research and Extension Project** (Presentation and exercise)
10:30 – 10:45	Tea/Coffee Break
10:45 – 12:00	**Session 7. (Continued)**
12:00 – 13:00	**Session 8. Operational Plan for Institutionalizing Gender Awareness and Analysis in Research Management**

13:00 – 14:00 Lunch

14:00 – 15:30	**Session 8. (Continued)**
15:30 – 15:45	Tea/Coffee Break
15:45 – 16:00	**Exercise. Test Your Knowledge Again**
16:00 – 17:00	**Session 9. Participant Action Plan Approach (PAPA) and Workshop Evaluation**
17:00 – 17:15	**Final Remarks and Closing**

Incorporating Gender into a Livestock Improvement Project Involving Research, Extension and Farmers[1]

This is a background paper for a training activity on Gender Planning in Agricultural Technology Development and Transfer. The activity is designed on the basis of case study material drawn from the history of an actual livestock improvement project in the Kagera region, Tanzania, suitably adapted and simplified to serve the training needs of this workshop.

The purpose of this activity is to highlight the need to take gender considerations explicitly into account when designing research and technology transfer projects. This activity invites participants to analyze the nature of gender constraints which may arise in the context of this type of project. Furthermore, participants are requested to suggest alternative strategies which could facilitate greater participation of women in technology improvement schemes.

This paper provides summary notes which working groups can consult to carry out the exercises connected with the activity. Apart from brief background information on the regional context and the project in question, the paper provides data on gender roles and household labor constraints, cultural perceptions of change, differential access to resources (land, cattle, inputs, hired labor, technical assistance) and the distribution of benefits between men and women.

As stated, the case study material has been suitably adapted for the purpose of this activity. For this reason, no detailed in-text references are given to sources used to construct this exercise. These sources include actual project documents and evaluation reports, listed under references at the end of this paper, and interviews conducted by the author.

1 A training-oriented case study developed by Anna Wuyts, ISNAR. The Hague.

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How to use these notes?

This is not a self-standing paper but an aide memoire. *It briefly reviews the material discussed in the introductory lecture to this activity. The outline above provides an easy guide as to where to find which information quickly. For quick reference, each section (I, II, III, and IV) ends with a summary box which highlights the main points of the section with respect to "gender constraints" in technology transfer.*

I. BACKGROUND

1. The region

The farming system of the Kagera Region in the northwestern part of Tanzania comprises three types of land use:

- Permanent plots of banana, coffee and beans around the house called *kibanja*. Land for these plots is in acute short supply to satisfy cash and food requirements. Between 60-75% of farmers operate *kibanjas* of sizes of between 0.2-1.2 hectares.
- *Kishambu* plots on fallow land around the *kibanja* are usually planted with root crops to supplement the banana and beans for subsistence. In densely populated areas there is shortage of land for these plots. Between 22-67% of farmers do not own *kishambu* plots at all. The maximum size is less than 0.5 hectares.
- Communal grassland around the village is called *rweya*. This is only suitable for cattle grazing.

According to 1989 census data, Kagera Region had 6% of the country's population living on 3% of Tanzania's total land area. The pressure on land and its intensive use (particularly with respect to *kibanja* plots) meant that soil nutrients were depleted faster than they could be reconstituted.

In the same year, Kagera Region had 333,678 heads of cattle owned by about 10% of all families in the region. Women owned 9% of the traditional stocks. Besides meat and milk, the main purpose of keeping livestock in the region is for manure. Yields from *kibanjas* which have been applied with manure are double of those without manure application.

Population increase in the region was not matched by the availability and access to meat and milk products. Nutrition data showed national daily average milk consumption as 70 grams per person, far below the ideal 200 grams. Furthermore, milk and milk products were increasingly costly because of shortages on the local markets.

Improved dairy farming was first introduced in the region in the 1960s, mainly by crossing local cows with bulls from a breeding station in a neighboring region. In the seventies, exotic breeds from New Zealand were introduced, but most of them died from tick borne diseases. The UN World Food Program, the Evangelical Lutheran Church, and the Small-scale Livestock Development Project (SSLDP) are the agencies currently involved in promoting dairy farming in the region. It is estimated that 16% of dairy cows in the region are currently owned by women (most of whom are urban professionals).

2. The Small-Scale Livestock Development Project

SSLDP is a livestock improvement project started in 1976 in a predominantly small-scale farming area of Kagera Region in the northwestern part of Tanzania. The project is under the Livestock Department of the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock Development and involves mainly livestock development officers, researchers, extension workers and farmers. It is currently financed by contributions from farmers, the Ministry and by grants from various donors.

Objectives and rationale

The objectives of the project were:

- To increase milk consumption from 70 g/capita/day to 200 g/capita/day within 20 years. Meat consumption is also expected to increase.

- To increase food and cash crop production through the availability and use of manure.
- To achieve these goals with an equitable distribution of benefits among women and men in all income groups.

These objectives were in line with both the regional policy and the national development policies and plans, which gave priority to increasing productivity and quality of livestock to improve nutritional standards and to raise rural incomes. The 1983 national livestock policy further stipulated that availability of livestock products to rural areas would be achieved by the introduction of upgraded cattle in selected areas including the supply of associated inputs and services. Encouragement would be given to small-holders to keep dairy cattle.

These policies and plans were guided by a philosophy of growth with equity among men and women in all income groups. This philosophy sprang from the disenchantment of international aid and development agencies, as well as of the national government, in the seventies, with the results of sectoral strategies on the majority of poor people who live in rural areas. The UN Women's Decade put more emphasis on the need for gender equality and equity in development. Thus, the objectives of SSLDP were very much supported by the multilateral and bilateral aid and development agencies, and were in accordance with the national development policy and plans of the time.

Early history

When the project was initiated it was guided, to a large extent, by technical considerations. The livestock research organization established a breeding unit in the region in collaboration with a national ranching company. Improved heifer breeds were produced by crossing Frisian cattle from the Netherlands with local Boran stocks. This was achieved by the project's breeding unit and the cattle were then sold to farmers on a capacity to pay basis. A dairy extension unit was established under the Regional Livestock Office to support the project in selecting farmers and providing them with day-to-day technical service.

Membership in the project was preceded by a village meeting where the project was introduced. The objectives, approach, and conditions for membership were explained and membership forms were distributed. Interested farmers filled in the forms and submitted them to the extension worker who forwarded them to the project office. The project proceeded to study the forms and visit the farms of the applicants. A selection was then made on the following criteria:

- The applicant had to be a permanent resident of the village and have farming as his/her main occupation
- She/he had to own sufficient land to produce fodder for the intended size of his or her dairy enterprise
- She/he had to have the capacity to manage a small dairy enterprise and be in a position to finance the necessary initial investments
- She/he had to accept and be willing to learn new techniques and skills
- She/he had to pay an endowment of TSh 5,000 (roughly equivalent to US$ 12) against the risk of accidental loss of the animal.

Preference would be given to farmers with the least number of local cattle and no improved dairy cows. Upon acceptance, a new member was required to fulfill the following:

- establish a minimum of 1 acre of pasture before receiving an in-calf heifer;
- construct a simple shed or shelter, and crush pen secure enough to prevent invasion of neighboring cattle or other ruminants;
- acquire a spray pump for tick control;

- separate local bulls from the dairy herd to control breeding.

At the beginning the project took very little account of the complexity and uncertainty of the environment. For example, the project distributed cows to farmers without taking precautions against the prevailing disease hazards. As a result, in the first two years, the mortality rate reached 80%. At this rate of mortality, only the most resourceful farmers could remain in the project.

Subsequent improvements:

Such a high-mortality rate was clearly a technical fault in the project design and a solution had to be found. The project introduced a new technique of ***zero-grazing with enhanced extension services*** for closer supervision. This improvement brought the mortality rate down to 30% in two years and lower in subsequent years. With such recovery, aggregate production results went up. By 1986-87 the targets set for production were exceeded by 61%, from 20.7 million liters expected output to 33.9 million actual output. Dairy farmers increased from 37 (4 women) to 484 (20 women).

Continuous monitoring of the project performance revealed that only resource-rich farmers were participating in the project. Husbandry-skill levels and financial requirements were excluding resource-poor farmers from taking advantage of the project. As such, the declared objectives of the project were being jeopardized by the technical and resource requirements of the technologies involved.

A credit scheme called the *heifer-in-trust* scheme was introduced to enable farmers who could not afford to pay for heifers to join the project. A farmer wanting to participate could obtain an in-calf heifer on credit and pay back the first female calf after it was also in-calf. Alternatively, if the farmer did not get a heifer, he or she could sell the male calves and pay back the loan in cash. This lifted the constraint of raising a lump sum to buy the improved cow. At the same time, a Farmers Training Center was established to enhance the participating farmers' knowledge in dairy husbandry. An improved dairy cow is a heavy investment. The technologies of zero-grazing were not familiar to the region. This made it a high-risk endeavor to low-resource farmers with limited management know-how. Therefore, training was extended to equip potential participants with the necessary skills.

It was also recognized that such improvements as providing access and the necessary technical know-how would make it difficult to satisfy the new demand. Therefore, a scheme to improve farmers' own stocks was started. It involved cross-breeding farmers' stocks and improving management practices. This scheme would not extend the full benefits of dairy farming to farmers, but would compensate the demand to some extent. It would also provide a cheaper alternative to the increasingly expensive zero-grazing.

The failure to incorporate women farmers

However, further monitoring revealed that very few women farmers were participating in the project. In fact, until 1989, when a major review of the project was conducted, only 17 women farmers out of a total of 816 were participating in the project. Again, this was jeopardizing the objectives of the project to equally benefit women and men farmers. A study was commissioned to look into the causes of the exclusion of women from the project. *In the following pages, you are presented with some of the findings of this study. On the basis of this, you are requested to suggest how to extend the reach of this project.*

Summary Box: Background to the Project

The SSLD dairy farming project was introduced with the explicit aim to increase nutritional standards in the region, to increase yields in food and cash crop production through the availability and use of manure, and to spread the benefits widely among men and women in all income groups.

Initially, the project was mainly guided by technical considerations. High mortality of improved cattle, new skills required for zero-grazing farming, costs involved in buying cattle, and construction of a basic infrastructure meant that only resource-rich farmers could participate in the scheme. Resource-poor farmers lacked both cash and the necessary husbandry skills. The introduction of the heifer-in-trust scheme coupled with the establishment of a farmers' training center greatly reduced the threshold which had prevented resource-poor farmers from participating.

Participation of women, however, remained very low: 20 women out of a total of 484 participants in the scheme. Women farmers, therefore, appeared to confront constraints which were not as yet properly addressed by the scheme.

II. GENDER ROLES AND LABOR CONSTRAINTS

3. Gender roles

The general pattern of sex and gender roles shows that, traditionally, women worked an average of 10 hours a day compared to 7.5 hours for men. Table 1 (on the following page) shows the pattern of labor allocation in the various activities on an average farm unit in Kagera. Although women spend only 0.6% of their working day attending to livestock activities, they contribute 11% of labor requirements for livestock. They spend 52% of their working day contributing to 57% of labor in all farm enterprises. One third of all households in the region are headed by women and these would normally experience greater labor shortage than a household with an adult man and wife.

Table 1. Summary of Labour Input in Various Activities on Small-Holder Farm Units in Kagera

	As a % of daylight hours			As a % of total labor input in activity		
	men	women	All	men	women	All
Maintenance of fields	23	21	23	48	52	100
Expansion of fields	7	5	6	76	24	100
Total land operations	**30**	**26**	**29**	**54**	**46**	**100**
Annual crops	5	25	16	13	87	100
Total crop activites	**35**	**51**	**45**	**39**	**61**	**100**
Livestock rearing	6	0.6	3	89	11	100
All farm activities	**41**	**52**	**48**	**43**	**57**	**100**
Brewing banana beer	1	0.5	0.6	58	42	100
Marketing farm products	2	0.1	0.3	72	28	100
All farm enterprises	**44**	**52**	**49**	**43**	**57**	**100**
Wage employment	3	--	1.5	97	3	100
Building, handcraft & skills	2	1	1	68	32	100
Trading & other	1	0.5	0.3	69	31	100
Total economic activities	**50**	**53**	**52**	**45**	**55**	**100**
Domestic activities	4	23	16	16	84	100
Funerals and mourning	4	4	2.6	40	60	100
Educational and political	2	0.4	0.3	41	59	100
Sickness	3	4	3	40	60	100
Total labor utilized	**63**	**84**	**74**	**36**	**64**	**100**
Leisure time	37	16	26			

5. Hired labor

One way to cope with the increased pressure on household labor availability was to hire outside laborers. In fact, the study found that 90% of households which had dairy cows hired labor. The activities for which additional labor was hired were milking and cleaning the shed and animals. In the traditional division of labor, these activities are men's responsibilities. Therefore, the increase in men's responsibility in many households was absorbed by hired labor. For women, however, hired labor was not as frequently an option. Consequently, as the study argued, adoption of zero-grazing by women will encounter real labor constraints. Given the existing pressures on women due to their high daily workloads, it would appear that *pooling* labor among women might be one way to cope with the severe labor constraints women confront.

Summary Box: Gender Roles and Labor Constraints

Traditionally, women work considerably more hours than men: on average, 10 hours a day as opposed to 7.5 hours for men. The introduction of dairy farming adds at least 1 hour to a woman's daily workload. This poses a severe constraint on women with respect to their ability to participate in the project.

Hiring outside labor offers one way to reduce women's working hours. In practice, however, hired labor mainly reduces the workload of men. Women often lack independent access to cash income to pay for hired labor. Given the nature of the existing constraints on women's working hours, it appears that one way to alleviate the additional burden resulting from the introduction of dairy farming lies in pooling labor among the women taking part in the scheme.

III. DIFFERENTIAL RESOURCE AVAILABILITY AND CONTROL

6. Land

Within Kagera's farming system the most crucial resource for agriculture and for zero-grazing is land. From a gender perspective, it is insufficient to look at land tenure systems. Studying how such systems affect men and women farmers differently is equally important.

In general, there are three types of land ownership. The overall pattern of land tenure as estimated by this study is given in Table 3. The first is clan ownership, whereby land is the property of the clan but is allocated to clan members. The study estimated that 68% of *kibanja* land and 25% of *kishambu* land in the region is under this type of tenure. In Kagera the clan system is patrilinear and, therefore, clan land is inherited from fathers. Wives cannot inherit land from husbands since they are not clan members. Women clan members are understood to marry outside the clan and to have access to their husband's land. Unmarried women theoretically have a claim to clan land. In practice, however, this is precarious because of general land shortage and the priority given to men.

The second type of land tenure is individual ownership through purchase. The study found that 32% of *kibanja* land, 75% of *kishambu* land, and 20% of *rweya* in the region was individually owned. This type of tenure is growing due to increase in land pressure and the rapid privatization of land. Acquisition of land through this means is accessible to everyone on a capacity to pay basis. However, due to shortage, prices are high and not many people can afford to pay. Land acquired through this means can be inherited by a wife if a deceased husband leaves a will to that effect. In the absence of a will, individually owned land resorts to the man's clan and the wife can have no claim to it.

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The third type of tenure is communal ownership. The study estimated that 80% of *rweya* land was under communal ownership. This is state property under the care of village governments. As stated above, this land is only fit for grazing and much investment is necessary to convert it into a *kishambu* or *kibanja*. Some traditional women's groups use part of *rweya* land for the farming of bambara nuts.

Table 3. Land Tenure Aspects in the Kagera Region

Aspect of tenure and land use type	% Kibanja	% Kishambu	% Rweya
Clan ownership	68	25	—
Individual ownership	32	75	20
Communal ownership	—	—	80
	100	100	100

There are five methods of acquiring land in the region. Table 4 shows how men and women in the sample of the study acquired *kibanja* land.

Table 4. Methods of Acquisition of *Kibanja* Land

Method of Acquisition	% Men	% Women	% Total
Inherited from Father	69	46	65
Inherited from mother	9	3.8	1.4
Inherited from husband	—	5.2	1.1
Purchased	22	35	24
Public allocation	8.1	10	8.5
All	100(484)	100(117)	100(601)

The most common method of acquiring land for both men and women is through inheritance from the father (see Table 4). However, a bigger share of women obtain land through purchasing and public allocation than do men. Because of scarcity, land prices are high and therefore few women can afford to buy land. Also, the only land available for public allocation is *rweya*, which is not fit for growing crops or fodder without substantial investments. Thus, sources of land for women are drying up.

These types of land tenure affect different categories of women differently. The most secure tenure for women is individual ownership obtained through purchase, inheritance from an enlightened husband, or an allocation made by village authorities. In the study sample, 4.4% of the women acquired land this way. Women owning this land were relatively well off and could join the project, provided they had *kishambu* land.

Single women living on clan land have a secure tenure, though, strictly speaking, their children may not inherit the land from them. The study found that many women in this category were actively engaged in income-generating activities and could participate in the project. In the study, 4.6% of the women fall in this category. A similar case is widows living on their children's land: 29% of the women, mainly above 55 years of age, fell in this category.

The majority of women, 61% in the sample, are married and live on their husbands' land. These women have an insecure land tenure. They can only participate independently in the project if

allowed by their husbands, but the risk of abandoning all investments in case of divorce is a real threat. The prospect of a wife gaining independent means of income in a male-dominated society cannot be expected to be very welcome.

Thus, the majority of women in the region have an insecure land tenure. Remember that participation in the project required that the person concerned establish a plot of fodder and build a cow-shed. According to the survey results, only 40% of the women can be expected to fulfill those conditions, provided they can meet the financial costs. Of those, three quarters are above the age of 55.

Table 5. Actual Tenure Situation of Women

Tenure	% women
Married woman on husband's land	60
Old widowed on children's land	28
Young widowed	2.0
Single on clan land	4.3
Single on purchased land	40
Inherited from husband	0.4
Publicly allocated land	1.3
All	100

7. Improved cattle

Improved heifer breeds were produced by crossing Frisian cattle from the Netherlands with local Boran stocks by the project's breeding unit. These were then sold to farmers, which required that the farmers were capable of raising the investment cost. Continuous monitoring of the project performance revealed that initially only resource-rich farmers were participating in the project. Financial requirements excluded resource-poor farmers from taking advantage of the project. As such, the declared objectives of the project were being jeopardized by the resource requirements of the technologies involved in the project.

A credit scheme called the *heifer-in-trust* scheme was subsequently introduced to enable farmers who could not afford to pay for heifers to join the project. A farmer wanting to participate could obtain an in-calf heifer on credit and pay back the first female calf after it was also in-calf. Alternatively, if the farmer did not get a heifer, he or she could sell the male calves and pay back the loan in cash. This scheme lifted the constraint of raising a lump sum to buy the improved cow.

8. Purchased inputs

Veterinary drugs are the biggest item in the recurrent costs of keeping a dairy farm based on zero-grazing. During most of the history of the SSLDP, subsidized drugs were made available to farmers. Nevertheless, drugs still consumed roughly 40% of total recurrent expenditures. However, it is now deemed necessary that the subsidy is progressively phased out so that the project can gradually stand on its own feet. The implication is that expenditure on drugs will rise by more than one third of existing charges.

9. Technical assistance

The results of the first two years of the project demonstrated the importance of maintaining high husbandry standards. Improved dairy cows require good husbandry skills and consistent technical assistance in order to perform to expectations. Therefore, access to knowledge and services is crucial in obtaining the benefits of the project.

Farmers participating in the project have two main sources of knowledge and services. First, the project set up an extension service dedicated to assisting participating farmers. Nineteen dairy extension workers (two of them women) are each allocated a zone with about 32-36 dairy farmers. The predominant mode of reaching farmers is by individual visits, although group meetings (such as the village meetings where information about the project is given) occasionally take place. The study did not look into the relative access to the extension service among men and women farmers. However, the divergence between men and women and their sources of information about the project suggests that there is a substantive gap between male and female farmers' relative access to extension services.

From the literature, however, there is criticism of conventional extension strategies excluding women. Fortman (1981) states that the predominance of male extension workers excludes women farmers from their services because of social constraints to male/female interaction. Also, if extension workers do not have a thorough understanding of the situation and constraints under which women farmers operate, they could inadvertently be passing on advice which is of little relevance to women farmers.

As for the village gatherings, where information about the project is normally discussed, the multiple responsibilities of women prevent them from attending. When farmers were asked where they got the idea of joining the project 90% of men compared to only 30% of women cited advice from an extension worker. Seventy percent of women got advice from neighbors and friends. Therefore, it appears that the extension service as is offers limited support to women farmers.

The second provision the project made to equip participating farmers with the knowledge and skills necessary to practice dairy farming was to establish a farmers' training center, which would conduct courses for farmers and extension workers. Between 1984 and 1988 the center trained a total of 1353 people, 153 of whom were women. Of those, 225 (4 women) went for refresher courses. The center had five staff members, one of whom was a woman. The principal of the center reported that women trainees performed as well as their male counterparts. Sometimes women who came with their young children suffered distraction from their studies. Except for the absence of child care, the center was well equipped to host both men and women trainees.

Summary Box: Differential Resource Availability and Control

Land: Most women (61% of the sample survey) have insecure land tenure inasmuch as they live and work on their husband's land. For these women, participation in the dairy farming project depends on the approval of their husbands, but the risk of losing all investments in case of divorce is an ever-present threat to their livelihood. More secure forms of tenure for women result from direct purchase of land (35% of women acquired land this way as opposed to 22% of men), which requires considerable cash resources; inheritance from an enlightened husband; or an allocation made by village authorities. As participation in the dairy farming project requires that a person establish a plot of fodder and build a cow-shed, at most, 40% of women can be expected to fulfill these conditions, provided they can meet other costs involved in the project.

Cattle: Payment for cattle involved heavy monetary costs. The heifer-in-trust scheme, however, lifts the constraint on directly paying for improved cows. Resource-poor farmers, including women, can make use of this scheme provided they can meet its conditions.

Inputs: A major purchased input are veterinary drugs, which are sold at subsidized prices. However, the subsidy involved is gradually being phased out. For reasons explained in section IV, women are more likely to be barred from participation in the project because of lack of cash income than men. Hence, the abolition of subsidies is likely to hit women farmers harder than men.

Technical assistance: This involves two types of services: initial training & refresher courses provided by the training center, and regular extension services to participating farmers. Slightly more than 10% of all trainees were women, who performed as well as their male counterparts. Child care (and, possibly, other duties), however, interfered with the women's ability to fully benefit from the training. Few women can participate in follow-up refresher courses. There is some evidence that extension services tend to exclude women. One reason is that women, due to other constraints on their time, often cannot participate in village meetings where project matters are discussed. Another indication that extension services are biased in favor of men is that 90% of men report that they got the idea to participate in the scheme from the advice of extension officers, as compared to only 30% of the women (70% got advice from neighbors or friends). Labor constraints on women, which prevent them from participating in training and meetings, and an implicit male bias inherent in extension work, therefore, appear to pose additional barriers to women's participation in the project.

IV. THE DISTRIBUTION OF BENEFITS AMONG MEN AND WOMEN

10. Benefits in kind or cash income?

In the final analysis, the motivation to participate in the project is determined by prospective members' perception of benefits. As a whole, dairy farming is perceived to be beneficial by most of the participants. The rate of opting out is below 5%. The study indicated that, despite so many odds leveled against women, *none* would have preferred *not* to participate. The problem is that few women appear to be able to participate. The question arises as to whether the benefits of this project can be more evenly divided between women and men.

When asked what benefits they received from the project, both women and men cite not only the production of milk as a main benefit but, also, the importance of manure to improve their plots. In fact, as stated above, yields from *kibanjas* which have been applied with manure are double of those without manure.

However, when asked what assistance they needed most, men wanted a guaranteed market for milk, while women wanted lower prices for inputs. This is because women prefer to use milk for home consumption while men give priority to selling it for cash. This is an important distinction. Insofar as women prefer benefits in kind, it also follows that they will experience greater difficulty in meeting monetary costs. Therefore, if production costs are lower, women can more easily satisfy their specific needs. This issue is taken up further in section 12 below.

As for market demand, to maximize cash income from milk, a stable market is necessary to maintain the price. With growing supplies of milk within a confined local market, prices may fall over time. The condition for reasonable price stability, therefore, may depend on supplementary investments in milk processing, transport, and marketing, so as to cater for a wider regional market.

Finally, as stated above, a major benefit of the project is that cows provide manure for agricultural plots — particularly, the *kibanjas*. In terms of the gender division of labor in the household and the existing mechanisms of control over resources and income, the resulting benefits are likely to differ between men as and women. If manure is applied to agricultural plots, men will benefit from increased cash income because of the higher yields of cash crops while women are likely to benefit in kind as the production for home consumption increases.

11. Who should benefit?

Relations in the household are not based on equality regarding who controls resources, who performs what tasks, and how the benefits derived from production are shared among partners. The study obtained the views of men and women on these issues with the purpose of identifying important cultural barriers to change due to established but uneven social norms and practices. Table 6 presents a summary of the views expressed. Seventy-five percent of men and 25% of women disagreed with the statement that women should sell their own produce directly. Thirty-eight percent of men and 100% of women thought that the consent of the wife should be obtained in the disposal of joint household income. It is clear that attitudes like these impede many women in undertaking extra risks and responsibilities.

Table 6. A Summary of Attitudes of Men and Women on Gender Divisions

Issue	% women		% Men	
	A	D	A	D
Division of labor				
In this village women work harder than men	100	—	97	3
Men should share housework with their wives	50	50	12	88
Land tenure				
Married women should be given full land tenure rights	86	14	38	62
Upon divorce, married women should get full compensation	93	7	45	55
Resources and benefits				
Women should get credit to purchase own cow	80	20	53	47
Women should be allowed to sell their own produce directly	75	25	25	75
Men should not dispose of joint household income without consent of their wives	100	—	38	62

A = Agreed D = Disagree

12. Breaking even

Benefits, costs, and asset acquisition may, or may not, involve direct cash transactions. Consider first the outlays. Access to land, for example, depends in part on a person's capacity to purchase it, but land use can also be acquired through clan-based allocation or communal ownership. Similarly, the acquisition of improved cattle breeds at first depended on the ability to pay for them, but the introduction of the *heifer-in-trust* scheme allowed farmers to acquire heifers without an initial outlay of cash. Equally, household labor is an important resource which involves no direct monetary expenditure, while reliance on hired labor requires the availability of ready cash to pay for it. Veterinary drugs need to be paid for in cash but subsidies may lower the threshold as far as ability to pay is concerned. As for benefits, as shown above, these can be both in kind or in cash.

When assessing the scope of a project to reach resource-poor farmers and, particularly, women farmers, two aspects appear to be important.

First, there is the overall net benefit to the farmer as a result of this project. In other words, is it worthwhile for a farmer to take part in the project? As stated above, the low drop-out ratio as well as revealed perceptions indicate that most farmers perceive the project to be beneficial, be it for different reasons for men and women. In the language of project appraisal, the net benefit, estimated as the difference between total benefits (monetary or in kind) and total costs (monetary or in kind), appears to be largely positive. To be able to make a meaningful appraisal, benefits and costs in kind are normally valued at market prices. For example, to assess the benefit of milk production, its output can be valued at market prices whether or not the milk is actually sold. (In fact, if it were sold, the actual market price may end up being lower.)

Secondly, it is possible for a project to be beneficial to a farmer, yet not *viable* in financial terms. It is, therefore, equally important to check whether monetary benefits at least cover monetary costs, because the viability of the project to resource-poor farmers (particularly women) may depend on

this. Hence, apart from producing a net benefit (whether in cash or in kind), the project should also allow different groups of farmers to break even financially (unless clear possibilities exist that other farm activities can cross-subsidize dairy farming) to make it viable.

Both aspects (whether the project is beneficial and whether it is viable for particular groups of farmers) need to be taken into account in an analysis of the project's effectiveness to reach women farmers. Indeed, participation in the project may be beneficial, yet not viable. What this means is that the person concerned would benefit from participating but, under existing conditions, cannot afford to join. This state of affairs can arise when benefits are mainly in kind while participation involves major lump sums or regular payments in cash. This might provide a major constraint on women's participation in the project. Shortage of cash also impedes the ability to alleviate labor constraints in the household by greater reliance on hired labor. Hence, women farmers can find themselves constrained by their own work overload, on the one hand, and lack of cash to pay for hired labor, on the other. In such a case, viable ways of pooling labor without implying monetary costs may need to be found.

Summary Box: The Distribution of Benefits among Men and Women

Both men and women report that they benefit from participating in the project: in fact, the drop out rate is below 5%. However, benefits differ according to between men and women: men cite the advantage of increased cash income; women stress the benefits in kind resulting from increased home consumption.

Existing social practices and perceptions (particularly of men) reinforce a situation where women carry a disproportionate share of the burden but have much less control over the benefits. This context makes it difficult for women to assume extra risks and responsibilities.

Apart from land and labor constraints, women, as compared to men, are also more likely to confront serious cash constraints. The benefits they obtain from dairy farming are mostly in kind (improved home consumption) and, hence, they are more likely to encounter difficulties in coping with the cash costs of the project. Since women generally have less control over income from the sale of cash crops, cross-subsidization (i.e. one household activity subsidizing another by meeting its monetary costs) is less of an option to women unless they receive active support from their husbands.

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Exercise 7A. Small-scale Livestock Development Project analysis

Phase 1. Group work (1 hour 30 minutes)

1. Form five groups.

2. Discuss and summarize all the following issues as a group, but group members individually record only the summary of one issue assigned to them. Write that summary down on handout 4.7.5. (45 minutes)

   A. List two strengths of the project design.

   B. List two weaknesses of the project design.

   C. Identify two causes that prevent women from participating in the project and distinguish whether they are strategic or practical.

   Propose two strategies to overcome the respective causes cited above.

   List two anticipated results of the proposed improvements.

   D. What institutional mechanisms are necessary to implement the proposed improvements?

   E. What policy measures could be put in place to facilitate the adoption of these improvements?

3. Form different groups. The participants who worked on similar issues form a new group together, so one group works on issue A, one group works on issue B, etc. Each new group selects a rapporteur.

4. The new group members share and discuss their summaries. Rapporteurs write down the final group's result on the specific issue. (45 minutes)

Phase 2. Reporting and discussion (1 hour)

5. The rapporteurs present their group's results to the audience. Each rapporteur has 15 minutes to present.

6. The trainer will invite you to join in a discussion on the presentations.

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Exercise 7A. Worksheet

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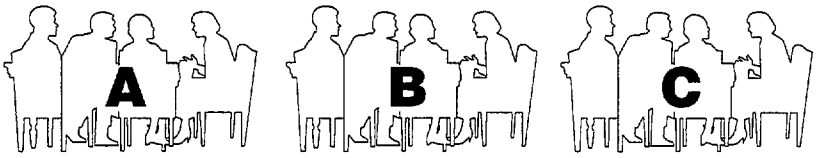
Exercise 7B. (alternative exercise) Gender analysis tools to analyze the case study

Phase 1. Group work (1 hour 45 minutes)

1. Form three groups, each group electing a rapporteur. Each group is given one task (or time permitting, two tasks) to discuss and work through, using the case study as the context for discussing the specific gender tool.



2. Read the task assigned to you, and answer the questions. You may want to use handout 4.7.7 to record your notes.

Phase 2. Reporting and discussion (45 minutes)

3. The rapporteurs explain their gender tool to the larger group. Each rapporteur has five minutes to present.
4. You will be invited to discuss the "lesson" after each presentation.

Exercise 7B. Worksheet

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Task A

Gender Roles Analysis—productive, reproductive, and community managing or politics roles of men and women

Background Information

Gender roles[1]*:* Gender planning recognizes that in most societies low-income women have a triple role: women undertake *reproductive, productive,* and *community managing* activities, while men primarily undertake *managing* and *community politics* activities.

(R) *Reproductive role:* Child-bearing/rearing responsibilities, and domestic tasks done by women, required to guarantee the maintenance and reproduction of the labor force. It includes not only biological reproduction but also the care and maintenance of the workforce (male partner and working children) and the future workforce (infants and school-going children).

(P) *Productive role:* Work done by both women and men for pay in cash or kind. It includes both market production with an exchange-value, and subsistence/home production with actual use-value, and also potential exchange-value. For women in agricultural production this includes work as independent farmers, peasant wives and wage workers.

(CM) *Community managing role:* Activities undertaken primarily by women at the community level, as an extension of their reproductive role, to ensure the provision and maintenance of scarce resources of collective consumption, such as water, health care, and education. This is voluntary unpaid work, undertaken in "free" time.

(CP) *Community politics role:* Activities undertaken primarily by men at the community level, organizing at the formal political level, often within the framework of national politics. This is usually paid work, either directly or indirectly, through status or power.

Instructions

1. Analyze the case study according to the gender roles and complete the matrix.
2. What were the most important results of your analysis?
3. What problems did you encounter with this tool? How would you improve it?

1 Source: Moser.1993. Gender Planning and Development: Theory, Practice and Planning. London: Routledge.

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Gender Roles Analysis Matrix

Roles	Role on which focued									
	Intention				Actual					
	R	P	CM	CP	R	P	CM	CP		
Male										
Female										
Shared										

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Task B

Gender Needs and Constraints Assessments—practical and strategic needs and constraints for men and women

Background Information

Gender needs/constraints[1]

Women have particular needs that differ from those of men. It is useful to distinguish between two types of needs:

(PGN) Practical gender needs (PGN) are the needs women identify in their socially ascribed roles in society. PGNs do not challenge, although they arise out of, gender divisions of labor and women's position in society. PGNs are a response to immediate perceived necessity, identified within a specific context. They are practical in nature and often concern inadequacies in basic living conditions such as water provision, health care, food, and employment.

(SGN) Strategic gender needs (SGN) are the needs women identify to challenge their position in society. They vary according to particular social and cultural contexts, and are influenced by the gender division of labor, power, and control over resources. Issues such as legal rights, domestic violence, equal wages, and women's control over their bodies are considered strategic gender needs. Meeting SGNs assists women to achieve greater equality and change existing roles, thereby challenging the status quo of gender relations.

Instructions

1. Analyze the case study according to the gender needs and constraints and complete the matrix.
2. What were the most important results of your analysis?
3. What problems did you encounter using this tool? How would you improve it?

1 Source: Moser 1993. Gender Planning and Development: Theory, Practice and Planning. London: Routledge.

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Gender Needs and Constraints Assessments Matrix

Roles	Gender needs and constraints met			
	Intention		Actual	
	PGN	SGN	PGN	SGN
Male				
Female				
Shared				

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Task C

Sex-Disaggregated Data — this is mainly quantitative data collection, analysis, and presentation based on male/female responses or criteria; it does not show a social *relationship* between men and women but differences based on sex (e.g. labor allocation based on sex; income earned by sex, etc.). (Note: it is erroneous to talk of gender-disaggregated data if the definition of gender is a social relationship and not a biological characteristic.)

Background Information[1]

This tool does not expect to train participants to become expert analysts of quantitative data. The goal, however, is to make them more aware of the importance of quantitative data, that is, to promote an appreciation of the benefits of quantitative data for the design, implementation, and monitoring of development programs and projects.

Even data collected by community-based governmental and non-governmental organizations can be of use, but it is absolutely essential that data be disaggregated by sex before it can be used to perform gender analysis.

Quantitative Analysis can tell us:

- What is happening?
- To whom?

Instructions

1. Construct a list of other quantitative data you think is needed to support the management of the case study project.
2. What sex-disaggregated data is available in the case study?
3. What problems might be encountered in using this tool?

1 Source: USAID, Office of Women in Development. 1994. Genesys: gender analysis tool kit.

Task D

Gender Relations Data — gender relations data is mainly qualitative data collection, analysis, and presentation based on information about the relational activities and relative social and cultural position of men and women; this information is difficult to quantify because it is based on complementary or conflicting relations; it is gathered through participatory discussions with women and men; together or separately; historical data can also be used.

Background Information[1]

Qualitative Analysis explains:

- How are things happening?
- Why are they happening?

Quantitative analysis can tell us about what is happening and to whom it is or is not happening. It can provide indication of the magnitude and scope of a gender issue, and it permits empirical comparisons to be made between various social groups and categories.

To understand how and why something is happening, therefore, we also need to perform qualitative analyses of gender issues, that is, investigate the meanings of actions and outcomes.

Not only does qualitative analysis help us to interpret quantitative data, but it also is essential for knowing what kinds of data to collect and from whom. Furthermore, qualitative analysis helps us to understand the attitudes and behaviors of the people being observed, and to gain insights into the more subtle aspects of motivation that cannot be adequately measured by quantitative means.

However, qualitative analysis is also insufficient by itself. Gender analysis is also insufficient by itself. Gender analysis that is truly useful to development practitioners must involve an integration of both quantitative and qualitative methods to develop a comprehensive picture of the economic, political, and cultural realities of a given development arena.

Instructions

1. Construct a list of the qualitative data you think is needed to support the management of the case study project.
2. Prioritize these information needs and identify the best sources of the data.
3. What problems might be encountered when using this tool?

1 Source: USAID, Office of Women in Development. 1994. Genesys: gender analysis tool kit.

Task E

Gender-Conscious Weighting, Indicators, and Benchmarks — often based on sex-disaggregated data and gender relations data, these criteria are identified and used in monitoring and evaluation of gender issues.

Background Information[1]

Once program or project objectives have been agreed upon, the next step is to devise a set of indicators. Indicators respond to the needs of the project and its intended beneficiaries. They provide information to monitor the effects of project or program activities in the short term so that needed corrections can be made. They can be used for reporting on a project or program and charting trends in the project or program development.

Indicators show whether the project is moving toward its goal. They also should show how and to what extent different social groups and actors have benefited from the project. For example, have men benefited more or less than women? Have women of one ethnic or age group benefited differently from others? Impact indicators will show project management whether outcomes are consistent with or contrary to expected outcomes.

The development and use of indicators in project decisionmaking may have important spill-over effects to other institutions in the country. The collection and dissemination of information through indicators, not only to donor agencies but also to counterpart organizations, may be important for illustrating the utility of information in decisionmaking, and for pressuring public institutions, such as national statistics institutes, to supply it more expeditiously. Local organizations also may find monitoring and evaluation useful for lobbying government or donor organizations for additional services and financial support, by demonstrating either the success of their programs or the acute needs of the population they serve.

There are no perfect impact indicators and no ideal method for developing them. The most important consideration is that the indicators provide managers and decisionmakers with the information they need to do their jobs. Also, as project implementors repeatedly emphasize, data collection, reporting, and interpretation should be simple and low-cost. The best indicators are not always the ideal measures. While one indicator may be preferable technically, others may be more feasible in terms of time, cost, and effort.

Instructions

1. Based on the case study, devise a list of indicators for monitoring and evaluating the project.
2. What are your information sources for these indicators?
3. Should certain indicators be weighted, or made more important?
4. What problems might be encountered when using this tool?

1 Source: USAID, Office of Women in Development. 1994. Genesys: gender analysis tool kit.

Task F

Gender Impact Analysis — primarily a gendered form of inputs and outputs analysis; financial costs and benefits should be considered, although other costs and benefits should be identified and assessed.

Background Information[1]

Assessing and reporting the relative project or program impacts on men and women are referred to here as the "gender impact" of a project or program. The USAID Genesys method outlines four steps in identifying gender impact:

Step 1: Ask Questions at all stages of the project/program. (i.e. Who benefits from this investment? Whose labour or other resources are being used? Are benefits shared equally?)

Step 2: Data analysis

Step 3: Determining impacts on women and men

Step 4: Reporting impacts on women and men.

Instructions

Using the case study as your source of data,

1. List two or three key project inputs.
2. List two or three corresponding project outputs.
3. Analyze the inputs (costs) and outputs (benefits) by their impact on gender. Are the factors comparable? Are they all measurable?
4. How could this information be reported? (What are the advantages of project monitoring systems and semi-annual reports including gender impact?)
5. What problems might be encountered when using this tool?

1 Source: USAID, Office of Women in Development. 1994. Genesys: gender analysis tool kit.

Example of One Style of Presentation

Items	Cost	Benefit	Impact on Gender
Item 1			
Item 2			
Item 3			

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DAY FOUR

Session 8 Operational Plan for Institutionalizing Gender Awareness and Analysis in Research Management

Instructions to Trainers

SESSION 8

12:00 – 13:00 Session 8. Operational Plan for Institutionalizing Gender Awareness and Analysis in Research Management

13:00 – 14:00 Lunch

14:00 – 15:30 Session 8. (Continued)

15:30 – 15:45 Tea/Coffee Break

15:45 – 16:00 Exercise. Test your knowledge again

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this session, the participants will be able to do the following:

- Incorporate knowledge and tools learned into an operational plan to address gender awareness and analysis in the research management of agriculture and natural resources in their institution.
- Synthesize knowledge of gender awareness in research management.
- Identify the knowledge gained in the workshop.

Use overhead 4.8.1 to present the objectives.

PROCEDURE

Training techniques: exercise, discussion.

RATIONALE

The final day of the workshop culminates in an exercise to design an operational plan for incorporating gender awareness and analysis into the work of a hypothetical research organization. The goal of this exercise is to allow participants to envisage a plan of action on gender issues, and the constraints, inputs, and outputs to this plan. While this exercise could help participants prepare for the development of their individual PAPA action items in the next session, it does not replace or duplicate the PAPA exercise because it is a *hypothetical* plan of action. The PAPA exercise identifies actual action items which the participants will implement in their own institutions.

In this exercise participants should be encouraged to examine and evaluate the areas which this workshop has covered: policy, institutional structure, and program and project man-

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agement. Participants should develop their operational plan as if they had the full authority in their work and organization to develop a plan of action to promote gender awareness. The exercise should be carefully explained. It should begin before lunch and continue after lunch.

EXERCISE 8

Exercise 8. Operational plan. (2 hours 30 minutes)

1. Distribute handouts 4.8.1 and 4.8.2. Handout 4.8.1 gives clear instructions for this exercise. Go over the instructions step by step and ask if any clarifications are needed.

Phase 1. Group work (1 hour 30 minutes)

2. Divide the participants into four groups, and ask each group to elect a rapporteur.
3. The groups work on their operational plan that incorporates the components og gender awareness and analysis raised during the workshop: policy, institutional organization, and program and project management.
4. While the groups work, circulate among the groups to check progress. Ask if any clarifications are needed.

13:00 – 14:00 Lunch Break

Phase 2. Reporting and discussion (55 minutes)

5. The rapporteurs each have 10 minutes to present their group's results to the audience. (40 minutes)
6. Provide feedback on the groups' results and invite all participants to join in a discussion on this exercise. Finally, provide feedback on the content of the presentations. Also, ask questions such as "How did you feel doing this exercise?" and "What did you learn?" (15 minutes)

15:30 – 15:45 Tea/Coffee Break

POST-TEST EXERCISE

15:45 – 16:00 Exercise. Test your knowledge again

1. Distribute handouts 4.8.3 and 4.8.4.
2. Ask the participants to write on the worksheet their answers to their same questions that they received during the first day of the workshop.
3. Collect the answers, mark the papers using the answer sheet (1.), and tabulate the average grade. If you have the opportunity to graph the results, do so. Briefly discuss the results.

CLOSURE

Closure (5 minutes)

1. *(application)* Ask the participants to tell their neighbor two things they might do differently as a result of what they have learned. Ask some volunteers to give examples.
2. Make a transition to the PAPA session.

DAY FOUR

Session 8
Summary of Overheads

Objectives of Session 8

2. Incorporate knowledge and tools learned into an operational plan to address gender awareness and analysis in research management in agriculture and natural resources in your institution
3. Synthesize knowledge of gender in research management
4. Identify the knowledge gained in the workshop

4.8.1

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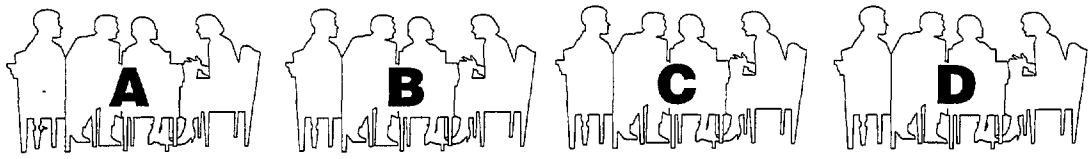
Exercise 8. Operational plan for institutionalizing gender awareness and analysis in research management

This exercise is designed to bring together the learning and experiences gained in the workshop. The idea is to build this knowledge into a plan which can be operationalized within the NARS. It is a good exercise in bringing theory closer to practice. In many cases, the operational plans which are designed here may help you to develop ideas for your PAPA activities.

Phase 1. Group work (1 hour 30 minutes)

1. Form four groups, each electing a rapporteur.
2. Decide on a topic for your operational plan that can incorporate all of the components



raised in the workshop: policy, institutional organization, and program and project management.

3. Address each of the following questions as steps in the development of your plan. Be sure to schedule enough time for each of the questions.

   - Define one clear objective for developing the plan and operational activities.
   - Identify the target area related to this objective.
   - Choose two operational activities to be conducted to reach the defined objective.
   - List three constraints under which you will be conducted these two activities.
   - List actions that you will take to minimize or overcome these constraints to accomplish this plan successfully (do not forget that they should be feasible solutions).
   - List five personal qualities that you need to be successful in this task.
   - How will you communicate this plan to your supervisor or people affected by this plan?
   - Where do you plan to implement it?
   - How many people will be involved in this plan? (Do not forget that it should be with a feasible number.)
   - When will you begin to implement this plan? Please define duration. (How many months do you intend to take to implement this plan seriously and with commitment.)
   - Schedule follow-up and evaluation to assess the progress of this plan. What benchmarks will you use?
   - How will you collect information on the progress of this plan?
   - List three results which you can anticipate as consequences of this action plan.

Phase 2. Reporting and discussion (60 minutes)

4. The rapporteurs have 10 minutes each, to present their group's plans to the audience.
5. You will be invited to join in a discussion on the presentations.

Exercise 8. Worksheet

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Exercise. Test Your Knowledge Again

Briefly write the answers (in point form) on handout 4.8.4 to the following questions. Give your answers the **same** three-digit secret code as before (so only you know your test). Then hand it in to the trainer who will compile the results.

1. (1 point) What does the term "gender" mean?

2. (1 point) What is the difference between the terms "gender" and "women?"

3. (1 point) What is the meaning of "feminization of poverty?"

4. (1 point) What is the difference between gender equality and gender equity?

5. (1 point) Define gender analysis.

6. (1 point) Name three areas where gender analysis influences the research project management cycle.

7. (2 points) Name two examples of gender-analysis tools.

8. (2 points) Name two ways gender concerns can influence institutional organization and management.

(Total 10 points)

Test Your Knowledge Again. Worksheet

Participant code (use the same code as before):_____

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

DAY FOUR

Session 9
Participant Action Plan Approach (PAPA)

Instructions to Trainers

16:00 – 17:00 Session 9. Participant Action Plan Approach (PAPA) and Workshop Evaluation

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this session, the participants will be able to do the following:

- Prepare a list of action items for future activities in gender issues.
- Evaluate the workshop.

Use overhead 4.9.1 to present the objectives.

PROCEDURE

Training techniques: presentation, individual work, group sharing, PAPA.

PRESENTATION

(experience) Give a brief presentation reinforcing the use of the PAPA during this workshop. Remind the participants of the information you presented on the PAPA at the beginning of the workshop. You may want to use overheads 4.9.2 and 4.9.3 to review the PAPA. Note that the participants have been jotting down possible action items throughout the workshop. Now is the time for them to focus on finalizing their specific action items for when they return to their jobs. Be sure to ask the participants if they have any comments, questions, or need clarifications. (5 minutes)

PAPA EXERCISE

PAPA exercise — Second stage. (40 minutes)

1. Distribute handout 4.9.1 (2 forms). These are the forms for the second stage of the PAPA action plan.

Phase 1. Individual work

2. Ask the participants to review the work they did over the last four days and to refer to the PAPA notes they made throughout the workshop. They should formulate specific action items and write them on the handout. Ask them to refer to the questions about their action items in order to be sure they are written as specifically as possible. (15 minutes)

Phase 2. Group sharing and discussion

3. Go around the room and ask each person to tell you their action items. List each item on flipcharts. If some people have similar items, just indicate with a check by

the item. Do not rewrite. This will give a good idea of the range of action items people are interested in undertaking. (25 minutes)

4. Collect the completed forms from the participants. (Make photocopies to return to the participants before they leave.) Remind them that you will be following up with them after several months to see how they have progressed toward their action items.

16:45 – 17:00 Workshop Evaluation

Distribute handouts 4.9.2 and 4.9.3. Have the participants complete the evaluation before they leave the session. Give them about 15 minutes for this task. As soon as the participants return the evaluation forms, invite them to make oral comments regarding the evaluation of the workshop. Facilitate a brief discussion.

17:00 – 17:15 Final Remarks, Closing, and Distribution of Certificates

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DAY FOUR

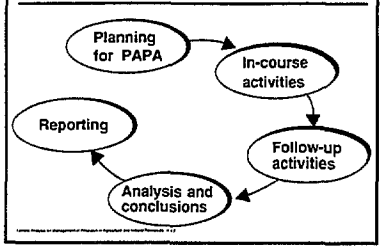
Session 9
Summary of Overheads

Objectives of Session 9

5. Prepare a list of action items for future activities in gender issues
6. Evaluate the workshop

4.9.1

Steps in PAPA



4.9.2

Step 2: In-course Activities

Stage 2

Objectives:
- develop action plan

Procedure:
- prepare preliminary list of action items
- confer with partner
- finalize and prioritize list of action items
- report individual action plans
- make copy and submit to trainer

4.9.3

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SECOND STAGE

ACTION PLAN

Date: _____

Workshop Title: SADC/ESAMI/ISNAR Workshop on Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources

Name: _____

Organization: _____

Action Items	Start to implement action plan (check if known)		
I plan to:	Within 2 months	After 2 months	As arises

PARTICIPANT ACTION PLAN APPROACH

Supervisor's Contact Address

Name: _____

Organization/Center: _____

Name of Immediate Superior: _____

Title of Immediate Superior: _____

Address: _____

_____

_____

_____

Tel. No.: _____

Fax No.: _____

Telex No.: _____

Email: _____

QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR ACTION ITEMS

1. *Preliminary nature of plan*

- Were you specific in writing the action items?
- What will you need to do when you return to work to find out which actions are possible?

2. *Resources*

- Who would be carrying out the proposed action, or helping with it (formally or informally)?
- Are the skills for carrying it out available?
- How much time will this take?
- Are there special materials or equipment required?
- What is involved in obtaining them?
- Will you be using a tool, system, or aid from this training workshop?
- How much adaptation is required?
- Is continual monitoring or follow-through required?
- Who will do it?

3. *Implementation*

- Do you have the authority to implement the action?
- If not, who does?
- How do you think you can go about getting approval?
- What do you think the degree of support is for your idea?
- Will you need to sell people on it?
- Who?

4. *Effects*

- Whom will this action affect?
- How will it affect them?
- Will anyone be the worse for the results?
- Anyone improved?
- What will be affected?

5. *Environment*

- What in the organizational environment might interfere with your doing this?
- What factors in the organization will support your effort

Workshop on Gender Analysis for Management in Agriculture and Natural Resources

Evaluation Form

Your cooperation in completing this questionnaire will be greatly appreciated. The information you provide will be useful in planning future events and will help resource persons to improve their materials and presentation.

A. General Reactions

In general, I would rate the workshop as:
- ☐ Excellent
- ☐ Good
- ☐ Average
- ☐ Fair
- ☐ Poor

On balance, would you say that the workshop objectives were achieved?
- ☐ Yes
- ☐ Partially
- ☐ No

(If no, please explain briefly in section H)

B. Objectives

The objectives of this workshop are listed below. Please mark to what extent, in your opinion, the objectives have been achieved, using a scale from 1 to 5. The scale ranges from:
1 - I cannot perform this objective or I have not been exposed to the information.
2 - I cannot perform this objective but I have been exposed to the information.
3 - I can perform the skill or express the knowledge with assistance from others.
4 - I can perform the skill or express the knowledge without assistance from others.
5 - I can perform the skill or express the knowledge well enough to instruct others.

• Define: "sex", "gender," "feminization of poverty," "gender roles," "gender relations","gender analysis", "institutionalization of gender", and "engendering" the project	1	2	3	4	5
• Identify gender-related problems in agricultural and natural resource research management	1	2	3	4	5
• List some specific benefits of adopting a gender perspective in research management	1	2	3	4	5
• Identify different policy approaches to incorporating gender into research and development-related activities	1	2	3	4	5
• Understand the significance of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management	1	2	3	4	5
• Describe and define gender awareness issues in human resource management	1	2	3	4	5
• Describe the research program formulation process and project management cycle	1	2	3	4	5
• Identify how gender analysis can engender the research program process and project management cycle	1	2	3	4	5
• Discuss the tools used in gender analysis	1	2	3	4	5
• Analyze a small-scale livestock project from the gender perspective and use gender tools	1	2	3	4	5

C.
Strengths and Weaknesses

- **Please list what you consider to be three strengths of the workshop:**

1.
2.
3.

- **Please list what you consider to be three weaknesses of the workshop:**

1.
2.
3.

D. Topics

In this section we would like you to rate the content, the usefulness, the presentation, and the time allotment for each of topics included in the course. When rating ***content***, you should consider such factors as rigor of material (theory, soundness, methodology). In regard to ***usefulness,*** rate the topic in terms of its applicability/relevance in your day-to-day work activities. Factors to consider in assessing ***presentation*** include clearness, logical structure, good use of visuals, etc. Please place a check in the box that most accurately represents your opinions of these factors.

Sessions	Content					Usefulness to Work					Presentation/Exercise					Time Allotment		
	Excellent	Good	Average	Fair	Poor	Excellent	Good	Average	Fair	Poor	Excellent	Good	Average	Fair	Poor	Too Short	Just Right	Too long
Day 1.																		
1. Introduction	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Gender Analysis in Research Management: Concepts and Arguments	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Day 2.																		
3. Approaches to Gender Policy	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations: Part I	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Day 3.																		
5. Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Reosurce Research Organizations: Part II	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Gender Analysis and Engendering the Research Program Formulation Process and Project Management Cycle	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Day 4.																		
7. Incorporating Gender into a Research and Extension Project	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Operational Plan for Institutionalizing Gender Analysis in Research Management	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Participant Action Plan Approach	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

E. Features

	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor
Accommodations	☐	☐	☐	☐
Meals	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lectures	☐	☐	☐	☐
Discussions	☐	☐	☐	☐
Papers/Handouts	☐	☐	☐	☐
Organization and Management	☐	☐	☐	☐
Quality of visual aids	☐	☐	☐	☐
Quantity of visual aids	☐	☐	☐	☐

F. Additional Topics

What additional topics would you have liked included in this activity?

G. Management Topics

On what other management topics would you like to receive training in future events?

H. Comments

Please use the space below to write down any additional comments or suggestions you might have.

Guidelines to Provide Feedback on the Workshop

1. The Module

Content

- usefulness/relevance
- amount of information

Structure

- sequence
- duration
- balance between trainers' and trainees' participation
- instruction to trainers
- visual aids
- handouts
- extra readings
- PAPA
- evaluation

2. Process: training techniques and direction

- usefulness/relevance/effectiveness
- group interaction
- clarity of questions/exercise instructions
- opening and closure of the days

3. Trainers', facilitators', and trainees' performance

- presentation/communication skills
- interaction/effective participation
- punctuality/interest/commitment/willingness to facilitate learning/willingness to participate
- other attitudes

4. Logistical support

- organization
- accuracy
- punctuality
- willingness to assist participants
- services provided in general

5. Workshop environment

- physical (training facilities, training material, hotel facilities in general)
- psychological (personal feelings such as self-motivation, interest, satisfaction, self-achievement)
- social (development of friendship, relaxed, comfortable among participants, etc.)

6. Workshop results/outputs

- personal and professional assessment
- recommendations

7. General comments

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Annex : Overheads

Workshop Goal

The overall goal is to enhance the capacity of senior research managers and program leaders to incorporate gender awareness at the levels of policy formulation, planning, implementation and evaluation of research programs and projects.

Workshop Objectives

1. Review the experience of gender-related agricultural and natural resources research
2. Identify national policies relevant to gender issues
3. Analyze the impact of policy on gender relations in agricultural research
4. Examine gender relations in NARS
5. Assess their influence on program and project implementation
6. Evaluate the research program formulation and the project management cycle from a gender relations perspective
7. Incorporate gender analysis research management

Expected Outputs

1. Improved skills in gender issues and analysis

2. Action plans by program leaders and senior managers to improve implementation

3. Improved commitment from managers and program leaders to work as a team toward improved research and effective research management

Objectives of Day One

1. Discuss background, rationale, objectives, and schedule

2. Discuss the use of participant action plan approach - PAPA

3. Define: sex, gender, feminization of poverty, gender roles and relations gender analysis, institutionalization of gender, engendering the project cycle

4. Explain difference between gender perspective and women's perspective

5. Identify initial gender-related problems in management of research in agriculture and natural resources

6. List specific benefits of adopting a gender perspective in research management

Schedule of Day One

08:30 – 09:00	Welcome
09:00 – 10:30	Session 1. Introduction to the Workshop
	Tea/Coffee Break
10:45 – 13:00	Session 1. (Continued)
	Lunch
14:00 – 15:30	Session 2. Gender Analysis in Research Management: Concepts and Arguments
	Tea/Coffee Break
15:45 – 16:30	Session 2. (Continued)
16:30 – 17:00	Feedback on the Day's Activities and PAPA

Objectives Session 1.

1. Discuss the background, rationale, objectives, and schedule for the 4-day workshop

2. Discuss the use of participant action plan approach - PAPA

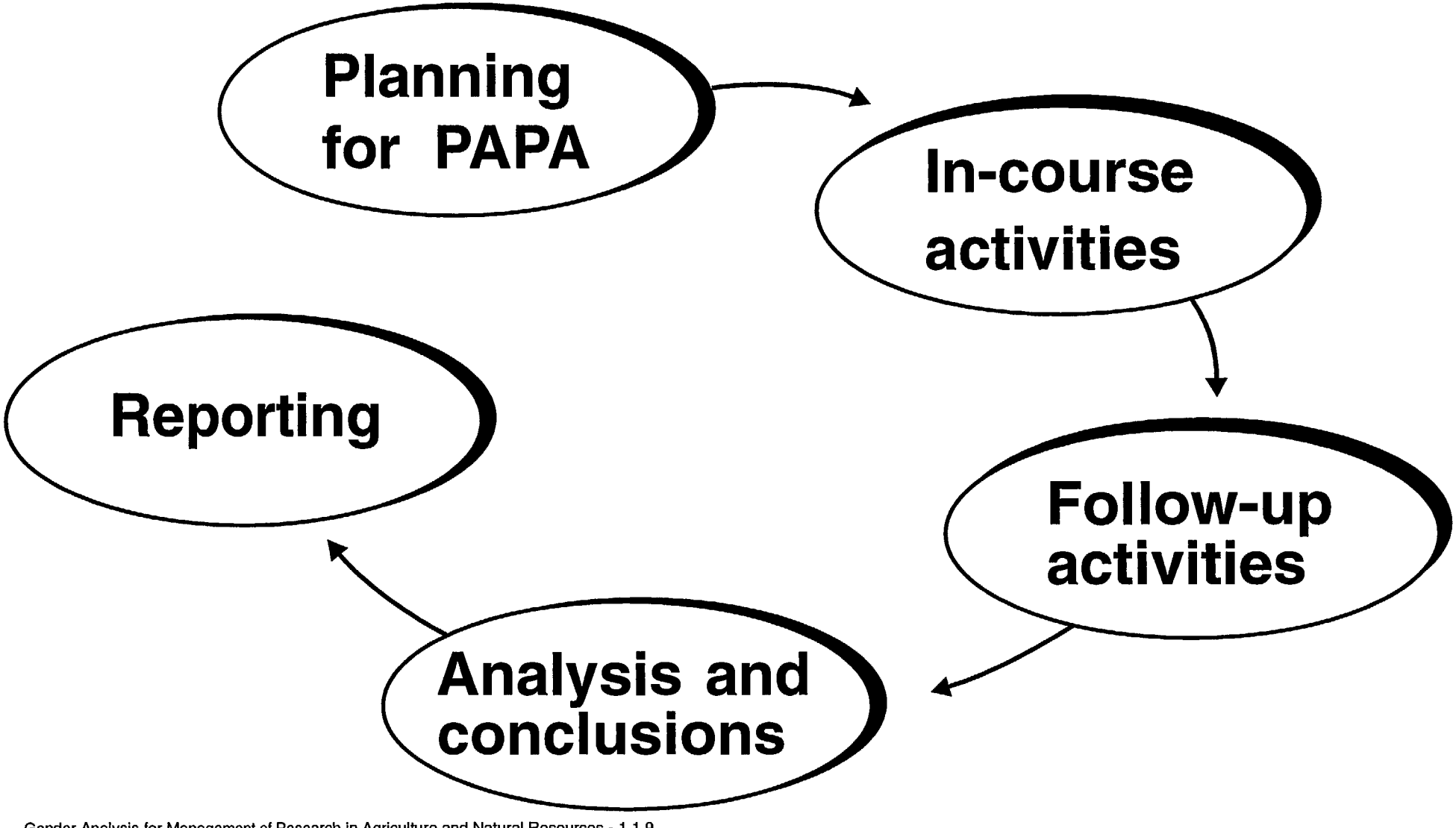
Why PAPA?

- Systematic and continuous planning of future activities by trainees as training evolves
- Formal link between trainees and trainer for follow-up activities
- Further involvement of trainee in improving the training material after training event

Uses of PAPA

- Assess the transfer of skill to work place
- Determine the impact of change introduced
- Identify problems of implementation
- Decide how to modify the course
- Evaluate the most useful parts/quality of training

Steps in PAPA



Step 2: In-course Activities

Stage 1

Objectives:

- introduce PAPA to participants
- identify possible action ideas to be tried on the job

Procedure:

- Jot down action ideas during the training
  - use format provided
  - do it at end of last session each day
  - confer with other participants/trainers periodically

Step 2: In-course Activities

Stage 2

Objectives:

- develop action plan

Procedure:

- prepare preliminary list of action items
- confer with partner
- finalize and prioritize list of action items
- report individual action plans
- make copy and submit to trainer

Step 3: Follow-up Activities

Trainers	Participants
• Formulate and send questionnaire →	• Fill out and return questionnaire
• Analyze and interpret data	
• Prepare report →	• Receive report and send feedback
• Modify course content	

PAPA Questionnaire, First Stage
Ideas for action items

Date : _____

Workshop title : _____

Date/Venue : _____

Name : _____

Organization : _____

Ideas I would like to try when I return to work at my research institute, based on what I have learned in this training workshop

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Note: **You can use the workshop objectives, what you learn during the workshop, handouts, conversations with participants and trainers, etc. to come up with ideas.**

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Objectives Session 2.

3. Define: sex, gender, feminization of poverty, gender roles and relations, gender analysis, institutionalization of gender, engendering the project cycle

4. Identify initial gender-related problems in agricultural and natural resource research management

5. List specific benefits of adopting a gender perspective in research management and distinguish between a gender perspective and a woman's perspective

Sex and Gender

SEX	*GENDER*
Biological	Social result of "process of socialization"
Male or female	Boy or girl; man or woman
Universal	Not universal
Does not change over time	Changes over time
Does not differ across cultures	Differs between and within cultures

Sex Roles and Gender Roles

SEX ROLES	*GENDER ROLES*
Biological basis for role or activity	**Social basis for role or activity**

Gender Roles

Negative or positive

Changes over time

{ Respect — Authority — Power }

Myths or Truths?

- gender is too controversial and confrontational
- gender is less controversial and confrontational than women
- gender is the same as women
- gender is the same as sex
- gender and women are pushed by feminists in the North on the South
- gender is token, add-it-on and you get funding
- don't worry, gender is a fad and fads always end
- gender training leads to gender awareness

Gender Relations

- Gender relations recognize that men and women have biological differences and society treats men and women differently.

- More often than not, women are discriminated against in favor of men.

Feminization of Poverty

Access to ....

Power-sharing
Decisionmaking
Recognition
Support at all levels

Legal
Economic
Structures and status

Health
Education
Other services

Gender Issues

Conditions ——— **Position**

Basic needs ——— **Strategic needs**

How can agricultural and natural resource research take gender into consideration?

What Should Research Be?

effective — **Responds to national development policy and objectives, users' needs, potential for adoption**

- national development and research plans
- user perspective

efficient — **Realistic objectives in terms of resources**

- avoid waste of human resouces
- value women's work

Gender Analysis

- Analyzing issues which involve gender roles and relations

- Gender becomes an analytical variable in research and policy formulation

Tools

- Gender tools are used in gender analysis
- Tools used to "engender" research program formulation and the project management cycle.

Key Areas of Attention

- ❒ Institutionalizing gender awareness in research management
- ❒ Gender policy for agricultural research management
- ❒ Gender analysis in agricultural research management

Objectives of Day Two

1. Identify policy approaches for incorporating gender into research and development

2. Understand the significance of policy for achieving gender awareness in research management and acting on this awareness

3. Recognize benefits of policy which takes gender issues into account

4. Define the term "institutionalization of gender concerns"

5. Identify approaches to institutionalizing gender concerns and addressing gender-related problems

6. List specific benefits of institutionalizing gender concerns in research management

Schedule of Day Two

08:30 – 09:00	Opening of the Day's Activities
09:00 – 10:30	Session 3. Approaches to Gender Policy
	Tea/Coffee Break
10:45 – 13:00	Session 3. (Continued)
	Lunch
14:00 – 15:30	Session 4. Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations (Part I)
	Tea/Coffee Break
15:45 – 16:30	Session 4.(Continued)
16:30 – 17:00	Feedback on the Day's Activities and PAPA

Objectives
Session 3. Approaches to Gender Policy

1. Identify different policy approaches for incorporating gender into research and development-related activities

2. Understand the significance of policy for achieving gender awareness in research management and acting on this awareness

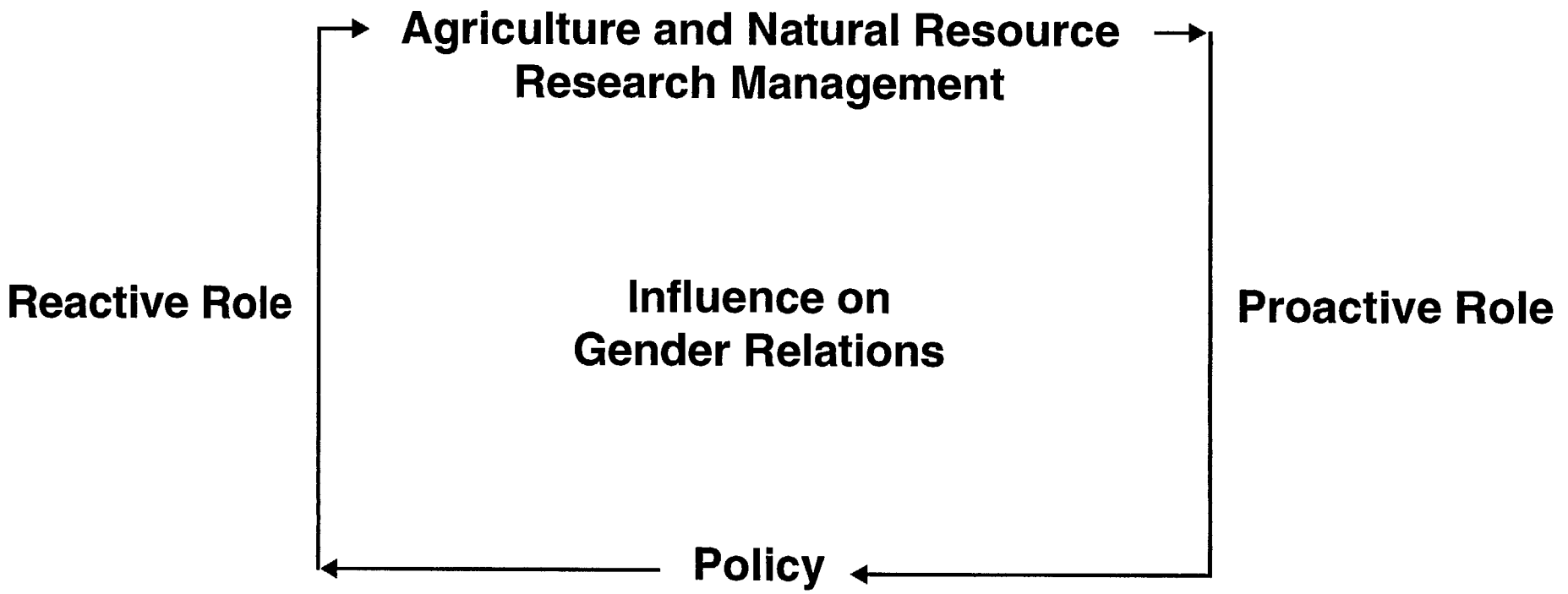
3. Recognize the benefits of policy which takes gender issues into account

Policy

- a definite course or method of action, selected among alternatives and in light of given conditions, to guide and determine present and future decisions

- a high-level, overall plan embracing goals and procedures for a governmental body

Reactive/Proactive Role



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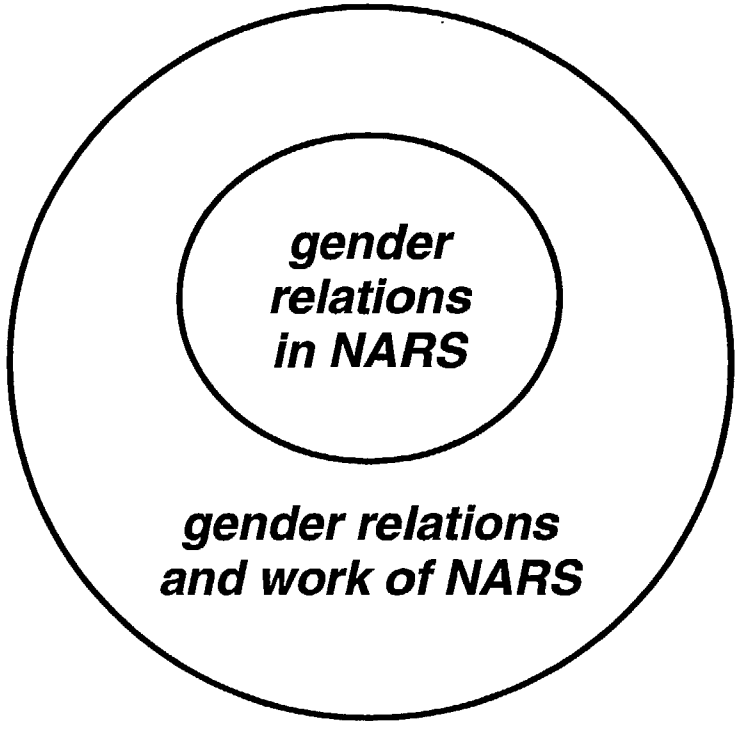
Two Types of Policy

related to gender issues in research management

— NARS recognize, generate, and implement gender policy within their programs and project work

— NARS recognize and implement gender policy in their institutional structure and organization



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Welfare Approach

Policy Approach	Objectives	Applications	Assumptions
1950–70 but still used	bring women into the development process mainly as better mothers and homemakers	social welfare projects focus on food aid, nutrition as improved cooking skills and family planning projects	1) women perceived as *cause* of under-development 2) only a passive role for women in agriculture and natural resource research and development 3) no link between women or gender and strategic nutrition and health issues

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Equity Approach

Policy Approach	Objectives	Applications	Assumptions
1975–85 strongest during first women's conference	gain equity for women in the development process promote women as active participants in development address women's subordination within the development process	originally promoted by the beginning of UN Women's Decade and the Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies	1) recognition of women's triple role: in household, economy and community 2) recognition that women have basic but also strategic needs 3) agricultural and natural resource research begins to recognize women's triple role and multiple needs in development 4) women perceived as *victims* of development

Anti-Poverty Approach

Policy Approach	Objectives	Applications	Assumptions
1970s onwards	increase productivity of poor women alleviate women's poverty by increasing their productivity	WID projects change focus to small-scale women's income-generating projects; handicraft projects become typical "women's projects"	1) women's economic marginalization or *vulnerability* perceived to be most important 2) agricultural research and development begin to concentrate on income-generating activities for women but does not address their strategic needs

Efficiency Approach

Policy Approach	Objectives	Applications	Assumptions
1980s onwards	alleviate women's poverty by increasing their efficiency in research and development increase women's participation in research and development	WID projects focus on sectoral-based projects e.g. "women and forestry," etc. projects still heavily focus on meeting women's basic needs some projects begin to adopt the "gender perspective" rather than only talking about "women"	1) women recognized as productive in agriculture and natural resource management 2) women perceived as *solution* to development; their time seen as elastic 3) gender relations as power relations still not addressed 4) *mainstreaming* women's or gender issues into development to use resources more efficiently

Empowerment Approach

Policy Approach	Objectives	Applications	Assumptions
late 1980s onwards	empower women through greater rights to self-determination women's subordination seen as a result of oppression by men but also by a system that oppresses both men and women	gender and development (GAD) focuses on basic and strategic needs and does not separate them	1) recognition that focus on women's roles is important, but their relationship to the overall political and economic system is critical 2) focus on women as agents of development; importance of women's collective agency 3) need for re-thinking research and development

Objectives of Session 4.

Part I

4. Define institutionalization of gender awareness

5. Identify approaches to institutionalizing gender awareness and addressing gender-related problems

6. List some specific benefits of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management

Definition of Institutionalization

An acceptable structure and organization:

- with patterns and guidelines of action
- with predictable interactions
- in order to achieve a determined goal

Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research

1. Awareness of the importance of gender issues in agricultural and natural resource technology development and transfer

2. Commitment to addressing gender issues in the research organization's activities

3. Capacity for formulation of gender-focused research programs

4. Capacity for carrying out gender and social analysis

5. Capacity for applying the findings of gender and social analysis to the research portfolio

6. Capacity for systematic monitoring and evaluation of gender-specific program impact

7. Promotion and encouragement of systematic reporting of gender-relevant lessons learned and subsequent program adaptation

Element	Operational Mechanism	Check	Comments
Awareness	Gender policy - Written policy/mission order? - Staff awareness of policy? - Staff gender sensitization training?		
Commitment	Implementation of policy? Gender action plan - Plan developed, dates updates? - Integrated in mission strategy? - Compliance tracked/consequences Administrative structure(s) - Structure in place? - Responsibility defined? - Organizational placement?		
Formulation of relevant programs	Knowledge, training - Social scientists in the research team? - Are they trained in gender analysis, etc.? - Other research staff have basic training in gender analysis, etc.? Examples Resource/guidance - Sex-disaggregated data systematically gathered? - Written information and guidance on policy-relevant gender questions available?		
Gender analysis	Capacity for translating sex-disaggregated data into gender analysis? by social scientists? - Technical assistance available? - Resources for gender analysis? - Knowledge about gender analysis? - How has this help been used in the past?		
Application of fundings	Gender-integrating PM&E systems impact studies? Reporting of gender-relevant data and issues		
Reporting of lessons learned	Systematic analysis of lessons learned? (i.e. what difference did it make?) Feedback into programming cycle? Mission/Bureau-specific mechanisms (describe)		

Principles of Operational Structures and Interventions

Gender policy, statement, plan of action or guidelines for the institution

- gender issues are a concern within the organization
- important foundation provides legitimacy and support to research actions and activities
- potential for motivating staff and achieving the organization's objectives

Principles of Organizational Structures and Approaches

Leadership and management in NARS determine how policies and procedures are followed or implemented.

The commitment of leaders affects:

- issues addressed by the system
- research issues dealt with at local level

Wanted!

mechanism for *advising* and *reporting* on

progress towards implementing gender awareness

Advising and Reporting Mechanisms for Gender-Related Research and Management

- Focal point or unit to act as advisory service or lead group
- Mainstreaming gender within the structure so that everyone is involved to some extent
- Adhoc task force set up for evaluation

Comparison of Approaches for Institutionalizing Gender Awareness

Genderfocal Point	Mainstreaming	Adhoc Task Force
individual or small groups	"building in" gender advisory and evaluation services within all departments	temporary advisory and evaluation service
mandated to provide input on gender-related programs or projects	everyone does gender-related work	can involve outside consultants/counsellors or committee of in-house staff members
appraises and advises on gender issues in the institution	everyone is enabled to address gender issues in the workplace	set up as needed within the institution
operates on an on-going basis	operates on an on-going basis	may or may not be a "go-between"
serves as a management "go-between"	no need for go-between	

Objectives of Day Three

1. Further understand the significance of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management

2. Describe and define gender issues in human resource management

3. Describe the research program formulation process and project management cycle.

4. Identify how gender analysis can engender the research program process and the project management cycle

5. Discuss tools used in gender analysis

Schedule of Day Three

08:30 – 09:00	Opening of the Day's Activities
09:00 – 10:30	Session 5. Institutionalizing Gender Awareness in Agricultural and Natural Resource Research Organizations (Part II):
	Tea/Coffee Break
10:45 – 13:00	Session 6. Gender Analysis and Engendering the Research Program Formulation Process and Project Management Cycle
	Lunch
14:00 – 15:30	Session 6. (Continued)
	Tea/Coffee Break
15:45 – 16:30	Session 6. (Continued)
16:30 – 17:00	Feedback on the Day's Activities and PAPA

Objectives of Session 5

1. Further understand the significance of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management

2. Describe and define issues in human resource management

3. List some specific benefits of institutionalizing gender awareness in research management

Key Components of Institutionalizing Gender Awareness

A. Operational structures and interventions
- gender policy, statement, plan of action or guidelines for the institution

B. Organizational structures and approaches
- advisory and evaluation services for staff

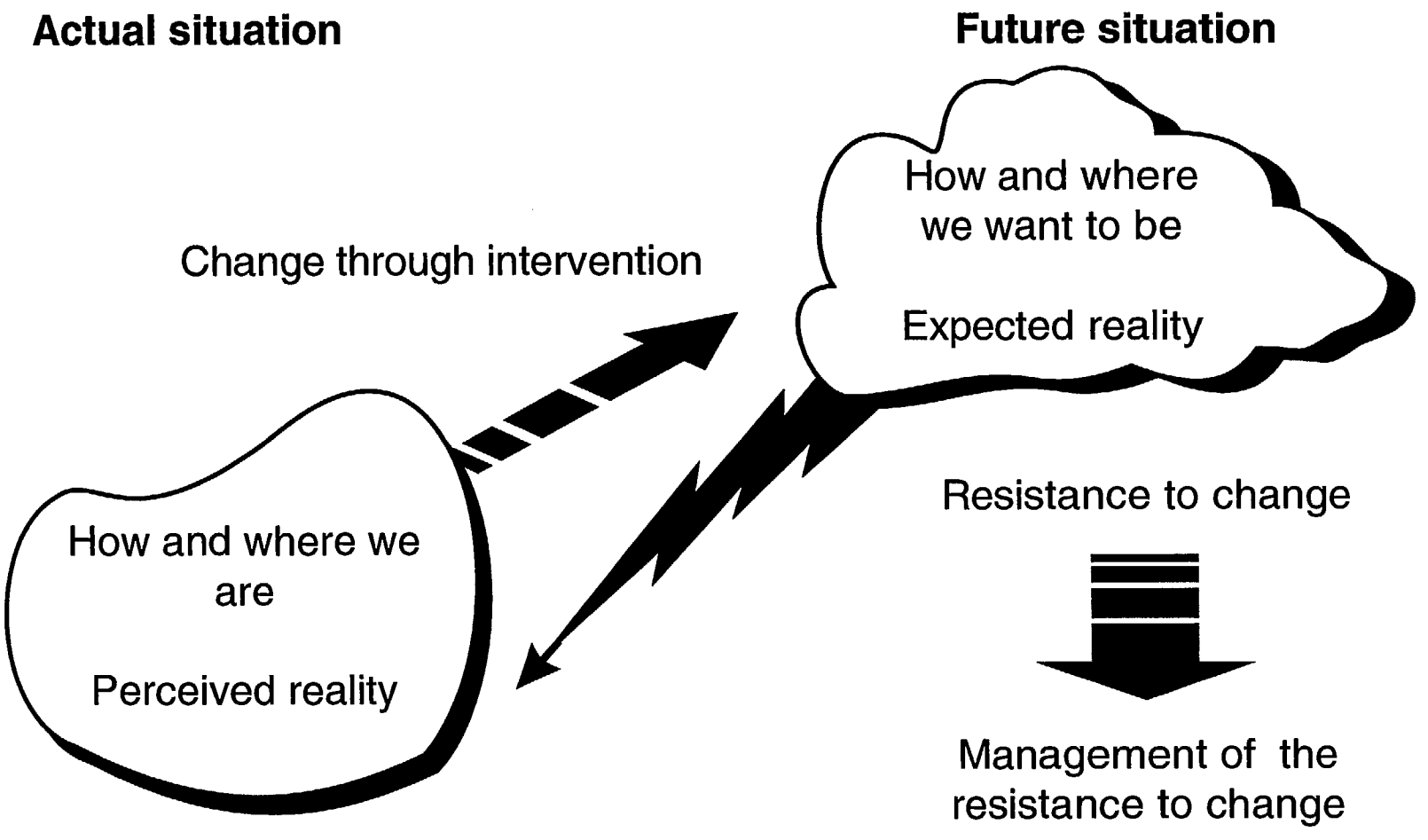
C. Human resource management
- staffing
- training, recognition, and promotion
- strategies for change

To Begin With

Most organizations are not gender-neutral

They may, however, be gender-blind

The Change Process



Source: IJPA 16:93

Public Service Institutions

- Often fail to include women equitably among the public they are supposed to serve.

- Public administration produces gendered outcomes because of the way it structures power and opportunity within administration.

Share of Women in the Total Number of Agricultural Researchers, 1991

Country	Government	Semi-public	Academic	Total
Burkina Faso	12.8	--	2.9	12.2
Cote d'Ivoire	8.1	--	9.0	8.3
Ghana	8.6	--	4.0	8.0
Kenya	19.2	13.4	9.4	18.5
Madagascar	32.1	--	20.6	31.4
Malawi	7.5	0.0	0.0	5.8
Niger	5.1	--	13.8	7.0
Nigeria	12.8	--	5.3	11.6
Rwanda	7.7	--	5.9	7.6
Senegal	11.3	--	0.0	11.1
South Africa	26.4	8.7	6.8	23.9
Sudan	17.9	--	6.1	16.8
Swaziland	16.7	--	33.3	21.6
Tanzania	25.6	--	10.5	23.8
Togo	7.4	--	0.0	7.3
Zambia	9.5	--	8.3	9.4
Zimbabwe	20.4	18.5	18.3	19.8
Total	18.3	11.1	8.0	17.0

Source: Questionnaire Responses and Commonwealth University Yearbook (1992)

Human Resource Management

Staffing, Training, Recognition, and Promotion

1. equity
2. efficiency
3. effectiveness

Equity

Meaning

all people, men and women, have equal rights to employment

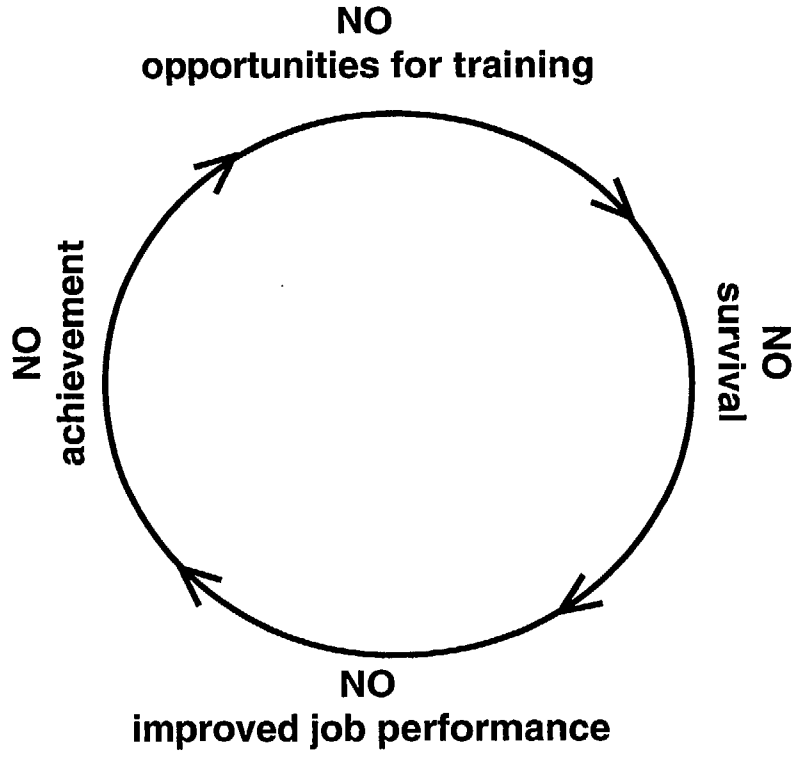
Problems

- varied experience of equitable employment
- 1990 study by ISNAR: women researchers in NARS range from less than 1% to more than 50%!
- factors for this are largely cultural but also political

Strategies for Equitable Staffing

- must ensure access
- staffing decision taken in favor of women applicants, when a woman is as qualified as a man
- must ensure survival and achievement

vicious circle of inequitable gender staffing



Participation by Professional Women in NARS

COMPONENTS (of female participation in ag. research)	FACTORS (relative to human resource environment)	
	Endogenous	Exogenous
Access	- Managers/professionals as role models (networks, mentors) - Facilities (e.g. housing) - Recruitment standards - Recruitment procedures (for informing and attracting applicants) - Linkages to universities and other labor pools - Expectations, attitudes of managers	- Availability (shortage) of females in professional labor market - Specialization of females who enter the professional labor market - Societal perceptions of careers and roles - Female perceptions of opportunities in agricultural research - Job search restrictions (location preferences and mobility limitations)
Attrition	- Managers/professionals as role models (networks, mentors) - Facilities (e.g. housing) - Benefits (e.g. maternity leave, pre-/post-natal care)	- Pregnancy/child-rearing - Gender-linked roles (family responsibilities) - Mobility limitations
Achievement	- Sex-biased career practices (screening and selection for training, advancement) - Managers/professionals as role models (networks, mentors) - Expectations, attitudes of managers	- Average age/experience - Mobility limitations - Gender-linked roles (expectations, application for advancement) - Societal perceptions of leadership qualifications

Gender Analysis for Management of Research in Agriculture and Natural Resources - 3.5.12

Efficiency

Meaning

- reduce the waste of human and financial resources
- issues of staffing, recognition, and promotion linked with the desire to make the best use of available human resources

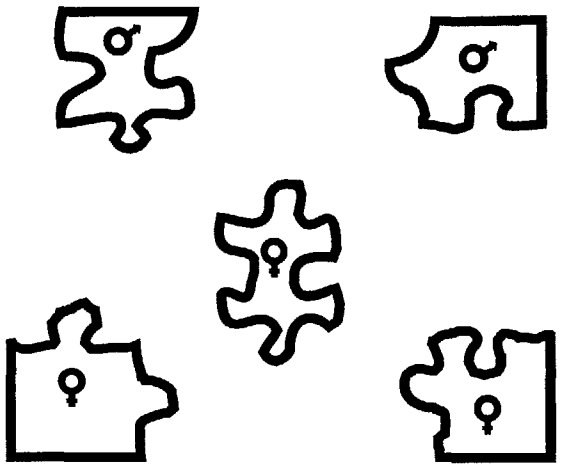
Problems

- inefficiency can lead to failure in reaching objectives or mandates
- many research managers undervalue or do not account for human resources

Strategies for efficient human resource management

- account for all staff contributions
- management decisions taken in relation to efficient use of all human resources

Effectiveness

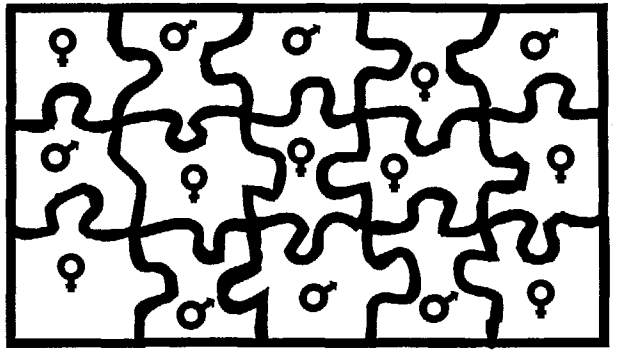


Meaning

- identifies that women and men bring similar but also different skills, abilities, and needs
- includes leadership, problem-solving, decisionmaking and team-building skills

Problems

- ineffective diversity management reduces strength and capacity of the institution



Strategies for effective human resource management

- diversity management
- organized and balanced diversity can lead to a strong institution
- organizations that work against diversity in human resource management cannot be sustained

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Research Leaders Have Many Choices to Make

- meet gender issues head-on
- circle around them to find a good entry point
- circle around them so many times that they become confused, or they simply ignore them

Those who ignore a management decision will inevitably find themselves outside management

Management of Change

How to manage changes in NARS to benefit those who work in and outside the system?

Two principles

- leadership of NARS must be engaged in the *creation* and *pace* of change
- managers and professional staff must have a voice in the direction of change

Vision and Voice

Vision. **Capacity to imagine new conditions that a system is capable of achieving. Central to all forms and levels of leadership.**

- Vision of leadership is needed to identify, create, and understand change
- If change is recognized then the best management choices can be made

Voice. **Concept in communication studies: speaking out against discrimination.**

- Important for women to use their voice but may be even more important for male research leaders to find their voice

Strategic Considerations

Considerations	NARS with few professional women	NARS with many professional women
Objectives	- Increase numbers of professional women - Efficient utilization of resources in labor market	- Increase survival and acheivement of professional women - Efficient utilization of resources in NARS
Actors	- Leaders - Advisory council - Standing committee - Policymakers - WID groups - Outside consultants (ISNAR, NGOs, etc.)	- Leaders - Advisory council - Standing committee - Focus group - Outside consultants (ISNAR, NGOs, etc.)
Focus	Exogenous and endogenous factors affecting access: - Data collection - Availability analysis - Needs assessment - Information sharing - Policy development - Recruitment strategy - Management training	Primarily endogenous factors affecting survival and achievement: - Data collection - Utilization analysis - Needs assessment - Information sharing - Procedure and program development - Orientation, mentoring, career counseling, benefits policies, etc. - Management training

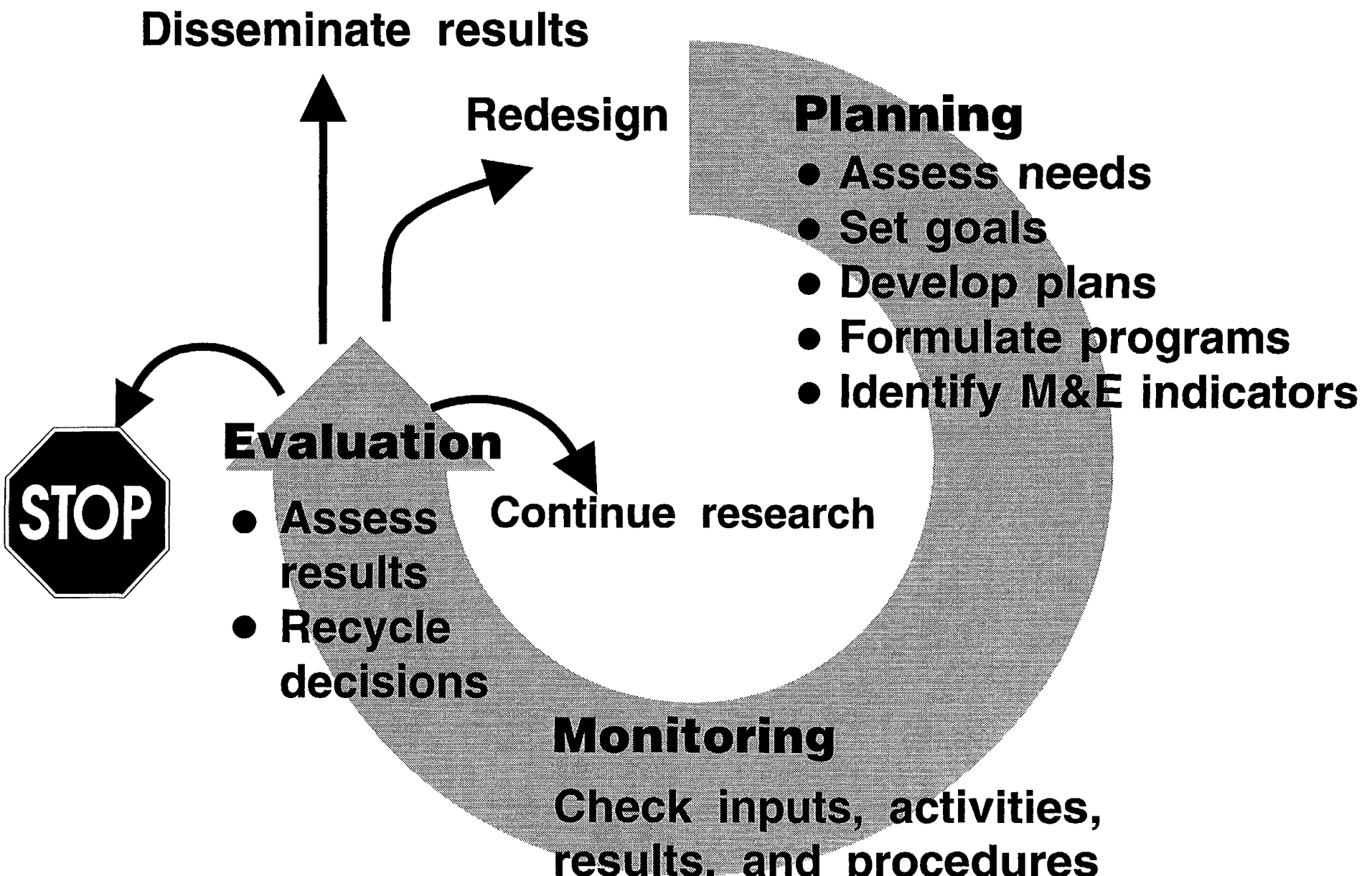
Objectives of Session 6

4. Describe the research program formulation process and project management cycle.

5. Identify how gender analysis can engender the research program process and project management cycle

6. Discuss tools used in gender analysis

The Management Cycle



Planning

A process for:

- Assessing needs
- Setting goals
- Setting priorities
- Developing plans
- Identifying M&E indicators
- Determining resources
- Building consensus

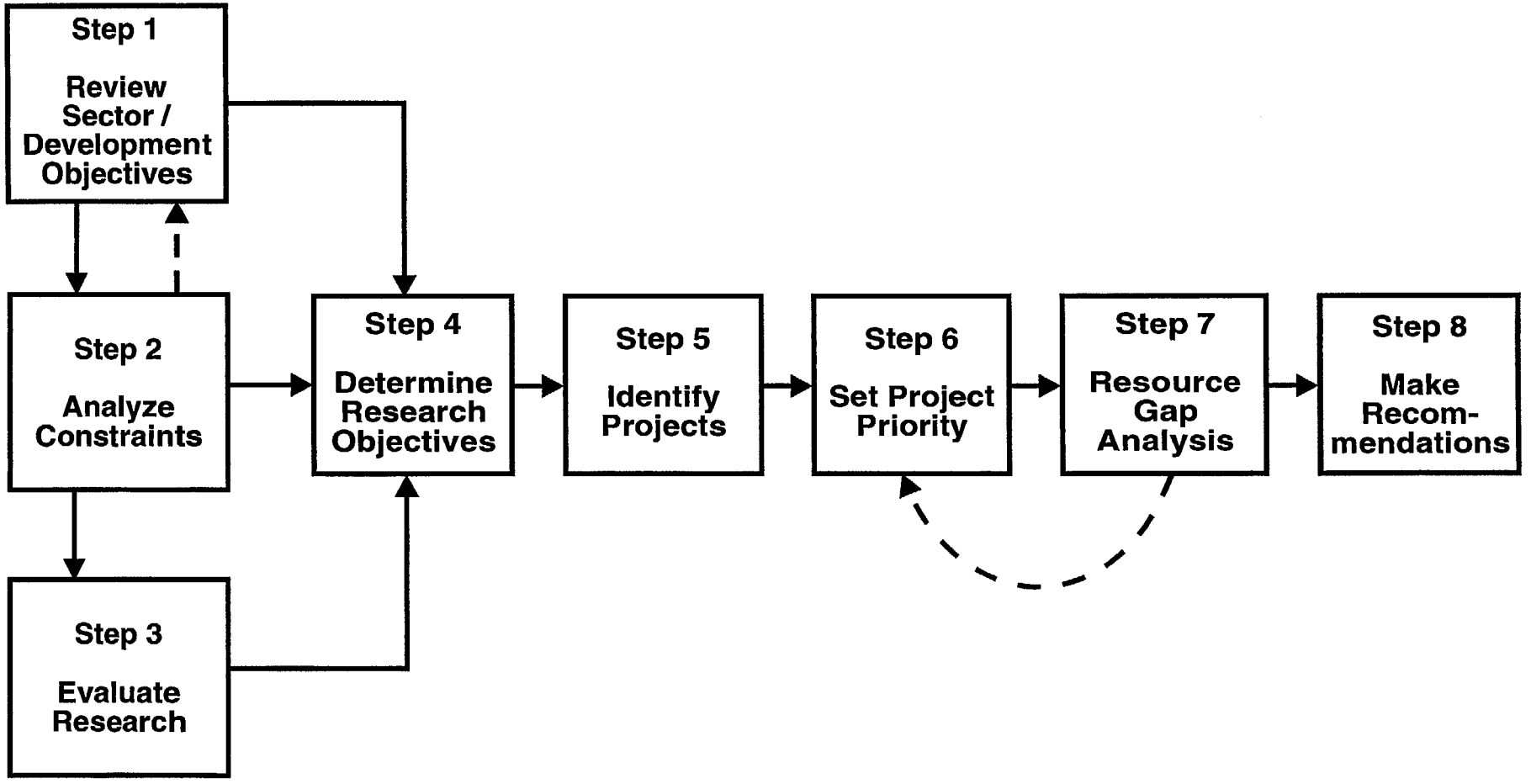
Define the Unit of Planning

- Program, project, or study?
- Characterize changes that research results will bring to farming systems
  - changes to entire production system (e.g. irrigation schemes)
  - step-by-step iterative changes based on target area or community

Research Programs

- Responsive to NARS goals
- Long-term objectives
- Composed projects
- Provide leadership
- Approve research proposals
- Participant in evaluation
- Are periodically evaluated

Program Planning Steps



Program Planning Analysis

Subsector review

1. Policy analysis — gender sensitivity

2. Resource analysis

3. Resource management practices — gender-based roles

Analysis of Constraints

Gender-based constraints in:

- production input/resources
- production technology use
- post-harvest technology and processing and marketing and utilization

Review of Research

Gender-based constraints in:

- Review impact analysis reports to assess sex-disaggregated impact of previous technologies
- Review the disaggregated benefits of previous technological intervention
- Assess the NARO's capacity for doing gender-focused research

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Determining Research Objectives

Based on:

- identified constraints in inputs
- identified constraints in technology
- identified constraints in post-harvest and processing technologies
- marketing and utilization constraints

Identifying Research Projects

Based on gender-conscious program objectives and goals

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Setting Project Priorities

Based on sector/subsector policy approach and gender dimension

1. Equity
2. Efficiency
3. Empowerment

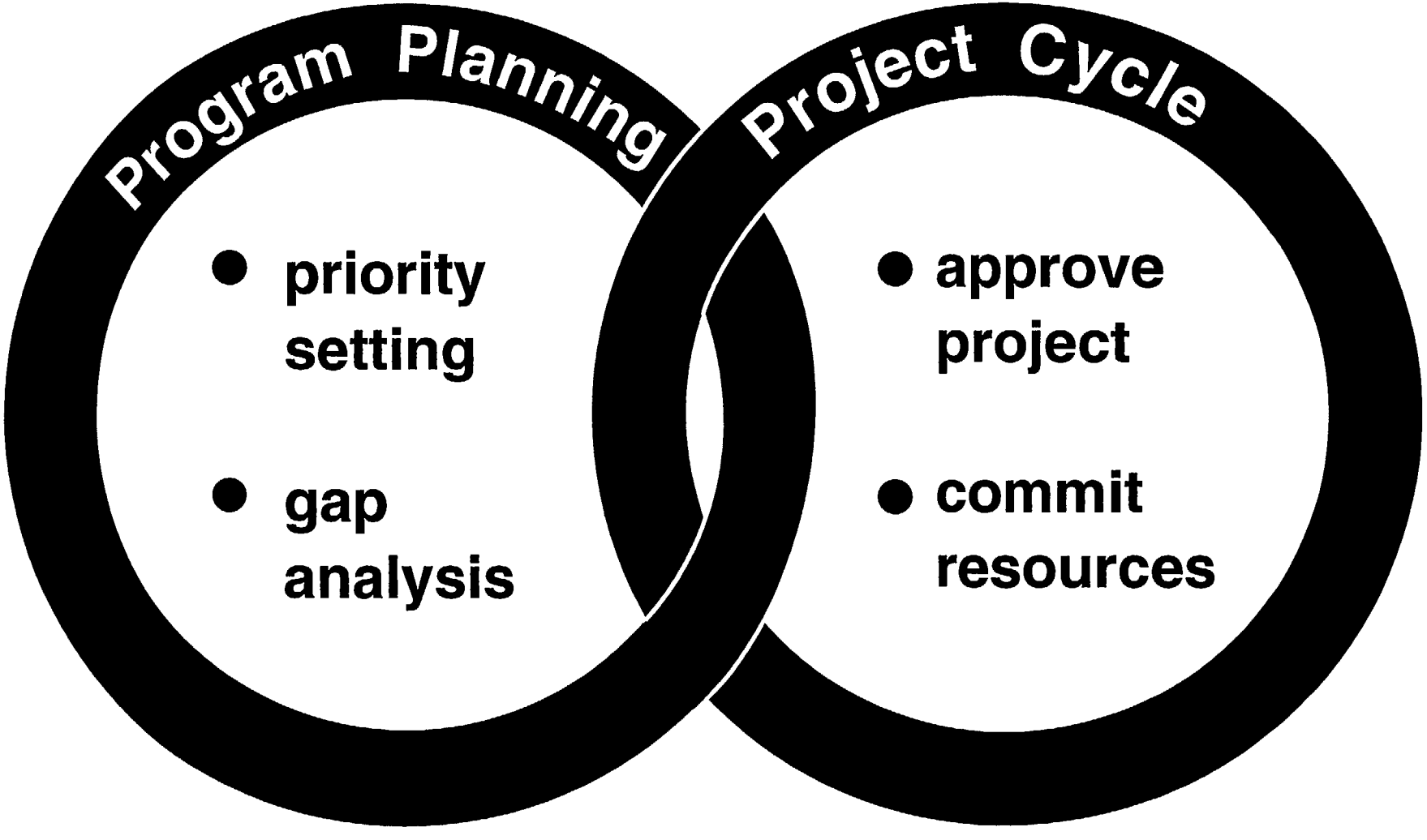
Resources Gap Analysis

- **Human resources**

  Disciplinary mix of research team

- **Finance**

  For implementation of activities


Program Planning
Project Cycle
priority setting
gap analysis
approve project
commit resources

Project Management

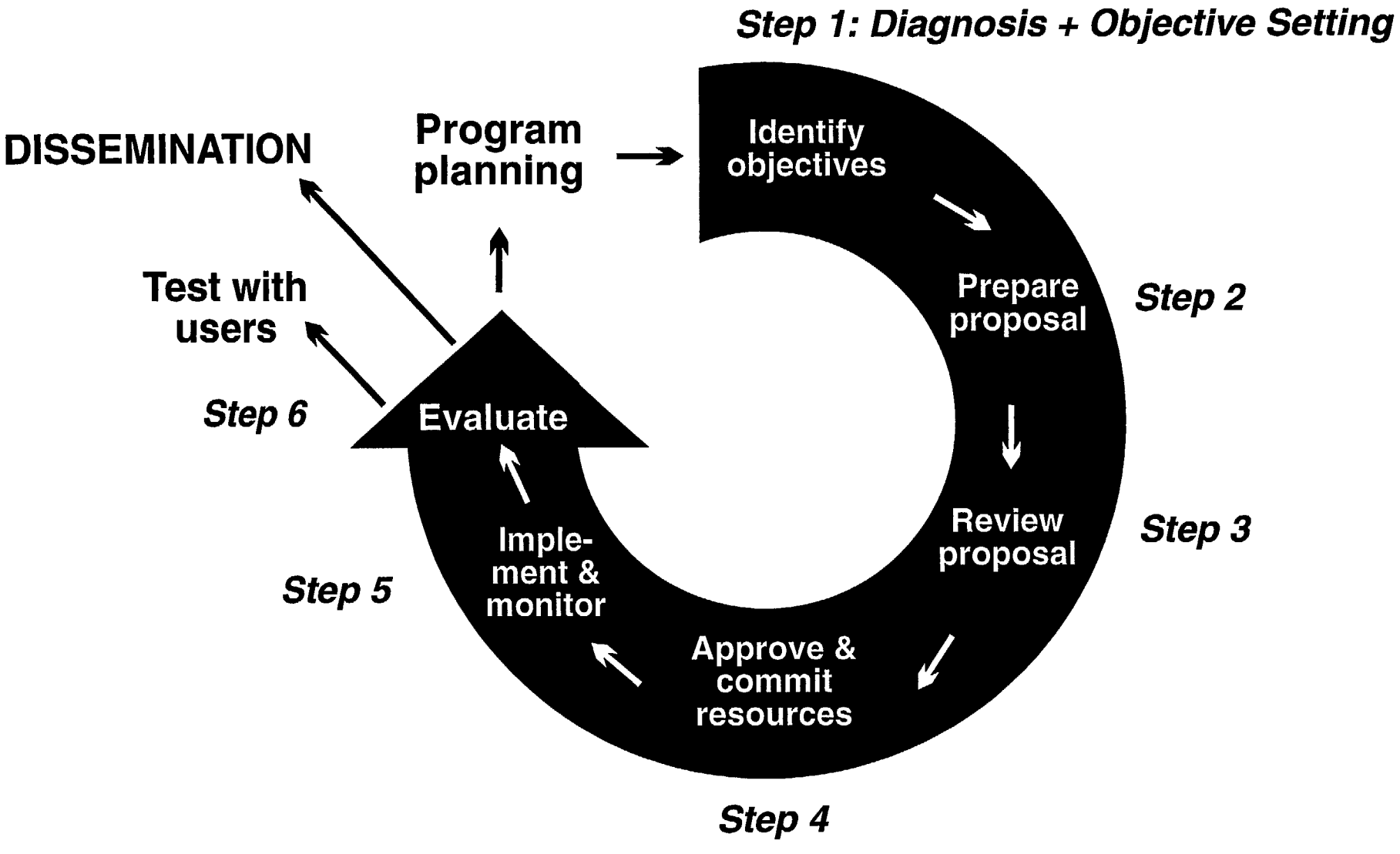
A framework for:

- Translating research objectives into projects
- Monitoring progress during implementation
- Evaluating outputs after completion
- Communicating results to appropriate users

Project Cycle — Six Steps

1. Identify research project areas and objectives
2. Prepare proposal
3. Review proposal
4. Approve project and commit resources
5. Implement and monitor on-going project
6. Evaluate completed project

Project Cycle



Engendered Project Cycle

Step 1: Diagnosis + Objective Setting

- gather sex-disaggregated data
- analyze gender constraints of objectives and strategies
- analyze priorities from gender perspective
- analyze activities, resources, benefits/incentives

Step 2: Prepare Proposal

- use engendered logical framework matrix to develop the proposal
- include both male and female participants in proposal, design, development, and review
- select and promote female researchers and research assistants

Step 3: Review Proposal

- involve gender specialists in the review of the proposal

Step 4: Approve and Commit Resources

- involve both male and female participants in research implementation

Step 5: Implement and Monitor

- test and verify research results using gender-analysis tools

Step 6: Evaluate

- use sex-disaggregated indicators and benchmarks for assessing impact and evaluating project

Following the Project Management Cycle:

- disseminate gender research results to policymakers, media
- disseminate research results to male and female participants
- include male and female researchers in follow-up seminars, etc.
- test final results with male and female participants
- evaluate adoption among both males and females

Project Planning Analysis

1. Activity analysis

Identify sex and gender roles with the production system

For example:
- **goat production**
- **vegetable production**
- **maize production**

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Project Planning Analysis (Continued)

2. Resource analysis

Identify resources for production and their quality

- who has access to them

- who controls their use

For example:
- **land**
- **capital**
- **inputs for production**

Analysis identifies actual and potential constraints in resources for production

Project Planning Analysis (Continued)

3. Benefit and incentives analysis

who has access and control on outputs of the production system

For example: - goat production

Project Management

Planning

- Strategic and practical gender needs and constraints translated into project objectives

- Identify gender-based target groups

- Identify gender-based project activities

Project Management (Continued)

- Identify gender-based research benefits and impact

- Identify sex-disaggregated indicators of success and gender-sensitive MOVs

- Develop a gender-sensitive logframe

Logical Framework Matrix

	Narrative Summary	Objectively Verifiable Indicators (OVI)	Means of Verification (MOV)	Important Assumptions
Goal				
Purpose				
Outputs				
Activities				

Logical Framework Matrix (Continued)

Narrative Summary	Objectively Verifable Indicators	Means of Verification	Important Assumptions
Goal: the higher order objective to which the project contributes (often a program objective)	Measures to verify accomplishment of Goal	Sources of data needed to verify status of Goal-level indicators	Important external factors necessary for sustaining objectives in the long-run
Purpose: the effect or impact of the project	Measures to verify accomplishment of Purpose	Sources of data needed to verify status of Purpose-level indicators	Important external factors needed to attain the Goal
Outputs: the deliverables of the project	Measures to verify accomplishment of Outputs	Sources of data needed to verify status of Output-level indicators	Important external factors needed to attain the Purpose
Activities: the main activities that must be undertaken to accomplish outputs	Inputs: A summary of the project budget and resources	Sources of data needed to verify status of Activities	Important external factors that must pervail to accomplish the Outputs

Engendered Logical Framework Matrix

Narrative Summary	Objectively Verifable Indicators	Means of Verification	Important Assumptions
Goal: influences gender relations in some way	Measures to verify accomplishment of gender-conscious goals	Sex-disaggregated data for verifying status of goal-level indicators	External factors for sustaining gender-consious long-term objectives
Purpose: conscious objectivities	Means to verify accomplishment of gender-conscious objectives?	Sex-disaggregated data for verifying status of purpose-level indicators	Important external factors needed to attain the gender-conscious goal
Outputs: gender-conscious distribution of benefits	Means to verify benefits to both sexes	Sex-disaggregated data for verifying status of output-level indicated	Important external factors needed to attain the purpose

Implementation

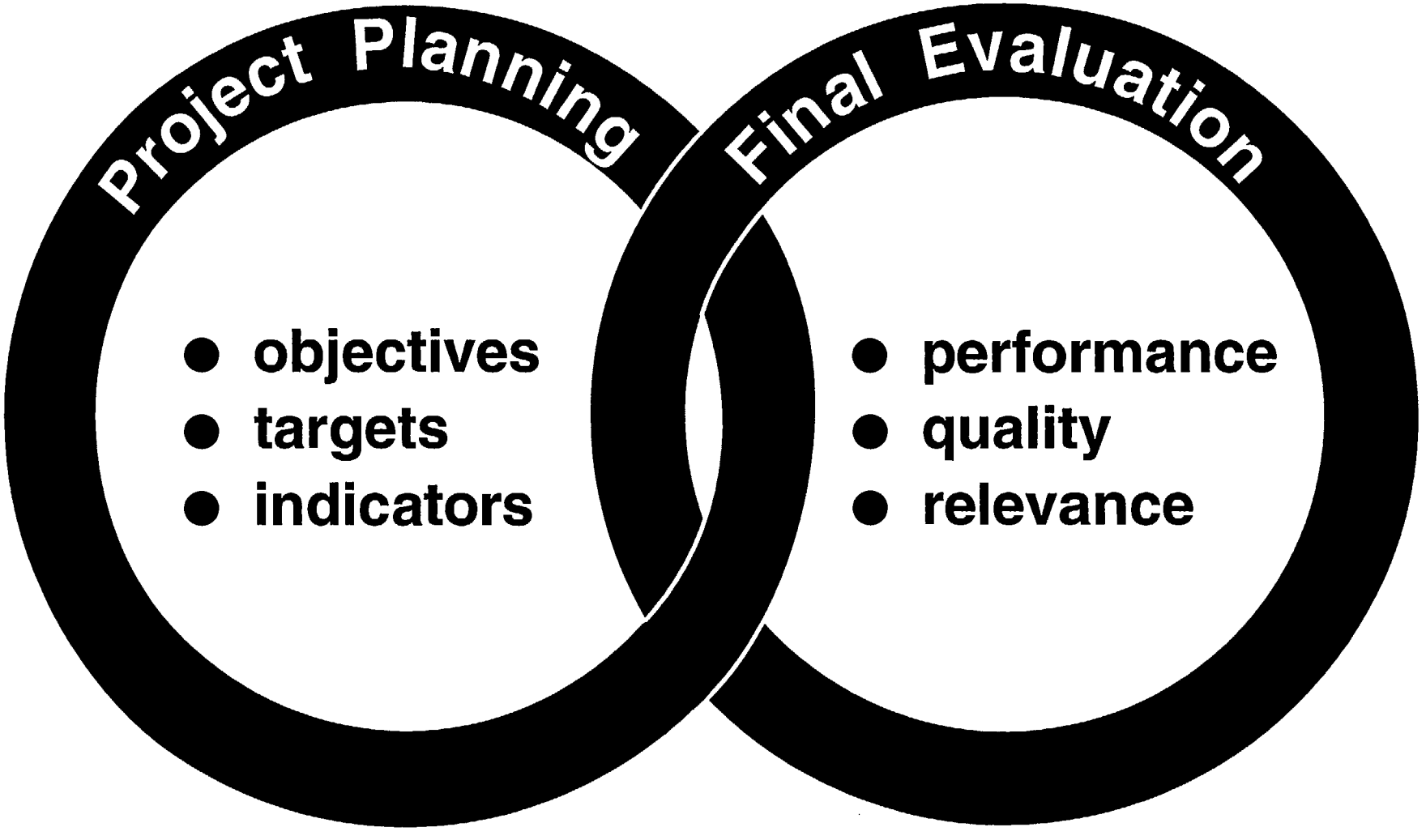
- Identify gender-based roles in implementation
- If on-farm research, sex-disaggregated activities
- Operationalize the logframe

Major Uses of M&E

- **Accountability**
  - Reporting
  - Assessing impact
- **Decisionmaking**
  - Improving implementation
  - Periodic review
  - Improving planning
- **Guidance for researchers**

Engendered Monitoring

- Identify sex-disaggregated indicators
- Collect sex-disaggregated data on project activities


Project Planning
Final Evaluation
objectives
targets
indicators
performance
quality
relevance

Evaluation

Judging, appraising, determining the worth, merit value, or quality of research (proposed, on-going or completed)

In terms of:
- **relevance**
- **effectiveness**
- **efficiency**
- **impact**

Impact

- Use sex-disaggregated monitoring data to assess gender-based benefits

- Assess whether the gender-based objectives of the the project were met

Objectives of Day Four

1. Analyze a small-scale livestock project from the gender perspective and use gender tools

2. Incorporate knowledge and tools learned into an operational plan to address gender awareness in research management of agriculture and natural resources in your institution

3. Synthesize knowledge of gender awareness in research management

4. Identify the knowledge gained in the workshop

5. Prepare a list of action items for future activities in gender issues

6. Evaluate the workshop

Schedule of Day Four

08:30 – 09:00	Opening of the Day's Activities
09:00 – 10:30	Session 7. Incorporating Gender Analysis into a Project
	Tea/Coffee Break
10:45 – 12:00	Session 7. (Continued)
12:00 – 13:00	Session 8. Operational Plan for Institutionalizing Gender Analysis in Research Management
	Lunch
14:00 – 15:30	Session 8. (Continued)
	Tea/Coffee Break
15:45 – 16:00	Exercise. Test your Knowledge Again
16:00 – 17:00	Session 9. PAPA and Workshop Evaluation
17:00 - 17:15	Final Remarks and Closing

Objective of Session 7

1. Analyze a small-scale livestock project from the gender perspective and use gerder tools

Training-Oriented Case Study

Incorporating gender analysis into a livestock improvement project involving research, extension, and farmers

Small-Scale Livestock Improvement Project

Project designed to promote small-holder dairy farming among the rural population of the Kagera, Region, Tanzania

Objectives of the Project

- increase milk consumption from 70 g/capita/day to 200 g/capita/day within 20 year; meat consumption is also expected to increase

- increase food and cash crop production through the availability and use of manure

- achieve those goals with an equitable distribution of benefits among all income groups and among women and men

National Development Policy Goals

- improvement of nutritional standards and rural incomes
- achieve equity among men and women

Initial Project Design

- produce and distribute improved heifer breeds on ability to pay basis

- extension unit to select members and provide technological support

Results:

- high mortality rate (80%)

- exclusion of resource-poor farmers

Modifications

- introduction of enhanced techniques and methods of zero-grazing
- establishment of a farmer training center
- improvement of farmers' own stocks
- establishment of *heifer-in-trust* credit scheme

Results

- reduction of mortality rate and increased production beyond targets
- growth in project participation
- wider distribution of project benefits
- participation of women only 4% of total membership

Gender Diagnosis and Analysis

Gender roles:

Women contribute 64% of total labor requirements:

- 55% of productive activities; (11% of livestock rearing)
- 84% of reproductive activities; and
- 60% of community activities

Effect of Zero grazing:

- Women's working day extends from 10 to 11 hours
- Men's increased work largely absorbed by hired labor

Resource-Constraint Diagnosis

Land:

- 61% of all women have insecure land tenure
- buying land is costly

Cattle:

- women own 9% of local cattle and 16% of dairy cattle
- 4% of households have women owning cattle
- price of cattle is high, but the project has a *heifer-in-trust* credit scheme

Inputs and Technical Assistance

- more than 40% of recurrent costs are on inputs
- the project provides inputs at subsidized prices

Training:

- women comprise 10% of trainees of the FTC
- reproductive responsibilities interfere with women's training

Distribution of Benefits

Both men and women report that they benefit from the project:

- **women stress nutritional benefits**
- **men stress income benefits**

Objectives of Session 8

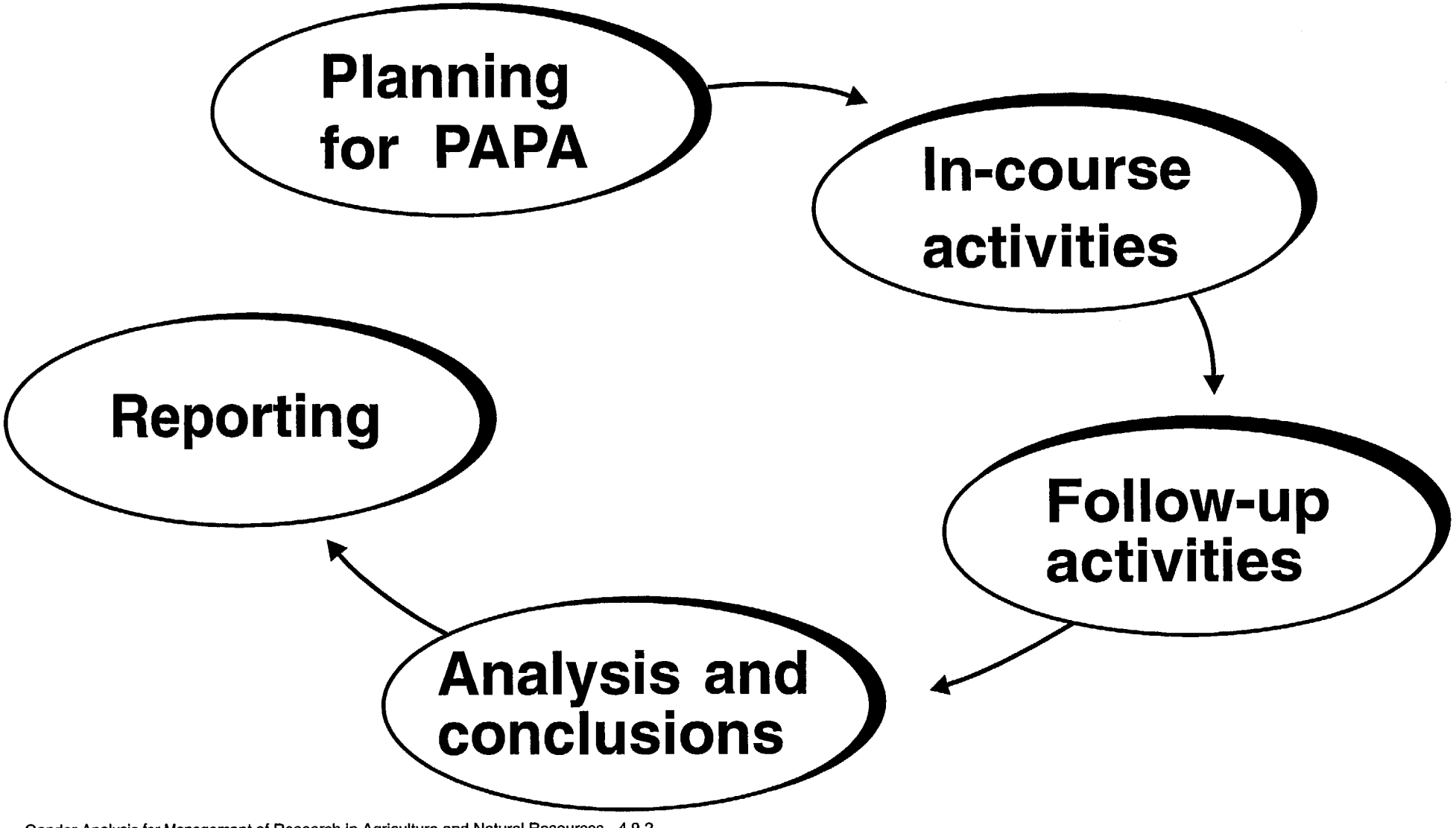
2. Incorporate knowledge and tools learned into an operational plan to address gender awareness and analysis in research management in agriculture and natural resources in your institution
3. Synthesize knowledge of gender in research management
4. Identify the knowledge gained in the workshop

Objectives of Session 9

5. Prepare a list of action items for future activities in gender issues

6. Evaluate the workshop

Steps in PAPA



Step 2: In-course Activities

Stage 2

Objectives:

- develop action plan

Procedure:

- prepare preliminary list of action items
- confer with partner
- finalize and prioritize list of action items
- report individual action plans
- make copy and submit to trainer