TECHNICAL REPORT

Gender Analysis

Fiscal 2004–2010 Strategic Plan

NATHAN
ASSOCIATES INC.
www.nathaninc.com

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Acronyms

ACP	African, Caribbean and Pacific Countries
APRODEV	African Forum and Network on Debt and Development
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
EPA	Economic Partnership Agreement
EU	European Union
GENTA	Gender and Trade in Africa
ICRW	International Center for Research on Women
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IGTN	International Gender and Trade Network
NEPAD	New Partnership for African Development
NGO	Nongovernmental Organization
RCSA	Regional Center for Southern Africa
SADC	South African Development Community
SADCC	Southern African Development Coordination Conference
SARDC	Southern African Research and Documentation Centre
TRIPS	Trade Related Intellectual Property Rights
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
WEDO	Women's Environment and Development Agency
WIDTECH	Women in Development Technical Assistance Project
WILDAF	Women in Law and Development in Africa
WIPP	Women in Politics Project
WTO	World Trade Organization

Preface

The purpose of this assessment is to assist USAID/RCSA in mainstreaming *gender* into their strategic planning process. The objective of the Gender Analysis is to assess gender relations and issues in the RCSA's proposed program as part of the process for developing the new strategic plan for FY 2004—2010, and to make recommendations on how the RCSA can achieve greater gender integration in order to maximize the positive impacts of its strategic objectives.

Gender refers to the economic, social, political and cultural attributes of being male or female and is a "cross-cutting" theme for USAID. This cross-cutting theme was reviewed relative to the proposed strategic focus areas and other cross-cutting themes.

A literature review was conducted, resulting in the annotated bibliography, which became the basis for the recommendations. The online research yielded an extensive amount of literature to review for the most relevant set of documents supporting the program areas. While this process provided access to a large body of literature, it also had its constraints. Online literature was available, but not always in the relevant content area or country-specific area. In some cases, contact staff were available online, but were slow to respond, if at all. In other cases, relevant literature was identified, but could not be reviewed without it being purchased and shipped, which sometimes became a problem because of the time involved and the geographical dispersion of the team.

The team consisted of Susan Reynolds, in the US, Bonnie Keller, in Germany, and Tonia Kandiero, in South Africa. Although a good working relationship developed, there were some constraints due to time differences and the ability to share hard-copy documentation in any sort of timely fashion, if at all.

The assessment was conducted from April 28, 2003, to June 22, 2003.

In completing the assessment, the team would like to thank the staff at USAID/RCSA in assisting us where possible and especially the Nathan Associates staff in supporting us in this "virtual" effort.

1. Introduction

In 1995, *gender mainstreaming* was established as the internationally agreed upon strategy for government and development organizations to promote gender equality. Achieving gender equality is essential to poverty elimination, which can only be achieved by addressing the disproportionate burden of poverty, lack of access to education and health services, and lack of productive opportunities available to women.

The purpose of this assessment is to assist USAID / RCSA in mainstreaming *gender*[1] into their strategic planning process. The objective of the Gender Analysis is to assess gender relations and issues in the RCSA's proposed program as part of the process for developing the new strategic plan for FYs 2004—2010, and to make recommendations on how the RCSA can achieve greater gender integration in order to maximize the positive impacts of its strategic objectives.

Gender refers to the economic, social, political and cultural attributes of being male or female and is a "cross-cutting" theme for USAID. This cross-cutting theme was reviewed relative to strategic focus areas and cross-cutting themes set out in the RCSA Concept Paper, and other documentation, for the 2004-2010 Strategic Plan.

We conducted an online review of gender-specific, recent and relevant publications in an effort to find illustrative literature, such as case studies and reports, which would cover as many as possible of the fourteen SADC member states. This proved not to be possible, and the documents reviewed deal with a minority of SADC member states. A review of the literature and background materials serve as the basis for the analysis and recommendations in this document.

From the initiation of the contract, some topics were added, others were changed and a limited number of results frameworks were available. In trying to accommodate the changing situation, strategic objectives / topics are referred to in more general terms of strategic focus areas and / or cross-cutting themes. The focus is on the literature review to guide, to the extent possible, the RCSA in its strategic planning process.

Contained in each chapter are the relevant findings, conclusions and recommendations. Suggested indicators are presented, which need to be revised based on final results frameworks for each strategic objective.

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[1] For additional information on mainstreaming and treating 'gender' as a cross-cutting theme, see Yeshiareg and Martin (July 2002, p. 4) and USAID (April 3, 2001, p. 119).

2. Enhanced Southern African Competitiveness in Global Markets and a More Integrated Regional Market

The literature review addresses the topics of "competitiveness" and "integrated regional markets" as interrelated. With the decision of the RCSA to reduce its focus on "a more integrated regional market," these topics are being treated jointly. Information was gathered from the RCSA concept paper and one draft results framework with the strategic objective of "A more competitive southern African economy."

The development challenge is to reduce production and transaction costs, reduce and eliminate trade and investment barriers, promote more openness, and improve the business and investment climate to increase southern Africa's capacity to participate in the global trading system. [2]

An opportunity exists through the establishment of the Southern Africa Global Competitiveness Hub in Gaborone. The RCSA will directly support the TRADE Initiative through the Southern Africa Global Competitiveness Hub by providing technical assistance and training on global competitiveness and trade issues to bilateral missions, national governments, and regional stakeholders.

Potential focus areas are:

- Trade capacity building in Southern Africa for trade policy formulation and implementation;
- Facilitating the development of competition policies, rules and incentives that encourage productivity growth;
- US-African business linkages and support for the African Growth and Opportunity Act enhancing the capacity of Southern African businesses to access US and global markets; and

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[2] See Yeshiareg and Martin (July 2002, pp. xii, 28) for an additional discussion on gender, trade liberalization and cross-border trade.

- Enhancing competitiveness of Southern African products and services through activities that improve quality and reduce transaction costs.

The development challenge is working with member states of the SADC Free Trade Area, which was launched in September 2000. The implementation remains slow primarily due to the lack of effective commitment by some SADC member states to trade liberalization, protectionist pressures from some industry groups, concerns about losing customs revenues as tariffs fall, inadequate understanding of the implications of the provisions of the SADC Trade Protocol, and lack of capacity to implement policy reforms.

Opportunities exist with the possibility of moving up the mid-term review of the SADC Free Trade Area from 2003 to 2004, providing an opportunity to address the more restrictive provisions in the SADC Protocol on Trade. Additionally, COMESA has managed to achieve more progress in its trade reform program than SADC. With closer collaboration between SADC and COMESA on trade policies, there is potential for SADC to benefit and further enhance its trade reforms.

The RCSA will support SADC regional market integration efforts and regional initiatives to decrease the costs of cross-border trade and investment and develop regional capital markets.

Potential focus areas are:

- Trade policy reform;
- Macroeconomic convergence and financial sector reform;
- Decrease costs of cross-border trade and investment; and
- Facilitate establishment of regional production clusters.

Critical Gender-based Constraints and Issues: A Review of the Literature.[3]

In *Trade Liberalization: Impacts on African Women* (GENTA, August 2000), the Gender and Trade in Africa Research Office argued that the Agreement on Agriculture has resulted in higher-cost producing less-developed countries being flooded with cheap imports from lower-cost producing developed countries. African women's small-scale agriculture and craft production is negatively affected because of declining markets for their products. The Trade Related Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) undermines the livelihoods of African women farmers who are traditionally custodians of seeds and medicinal plant knowledge. The General Agreement on Trade and Services (GATS) has negative impacts on African

[3] See also Stott and Shunmugan (2002) Business and gender equality—lessons from South Africa and Human Rights Watch (2003) to consider specific initiatives such as promotion of cross-border trade, and businesses that should include explicit attention to reducing risk to young girls and entrepreneurs who operate at the downstream end of trade by incorporating HIV/AIDS actions. This suggests that RCSA must work with government partners to include these issues in trade policy documents, which typically deal with macro-economics issues and not human impacts.

women employees and entrepreneurs, who are concentrated in vulnerable lower and middle echelons of national service industries.

A study in Zimbabwe indicates that trade liberalization has had negative differential impacts on female and male small-holder producers, and on their food security, as a result of the country's shift from a net exporter to a net importer of maize. There is evidence that South Africa's agreement with the EU, to relinquish rights to Italy, with respect to the designation of *grappa,* may have negative impacts on South African women; they may lose employment as casual labor in wine plantations and wineries, through job reduction as South Africa struggles to reposition itself in the international market.

It was shown in a Zambian case study (Fontana, March 2002) that simulations on the effects of abolition of tariffs demonstrate that as imports of manufactured food decline, production of commercial agriculture crops, especially maize, increases. Female workers with no education (the majority) benefit the most in this scenario of expanded maize production. However, diversification of market-oriented crops has so far elicited a low supply response from small-scale farmers, especially women who lack time and access to productive resources.

Simulations on the impact of agricultural export incentives show that the choice of crop has differentiated impacts on women and men. Women benefit more from expansion of horticultural crops and groundnuts (which use a higher share of female labor) than they do from expansion of male-intensive crops such as tobacco and coffee. However, the impact varies for women of differing educational levels, benefiting those with primary education the most. Reallocation of assets from production of maize to production of female-intensive crops makes women more productive and increases their wages relative to men's. Women working for wages in horticultural production are more likely to control their income, compared to women whose labor on and income from family-produced crops is controlled by men.

Women in Zimbabwe: issues in future trade negotiations with the EU (APRODEV, November 2002) is one of the few empirical studies of anticipated impacts of an Economic Partnership Agreement on women. Women constitute the majority of Zimbabwe's rural poor. Living largely in communal areas, women are the major source of agricultural labor, but face several supply-side constraints in accessing land and other economic resources.

The EU's Common Agricultural Policy is likely to result in low-priced EU maize exports undermining the maize production of women farmers. Continued negative impacts on women are expected unless small-scale producers are explicitly protected (as its being discussed with respect to special trading arrangements for cereals in the SADC Free Trade Zone).

On the other hand, women employees in the floriculture sector have benefited from Zimbabwe's preferential access to the EU market. Two-income households and increased

permanent employment for women have resulted in more stable families and improved household living standards, which can assist, inter alia, to reduce the risk of HIV infection.[4]

In *Trade, gender and poverty* (Cagatay, 2001), the author summarizes existing evidence that challenges mainstream trade theory, which holds that trade liberalization leads to higher growth and to benefits for all. A gender analysis of trade shows that women and men are differently affected by trade policies and by outcomes–or trade performance.

In industrializing countries, trade liberalization appears to benefit women by opening up new and increased employment opportunities. At the same time it disadvantages them because their "comparative advantage" consists of working for low wages in inferior working conditions. Trade liberalization through increased export crop production, as in sub-Saharan Africa, disadvantages women. Small-scale female producers are not able to compete with medium- and large-scale producers (mostly men) for new market opportunities because of their unequal access to land, credit, new technologies and marketing knowledge.[5] Gender-based differences in resource control have particularly adverse effects where women are mostly self-employed or work as unpaid family workers, as in agriculture. [6]

Not only are women and men differently affected by the implementation of trade policies, but gender-based inequalities also impact on trade policy outcomes. Inequalities between women and men in access to health, education and farm inputs negatively affect output, productivity and growth rates in the long run. Also, gender inequality constrains export performance, especially in agricultural economies dominated by smallholder producers and where women's contribution is significant.

Mohau Pheko (June 1999), states in an article that among the key objectives of the SADC Trade Protocol are to further liberalize intra-regional trade, to enhance productive capacity within SADC[7] to maximize comparative advantages and to create a free trade area. However, the Protocol does not address human development and gender concerns, and the socio-economic impact of changing trade patterns on women and men respectively has not been extensively researched.

In the SADC countries, it is likely that there are few *explicit* laws and regulations that are barriers to women (except for preventing them from working in the mines).[8] While there may be few *explicit* laws that prevent women from participation in trade, there are many other laws (customary), and cultural practices, in the southern Africa region that restrict women's participation in any sector, be it trade, politics, education, access to health services

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[4] See also Chapter 8: HIV / AIDs, Section 8:2

[5] HIV / AIDS is likely to exacerbate this situation as more women than men are infected and also because women are the care givers for the sick.

[6] Isolated initiatives, such as "programs that target women traders and exporters" can have the unintended negative impact of benefiting a very small, already privileged group of women and further marginalizing the vast majority who work in small-scale agricultural production and the informal sector (Statement of Work, Technical Analysis for Proposal Global competitiveness and Regional Market Integration Strategic Options, p. 9).

[7] See Chapter 10: Strengthening Gender Approaches for RCSA: Identifying Partner Organizations (specifically, SADC (September 1997)).

[8] See also annotation for Stott and Shunmugan (2002).

etc. with the possible exception of new democracies like South African and Namibia (which attained their independence when the gender debate was very much alive in the region).

The *customary marriage laws* are one example of laws that restrict women's participation. The *statutory marriage laws* (mostly in former British colonies) provide for civil marriage, monogamy, divorce and child custody procedures, the equal right of both spouses to control property, etc. The problem is that customary law, which is uncodified, influences how / whether statutory law is applied. For example, a woman married under the statute will often not be able to claim property because those in control of her life (husband, father-in-law, whomever) will ensure that customary law is applied (even though this is illegal). In most southern Africa countries, the marriage laws relegate women to the status of minors by bestowing the marital rights to the husband. As a result, married women cannot enter into transactions without the consent of their husbands, while the same is not required of their male counterparts. Such laws have prevented married women, in particular, in obtaining access to credit or pursuing their goals of participating in trade, public office, etc.

Some cultural practices, such as "the mourning period" for widows, to which women must adhere restrict their participation in various sectors of the economy. In some countries, a widow, who is still in mourning cannot be seen in public at certain times of the day.

Conclusions

In Fontana (March 2002), *Modeling the effects of trade on women: the case of Zambia,* the author concludes:

- The price incentives in agriculture will benefit women more if there are complementary policies to reduce their burden of social reproduction, thus enabling them to respond to trade and market reforms;
- Women's social reproduction activities include subsistence production for home consumption; therefore, the costs / benefits to women and their households of shifts to market-oriented agriculture production need to be analyzed holistically, which requires a gender analysis; and
- The choice of crop in a program of agricultural diversification and market liberalization impacts differently on women and men; choices are not "gender neutral."

The evidence reviewed by Cagatay (2001) in *Trade, gender and poverty* shows that until recently gender was not considered a relevant category of analysis in mainstream macroeconomics. However, new research and advocacy have been instrumental in ensuring inclusion of gender mainstreaming processes and gender review structures in two regional trade organizations. Policy makers need to be conversant with how the outcomes of trade liberalization are affected by gender inequality. This requires promotion of gender analysis in the context of country- and region-specific trade analysis and trade agreements

and an institutional structure with the political will[9] to ensure that trade reform will lead to equal opportunities for women and men.

A main conclusion from The GENTA Research Office (GENTA, August 2000) is that a gender perspective is critical in analyses of the consequences of trade liberalization. Because the two sexes have differing roles in production and in-service provision, processes of trade liberalization have different impacts on women and men and can lead to the worsening of women's position. There has been less research on these processes in Africa, than in Asia, and research gaps need to be addressed to more fully understand specific situations and to ensure that food security is not sacrificed at the expense of trade liberalization.

APRODEV (November 2002) argues that it is necessary to weigh the costs (production, employment and income losses) and benefits (consumer and employment gains) for both poor women and poor men in moving towards a free trade area. National efforts, in this case in Zimbabwe, are crucial to redress supply side constraints that inhibit women's access to economic resources in communal areas; otherwise, they will be negatively impacted. At the same time, it will be necessary to design programs that facilitate women's participation in opportunities that new trade arrangements will offer. Such programs might focus on:

- Shifting patterns of production to products with stronger demand growth and more favorable price trends;
- Promoting production of more value added goods to sell competitively on national, regional and international markets;
- Addressing the physical and policy constraints that currently inhibit the ability of women producers to produce and trade higher value products competitively; and
- Establishing programs specifically designed and implemented in ways which facilitate women's participation in the opportunities opened up through new trade arrangements.

Pheko (June 1999)[10] concludes with key issues that need to be addressed within the context of further development and implementation of the Trade Protocol:

- The impact that elimination of tariffs and quotas will have on female and male producers in specific sectors;
- The impacts of immigration and customs laws (non-tariff barriers) on women's current active involvement in cross-border trade;
- Protection of employment in sectors dominated by women (agriculture, textile and service industries); and

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[9] See also Derbyshire (April 2002, p. 32), noting "in all contexts, *political will* and management support is crucial" and Morris (1995, p. 19) *The Gender Audit*, providing guidelines for determining the presence of 'political will.'

[10] For additional information on SADC's Trade Protocol, with a list of recommendations, see Yeshiareg and Martin (July 2002, p. 32).

- Women's constraints in accessing credit and capital in order to benefit from opportunities offered in a free trade area.

In the SADC countries, there are laws and cultural practices that prevent or restrict women's participation in any sector—trade, politics, education, access to health services and more—which need to be addressed and barriers removed to the extent possible.

Recommendations

The RCSA's strategic approach is to increase southern Africa's competitiveness on a global basis, and across borders. The intermediate results are focused on policy issues and financial reform, increasing trade globally and across-borders, and lowering transaction costs.

The RCSA intends to work on a policy level and, therefore, there are opportunities to work towards making trade policies more explicitly gender sensitive and gender responsive. In working with the SADC, or any other RCSA partner organizations, it is recommended to support them to include a gender analysis and a gender perspective in the SADC trade policy formulation and implementation. The gender analysis should be conducted PRIOR TO formulation of SADC and national trade policy initiatives. SADC commitment to ensuring that the results of the gender analysis will inform the design and implementation of an initiative should be a condition for USAID cooperation.

Where analysis shows that women's basic gender needs (food security) and strategic gender interests (income, employment) are negatively impacted by trade, it is important to identify and support counter-measures.

Within the context of further development and implementation of the SADC Trade Protocol, it is recommended to consider:

- The impact that elimination of tariffs and quotas will have on female and male producers in specific sectors;
- The impacts of immigration and customs laws (non-tariff barriers) on women's current active involvement in cross-border trade;
- Protection of employment in sectors dominated by women (agriculture, textile and service industries); and
- Women's constraints in accessing credit and capital in order to benefit from opportunities offered in a free trade area.

Development of expertise on gender and trade should be supported at a regional / national level, whether it is through SADC or other partner organizations.[11]

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[11] See also Chapter 10: Strengthening Gender Approaches for RCSA. Identifying Partner Organizations.

In the area of increasing trade and lowering transaction costs, ensure application of gender analysis in the relevant activities of the RCSA strategic plan:

- Since women's social reproduction activities include subsistence production for home consumption, it is recommended that the costs / benefits to women and their households of shifts to market-oriented agriculture production be analyzed in a holistic way;
- Choice of crop is not 'gender neutral" in a program of agricultural diversification and market liberalization and has different impacts on women and men;
- Ensure that Regional Production Clusters do not exploit cheap female labor and ensure that programs targeting women traders and exporters do not exclude the poor (male or female);
- Consideration should be given in supporting surveys of "laws and regulations" to identify any that are discriminatory and to address these as issues to be rectified in legal reform;
- Collect sex-disaggregated data to help define gender differences and support gender analysis;
- Collect data by age, where relevant;[12]
- Use both qualitative and quantitative instruments to assess women's economic status and the effects of changes in policies and programs; and
- Create meaningful changes in women's economic status through fundamental shifts in the policy context.

Additional recommendations are found in the Gender Assessment and Recommendations for Enhancing Gender Integration into USAID / RCSA's Program (Yeshiareg and Martin, July 2002, pp. xii, 36).

Suggested Indicators

Examples of general indicators based on the draft competition results framework follow. When a final version of the results framework is available, specific indicators need to be developed.[13]

- SO—A more competitive Southern African economy: increase in employment in targeted industries.
  - — Increased numbers of men employed; numbers of women employed.

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[12] Age, along with sex-disaggregated, data is important to collect in the southern Africa region where HIV / AIDS is seriously decimating the workforce, the educated, the experienced, and where a phenomena of child-headed households is emerging.

[13] See Appendix C, which sets forth a guide that may assist in developing gender-sensitive indicators.

  - Concentration of men in what industries / jobs; concentration of women in what industries / jobs (this is a point that should be monitored).
  - Concentration of men / women in which levels of employment, from unskilled to professional and managerial.
  - Increased income levels for women; for men;
- Increased access to full-time, permanent employment for women; for men.
- IR1—Selected Policies, Regulations and Laws Support Competitiveness.
  - Numbers of gender sensitive trade agreements and regulations adopted;
  - Numbers of partner organizations, such as the SADC, which have conducted gender analyses relative to policy formulation and implementation;
  - Numbers of partner organizations which are monitoring and analyzing policy / regulatory / legal outcomes by gender and determining impacts;
  - Identification of any discriminatory laws preventing or discouraging participation by either women or men;
  - Number of laws and regulations enacted that remove barriers against women; and
  - Increased numbers of men / women with expertise at national / regional level on gender and trade.
- IR2—Increased Trade Activity in Selected Industries.
  - Increased number of firms meeting selected international quality standards; number of women-owned firms, number of men-owned firms and concentration by sector or industry;
  - Increased trade volume for selected goods and services; disaggregate by sector or goods / services to determine concentration by gender; and
  - Number of female-owned firms participating in export activities.
- IR3—Improved Selected Economic Infrastructure to Lower Transaction Costs.
  - Non-discriminatory customs documents, procedures, and border-crossing practices for both women and men.

3. Enhanced Regional Food Security and Rural Livelihoods

Enhanced Regional Food Security[14] is the strategic focus area in the RCSA concept paper, which is changing to include, or being elevated to, rural livelihoods. The initial results framework strategic objective, Increased Market-led Agricultural Growth was received first, and strategic objective, Rural Household Security Increased Through Market Led Livelihood Options was received thereafter.

The development challenge is to deal with chronic poverty and food insecurity resulting from lack of investment in agriculture and in appropriate social and economic policies. New and continuing crises appear likely to further disrupt agriculture, create refugees, escalate the need for and costs of emergency relief, and divert investments from the long-term solutions needed to end the cycle of despair.

Opportunities exist with a potential to reverse the downward spiral of hunger, poverty, environmental degradation, disease and civil strife through, for example:

- Increased African ownership of the development agenda;
- A renewed focus on market-oriented small and medium sized farmers and entrepreneurs;
- African leaders increasingly seeking development solutions from a regional perspective, opening the door for more countries to benefit from greater regional market integration;
- Biotechnology offering considerable potential; and
- AICHA committing significant resources to smallholder-led agricultural development in Africa.

The RCSA will support the implementation of AICHA in southern Africa through activities that will contribute to increasing rural and peri-urban agricultural productivity, growing economies through market linkages, improving regional disaster management and mitigation, and increasing competitiveness of agricultural products in local, regional and global markets.

Potential focus areas are:

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[14] See also Chapter 4: Water Resource Management.

- Science and technological applications, starting with those that can be rapidly adapted for small- and medium-scale producers, which will raise agricultural productivity and create agriculture-based enterprises;
- Agribusiness, markets and trade by improving the numbers and efficiencies of regional and national agribusinesses to gain entry to new markets; and
- Disaster management and mitigation by improving the efficiency and effectiveness of regional disaster management.

Critical Gender-based Constraints and Issues: a Review of the Literature

Food crops or cash crops: which is the key to food security? (Gladwin and Thompson, no date) puts forth the case that gender-based constraints on the agricultural production of women farmers are part of the explanation for Africa's food security problems. The data and studies referred to are interpreted to show that there is need for a broader focus on promoting the food security of women farmers, rather than a narrow focus on promoting only their food crops as a solution to food insecurity. [15]

Data from Malawi cited in this article show that a female household head will not be able to grow sufficient maize for household consumption, even if she increases her production by switching from local to hybrid maize. In any case, most women farmers cannot afford commercial inputs. Men, who previously grew hybrid maize as a cash crop, drastically decreased their production in the 1990s in response to escalating input prices. Agro-forestry innovations have been tested and disseminated in order to counter soil fertility depletion, the main biophysical cause of declining per capita food production in Africa. However, research in Kenya and Malawi shows that women farmers face constraints in adopting agro-forestry innovations. Other constraints to increasing women farmers' cash income from cash crop production include: a widespread female gender identity that associates being a woman with food crop production, and the priority given to the family's consumption needs by planting food crops first.

In a journal article, Robert Uttaro (2002) reports empirical research findings on decisions which have a direct relation to food security and which are made by Malawian small-scale farmers: whether or not to buy chemical fertilizers and to buy and plant hybrid maize seed. Because much technical agricultural and food security research has made women "invisible" by not explicitly addressing gender differences, this research design included men in male-headed households, married women and female household heads in Zomba district. The overall context is the threatened food security status of Malawian rural households that cannot produce enough food for their family members and cannot afford to purchase sufficient amounts of processed maize meal during the hungry season—from the time that household food stores are depleted until green mealies are harvested.

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[15] See also Chapter 2, in particular Fontana (March 2002), GENTA (August 2000), and Ca_atay (2001); *AIDS and agriculture, food security and nutrition (USAID, 2003); and Women's participation in Angola's reconstruction and in its political institutions and processes* (Greenberg et al., July 1997).

The findings show that gender does make a difference: 55 per cent of female household heads did not use any chemical fertilizer on their maize, compared to 38 per cent of married women and 33 per cent of male farmers. The overwhelming reason is that the cost of fertilizer, as well as of hybrid maize seed, is beyond their means. However, farmers in all categories prefer hybrid to local maize varieties because the former matures earlier, yields more (when fertilized), provides a source of income and shortens the hungry season. Nonetheless, farmers are planting less hybrid maize and more local varieties, and female household heads, in particular, have almost no other option. Reliance on local maize will not improve household food security, however.

HIV/AIDS and food security in Africa (deWaal and Tumushabe, 2003) summarizes gender issues, together with other factors, in existing evidence on the impact of HIV / AIDS[16] on agrarian livelihoods. There is evidence that the HIV epidemic affects agriculture more severely than other sectors because smallholders cannot cope with loss of labor resulting from AIDS-related illness and death.

Most of the burden of struggling with the impact of AIDS at the household level falls on women. One of the main impacts is loss of household labor. For example, when a productive adult, especially a woman, is ill, she works less and the household devotes time and resources to her care. Death has a drastic effect on household production capability. Households facing labor shortage respond in diverse ways; e.g. by removing girls from school, investing little or no effort in soil and land conservation, and shifting crop composition to those that are less labor intensive such as cassava. Other impacts are reduction in a household's disposable cash income and in their asset base, including dispossession of land especially where widows' claims to land are not protected, consumption of seeds and shift from cash-oriented to subsistence production. As the extended family and non-formal networks of social support break down, phenomena such as exploitation of orphans', especially girls', labor and property grabbing from widows increases.

Agriculture extension services are collapsing in some countries because of the effects of the pandemic, and there is a much-reduced rate of adoption of new agricultural technologies by farmers. Current thinking and best practices on policy and program responses to mitigate the impact of HIV / AIDS on food security, include:

- Addressing labor scarcity (e.g. promoting non-labor intensive crops);
- Completely reorienting agriculture extension (e.g. targeting AIDS / affected families, women and child-headed households) and research (e.g. lighter ploughs for women and youth); and
- Learning from existing micro-credit schemes that have developed innovative approaches in AIDS-affected communities.

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[16] See also Chapter 8—HIV / AIDS, in general, and specifically, *AIDS and agriculture, food security, and nutrition* (USAID, 2003).

Conclusions

The evidence and analysis presented in *Food crops or cash crops: which is the key to food security?* (Gladwin and Thompson, no date) demonstrate that production for sale of higher value agricultural products *can* contribute to increased household food security. However, this requires developing gender-sensitive policies, planning and interventions so that the needs, opportunities and constraints of female farmers are one explicit area of focus rather than lumping all "small-scale producers" together in one category.

As reported in *Diminishing choices: gender, small bags of fertilizer, and household food security decisions in Malawi*, (Uttaro, 2002), government made an attempt to make fertilizer more widely available by repackaging it in smaller quantities than 50 kilogram bags. However, the farmers in the sample did not consider this a useful option because smaller bags cost more per unit weight. In particular, female-headed households, who should benefit the most, cannot afford the smaller bags.

Alex deWaal (deWaal and Tumushabe, February 2003) is responsible for hypothesizing that HIV / AIDS, together with other factors such as drought and mismanagement of food reserves, is fuelling a "new variant famine" in southern Africa. The author argues the case for urgent responses and radical interventions to address the "new variant famine."

Recommendations

From the concept paper and the two strategic objectives, the primary direction seems to be on household security through market-led livelihood options and increased market-led agricultural growth. The intermediate results also focus primarily on strengthening the context for increasing rural markets and agricultural growth.

Production for sale of higher value agricultural products can contribute to increased household food security if gender sensitive policies, planning and interventions are developed . It is important, therefore, that the needs, opportunities and constraints of *female farmers* should be an explicit area of focus, rather than lumping all "small-scale farmers" together into one category.

Because women's food and cash crop production are interdependent and related to each other as parts of a total production system, three strategies are recommended to promote women farmer's food security:

- Encourage women to take a small part of their land out of food crops in order to grow highly profitable cash crops (so that the proceeds from sales can be used to intensify their food crop production);
- Continue to focus agriculture research programs on meeting women's needs; and
- Provide safety net programs, such as fertilizer-for-work to the very poor and food insecure, including female heads of household.

It is recommended that the clients / users of new crop / animal technologies are clearly identified (through prior research or adaptive research) and that research to improve households' own production for consumption is balanced with / weighed against market-oriented research. When research findings are disaggregated by gender / marital status, policy makers and development planners can more clearly identify the degree to which gender is a factor influencing decisions (as on technology adoption) and attempt to reduce constraints. In most of southern Africa, female heads of household constitute up to or more than 40 per cent of rural households. Unless their constraints are identified and needs addressed, interventions will not be "equitable," nor will regional food security be enhanced.

Some general recommendations noted in Davidson and Strickland (2000, p. 6) are:

- Collect sex-disaggregated data to help define gender differences and support gender analysis;
- Use both qualitative and quantitative instruments to assess women's economic status and the effects of changes in policies and programs; and
- Create meaningful changes in women's economic status through fundamental shifts in the policy context.

Additional recommendations are found in the Gender Assessment and Recommendations for Enhancing Gender Integration into USAID / RCSA's Program (Yeshiareg and Martin, July 2002, pp. xvii, 55).

Suggested Indicators

Based on the draft strategic objective, Rural Household Security Increased through Market Led Livelihood Options results framework, examples of general indicators follow. When a final version of the results framework is available, specific indicators need to be developed.[17]

- SO—Rural household security increased through market-led livelihood options. [In order to develop relevant indicators for the SO, it needs to be more clearly delineated.]
- IR1—Best practice models in rural road infrastructure[18] adapted and disseminated in selected countries.
- [This IR may appear to be gender neutral, unless you begin to ask about where the roads are built, where they come from and go to, do the roads go to primary markets that are accessible and to what extent by women and their agricultural products and by men and their agricultural products. Do the roads lead to junctions to catch additional transportation or to off-load agricultural goods for market or retrieve inputs purchased

[17] See Appendix C, which sets forth a guide that may assist in developing gender-sensitive indicators.

[18] See the annotation for Republic of Zambia (no date c2000) and Bamberger (December 1.3, 1999).

from a major urban area? To what extent do women have access / use of these roads; to what extent do men have access / use of these roads?]

— Number of gender-responsive best practice models identified from the region, disseminated to selected countries, used by policy formulation, and used in institutions responsible for rural transport;

— Number of best practice models which take account of differing patterns of rural road use, for different purposes, by women and by men; and

— Number of best practice models which facilitate women's opportunities to participate in, and to benefit from, rural road construction and maintenance.

- IR2—Increased production and trade in high value agriculture and rural products.

  — Increased production for women; increased production for men for each "high value" agricultural / rural products;

  — Increased sales / trade for women, for men, for each good / product;

  — Increased income for women and for men; and

  — Increased food security at the household level for women-headed households, for men-headed households, using reported length / duration of the hungry season as a proxy indicator.

4. Water Resource Management

Water Resource Management[19] is the strategic focus area and the results framework strategic objective is Improved Management of Selected River Basins (4/23/03).

The development challenge, as stated in the RCSA concept paper, is to reduce the stress of "life-sustaining" activity involved in conversion of the Miombo woodland habitat. If present trends continue, most remaining woodland habitats will be cleared over the coming decades, with devastating implications for the hydrology of the region. At the same time, urbanization is increasing pressures on water supply. Because of demands at the national level, individual countries are turning to international watercourses to meet their water needs. This has the potential for sparking regional conflict.

Opportunities exist with emerging regional consensus for joint management of water resources and through support from various donors, including the United States government. The RCSA will approach the problem of regional water resource management through a focus on strategic river basins, selecting one or more key basins and working with partners to develop management plans and policies.

Potential focus areas are:

- Integrated River Basin management promoting regional management of river basins as ecological units that provide a basis for sustainable natural resource management in southern Africa;
- Rural livelihoods promoting sustainable natural resource utilization through improved rural livelihoods and ecotourism in the headwaters and wetlands of river basins to reduce the potential for conflicts with competing downstream users of water;
- Urbanization addressing policies and practices affecting water consumption and quality; and
- Ecosystem monitoring improving the information base for effective ecosystem management.

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[19] See also Chapter 3. Enhanced Regional Food Security and Rural Livelihoods.

Critical Gender-based Constraints and Issues: A Review of the Literature

Untapped connections: gender, water and poverty[20] (WEDO, January 2003) presents an overview of the relationships between the three and briefly summarizes the ways in which differences in women's and men's roles, and their position in society, influence their:

- Respective access to and use of water;
- Participation in health, sanitation and hygiene activities;
- Ability to promote environmental health and ecological stability; and
- The impact of privatization of water services on them. [21]

Women's reproductive roles (e.g. as managers of household and community water and family health maintenance) must be explicitly addressed. Women's productive roles (e.g. in small-scale farming and as users of threatened natural resources) do not receive the priority that characterize men's roles in agriculture and livestock production and must also be taken into account. Women are not involved in decision making on water resource management at high levels. The result is a continuing lack of progress in including a gender perspective in water policies and water resource management.

A brief article (Peters et al., August 2002) notes that policies on land and water in southern African countries have changed in recent years. Land is now treated as a property right and water as an economic good (rather than as a social service), and decentralization of resource management to lower levels is expected to contribute to more equitable democratic processes. This overview, based on research findings from several countries in southern Africa, demonstrates that the new policies usually pay lip service to addressing gender issues in natural resource management. However, in practice few meaningful initiatives can be identified; gender-based discrimination continues and is being reinforced.

For example, in Zimbabwe women are represented only in village-level committees and not in the councils that manage river basin or catchment area water supply at higher levels. In Mozambique, women in small-scale irrigation schemes are more likely to default on service payments and to give up their irrigated plots because the particular constraints they face have not been recognized or addressed.

Anne Hellum in *Towards a human rights based development approach: the case of women in the water reform process in Zimbabwe* (Hellum, 2001) documents research findings applying a woman-focused human rights approach to promoting gender equality in water resource management. The shift from previous government-provided subsidized water services to a market-oriented approach will have different impacts on poor women and men water users, such as in communal areas. Both men and women use water for commercial purposes (men for irrigated cash crop production and women for vegetable gardens).

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[20] See also WEDO (January 2003) for a summary of key international commitments on gender, poverty and water.

[21] See also Population Reference Bureau (January 2002) as a reference for "rural livelihoods."

However, their access to water is unequal, and inequality is likely to increase with application of the user pay principle. These and other issues are not addressed in Zimbabwe's draft water reform policy and strategy documents, which fail to live up to the stated goal of integrating a gender perspective into all aspects.

Hellum argues that a human rights approach will best promote women's equal access to water and to their participation in water management. The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) is a key legal instrument, which would make the distinction between domestic water use (i.e. women) and commercial water use (i.e. men) an example of discrimination.

Zimbabwe's Water Act (1998) gives equal opportunity (to "all") to access water for commercial purposes. However, because women's interest is relegated to domestic use only, their commercial use of water is not recognized. The Act does not require registration for a permit to use water for commercial purposes in the name of both spouses.

A policy-oriented analysis of empirical research studies (van Koppen, 2000) in the south, including Africa, demonstrates the inter-relationship among gender relations, poverty status and access to water and the processes that contribute to the worldwide problem of water deprivation. Water deprivation results more from processes of social deprivation, including gender-based deprivation, than from natural scarcity of water. The analysis includes micro (household and community), institutional (irrigation / water management boards) and policy-making levels.

The most important point is that, although the poor suffer the most from water deprivation, poor women's and men's rights to water as one input into their businesses and livelihoods are unequal. Although African women are farmers in their own right, as well as jointly with their husbands, their needs for water have been generally ignored. The main constraint arises from the widespread assumption that men, not women, are the main primary stakeholders in local water management systems. Where women do participate in irrigation systems, they are typically in a less favorable position to claim their rights, than men. Some research studies show, however, that when women who control their own production are introduced to new agricultural technologies, their productivity increases to a greater extent than men's.

Conclusions

To ensure that gender equality becomes a guiding principle in water resource management, strategies should focus on the integration of gender in water policies and institutions, in support to capacity building of local women's organizations and to monitoring gender issues in specific water programs (WEDO, January 2003).

Gender and broadening access to land and water in southern Africa (Peters et al., August 2002) concludes that there is need for concrete measures to tackle gender inequalities in access to land and water:

- Legal frameworks that explicitly recognize women's right to land and water (rather than being couched in gender neutral language such as "households");
- Quotas for women's membership in key institutions;
- Listing of wives' names on a par with husbands' names on title deeds, water leases and permits, etc.; and
- Recognition that women are not just "domestic users" of water, but also commercial users (e.g., vegetable production and food processing for sale) and that the obstacles in their access to capital, credit and markets must be addressed in parallel with improving their access to natural resources.

An important conclusion in *Towards a human rights based development approach: the case of women in water reform process in Zimbabwe* (Hellum, 2001) is that women are inadequately represented in the stakeholder groups that comprise the new water management bodies such as sub-catchment councils. Research shows that women and men have differing priorities in local water management—women, for example, being more concerned about water quality than men. The author reviews the evidence about women's limited *active* participation in local water management and assesses the pros and cons of various strategies to increase their participation, including quotas and more gender-sensitive definition of stakeholders.

[V]an Koppen (2000), concludes that in order to maximize opportunities to alleviate water deprivation and to improve rural livelihoods through a water basin management strategy and/or irrigation scheme, there needs to be a comprehensive strategy in place which includes:

- A context-specific analysis of gender relations in agriculture and water resource use;
- Identification of the respective unmet needs of both women and men; and
- Development of gender-specific strategies to meet these needs.

And, promoting women's active participation in water user associations and in institutions responsible for water resource management is critical.

Recommendations

To understand and apply international treaties such as CEDAW, the RCSA needs to work with regional, and as appropriate, national, partner organizations. Government stakeholders should also be linked to key women's interest groups.

In the current process of reforming water laws and policies within some SADC countries (South Africa, Mozambique, Zambia and Malawi), it is recommended they be assisted to work towards gender equality in water resource management. International commitments to gender equality, poverty reduction and water resource management, to which SADC members are signatories, must be used as a basis for design of interventions.

In choosing one, or more, key river basins, and in working to develop integrated river basin management plans and sustainable equitable management policies, it is recommended that gender issues be explicitly integrated throughout (and not tacked on as an "add-on" or afterthought). Since, typically, at this policy/planning level, gender is ignored, it is recommended that explicit and thorough integration occur ensuring that gender issues are dealt with at all implementation levels.

For gender-sensitive rural livelihood strategies, context-specific gender analysis should be conducted prior to implementation of an intervention.

Some general recommendations noted in Davidson and Strickland (2000, p. 6) are:

- Collect sex-disaggregated data to help define gender differences and support gender analysis;
- Use both qualitative and quantitative instruments to assess women's economic status and the effects of changes in policies and programs; and
- Create meaningful changes in women's economic status through fundamental shifts in the policy context.

Suggested Indicators

Based on the results framework (dated 4/23/03) strategic objective, Improved Management of Selected River Basins, and intermediate results 1–3, suggested indicators follow. When a final version of the results framework is available, specific indicators need to be developed.[22]

- SO—Improved Management of Selected River Basins.
  - Increased water availability to multiple uses (current indicator); and
  - Increased water availability to multiple uses disaggregated by users (female controlled, male controlled, joint controlled) and by types of uses (home, community or commercial).
- IR1—Institutional Capacity Strengthened
  - Number of river basin management plans and sustainable equitable management policies with explicit integration of gender issues;
  - Number of institutions using gender-sensitive practices with regard to design and implementation of an intervention or services;
  - Number of institutions with staff with expertise on gender relations and water use; and

[22] See Appendix C, which sets forth a guide that may assist in developing gender-sensitive indicators.

  - Number of new technologies, information or educational programs directed explicitly to men and to women.

- IR2—Improved Community Management of Critical Areas
  - Number of community management structures which have quotas to increase women's participation; and
  - Number of water user associations which have strategies to facilitate participation by women.

- IR3—Water Resource Management Services Provided to Bilateral and Non-Presence Missions
  - National and regional partners (bilateral or non-presence missions) understand and apply international treaties such as CEDAW; and
  - Government stakeholders linked to key women's interest groups.

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5. Environmental Threats and Opportunities

The RCSA concept paper did not include this strategic focus area, nor did we receive a results framework. Neither was it included in the Gender Analysis scope of work, but a scope of work was later added for Environmental Threats and Opportunities. Therefore, relevant literature was reviewed with a limited analysis.

Southern Africa regional environmental assets and threats covers:

- Biodiversity resources;
- Tropical forests;
- Freshwater and marine resources;
- Watershed perspective;
- Conflict and the environment;
- Food security and the environment; and
- Institutional context.

Critical Gender-based Constraints and Issues: a Review of the Literature

The Women's Environmental and Development Organization, in consultation with women's organizations worldwide, prepared this overview (U.N. Economic and Social Council, 28 January 2002). Constraints to and progress in addressing gender issues in sustainable development since the 1992 U.N. Conference on Environment and Development are summarized and women's priorities on sustainable development issues for the future given.

Although the role of women in use and management of natural resources has been increasingly recognized, this is not yet reflected in most governmental policies on environment. There are isolated projects to increase women's participation in sustainable development initiatives; in general, however, there are still few women in decision-making positions in key institutions, national and local.

Improving women's access to and control of natural resources is negatively affected by:

- Land degradation which increases their workload and responsibilities;
- Limited quantities of water, of increasingly poor quality;
- Privatization of natural resources which constrains their ability to use and conserve land, water and forest resources;
- Their lack of equal property rights;
- Appropriation of indigenous, traditional and often women's knowledge of and control over genetic resources due to international agreements on intellectual property rights;
- Information systems, such as environmental impact assessment, which are not gender sensitive; and
- Lack of appropriate indicators to measure progress on gender equality in relation to environmental issues (e.g. the U.N. Commission for Sustainable Development indicators include only one that is gender-related).

Among women's priorities are:

- An increase in their participation in decision-making on sustainable development;
- Ensuring sustainable livelihoods and environmental security, including more attention to the gender aspects of natural disasters;
- Health issues, including studies on the gender aspects of exposure to hazardous substances; and
- The gender-specific consequences of climate change.

In *Gender, property rights, and natural resources* (Meizen-Dick, et al., May 1997), property rights, i.e. diverse tenure rules on access to and use of land, water and trees, are crucial in patterns of natural resource management. Gender influences how property rights, responsibilities and resources are allocated. This paper identifies key gender asymmetries in property rights and suggests how these asymmetries affect four outcomes: efficiency of natural resource use, environmental sustainability, equity of resource distribution and empowerment of resource users. Examples were drawn from the literature and from discussions in an International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) e-mail conference.

Women and men have differing and usually asymmetrical opportunities to claim property and user rights to natural resources. For example, because tree clearing to establish a claim to land is a male task, women are precluded from this way of accessing property. Women and men's rights to resource use also differ—for different crops and uses of water and of forest products. Privatization of natural resources transfers property rights to an individual holder. Where women have benefited from communal agreement on multiple uses of a natural resource (such as gathering wild vegetables from the land or non-timber products from forests), titling tends to threaten their access.

National policies on rights to natural resources are usually "gender neutral." Because women's existing rights of access are not recognized and protected, they tend to be

impinged upon. A gender analysis of local practices of natural resource use and allocation is necessary in the formulation and implementation of national policies. Promoting collective action is one way to make natural resource access more equitable, e.g. when a women's group obtains land, denied to them as individuals, for collective gardens or tree nurseries.

An overview, *Women, men and environmental change: the gender dimensions of environmental policies and programmes*, (Population Reference Bureau, January 2002) summarizes the importance that gender differences make in natural resource use, how resource depletion affects women and men differently and how gender concerns can be integrated in environmental planning.[23]

Gender influences natural resource use because of:

- The differing roles and responsibilities of women and men (e.g with men playing a greater role in natural resource exploitation for commercial purposes);
- Unequal access to and control over natural resources (e.g. in eastern Democratic Republic of the Congo men plant permanent tree crops on land where they have secure access, while women have no incentive to invest in soil conservation on the steep eroded fields to which they have been relegated);
- Women's and men's differing knowledge of their natural resources base; and
- Women's low participation in formulation, planning and implementation of environmental policy, resulting in decisions being taken that negatively affect their activities and livelihoods (e.g. penalties for fuel wood collection or estuary fishing).

Although environmental degradation impacts on both women and men, the consequences for women are often more severe. They must spend longer hours and more energy for natural resource use activities (e.g. obtaining fuel wood and water) and, together with children, are more exposed to indoor pollutants from use of biomass fuels. Reduction of soil fertility and availability of fuel wood forces women to economize by using less nutritious, more quickly cooked foodstuffs and affects household nutrition status. Women's farming activities expose them to chemical pollutants and increased reproductive risk as a result.

Conclusions

Among women's priorities are:

- An increase in their participation in decision-making on sustainable development;
- Ensuring sustainable livelihoods and environmental security, including more attention to the gender aspects of natural disasters; and

[23] See also Chapter 4: Water Resource Management.

- Health issues, including studies on the gender aspects of exposure to hazardous substances, and the gender-specific consequences of climate change (U.N. Economic and Social Council, 28 January 2002).

Meizen-Dick et al. (May 1997) concludes that a *gendered* understanding of property rights should be integrated into policy formulation and implementation of interventions to promote environmental sustainability and natural resource management. Organizing groups of local women to press their claims is an important complement to other efforts.

A few countries have started to initiate gender-responsive environmental policy formulation, planning and implementation (Population Reference Bureau, January 2002). In order to develop better solutions for sustainable use of natural resources, experience shows the importance of several key actions:

- Collection of sex-disaggregated data on women and men's resource use, access to resources and participation in decision making;
- Training staff on the relevance of gender analysis to positive environmental outcomes;
- Incorporating a gender perspective in implementation and monitoring; and
- Promoting opportunities for women to participate at all levels of technical input and decision making on environment issues.

Recommendations

For the environmental threats working group, it is recommended not only to consider a *women* perspective, but, more importantly, a *gender* perspective in the areas in which it will be working. Also, consideration should be given to *people* of different categories in relation to different aspects of their natural resource base, which is now missing in the outline of the EOTA.

The RCSA should support its partners to conduct a gender analysis of national natural resource policies (National Environmental Action Plans) and make explicit and address the opportunities and constraints of different groups of stakeholders (women/men) in sustainable natural resource management.

Key actions to take, which should constitute the *gender* agenda for RCSA's support for relevant partners, are:

- Collection of sex-disaggregated data on women and men's natural resource use, access to resources and participation in decision making;
- Training staff on the relevance of gender analysis to positive environmental outcomes;
- Incorporating a clear and explicit gender perspective in implementation and monitoring; and
- Promoting opportunities for women to participate at all levels of technical input into and decision making on environmental issues.

Additional recommendations are found in the Gender Assessment and Recommendations for Enhancing Gender Integration into USAID/RCSA's Program (Yeshiareg and Martin, July 2002, pp. xiv, 43).

Possible Indicators

When a results framework is developed, the following list may provide some guidance in developing appropriate indicators. [24]

- Increased numbers of women/men in national/regional decision-making bodies on sustainable development;
- Increased attention to the gender aspects of natural disasters, ensuring sustainable livelihoods and environmental security;
- Number of studies completed on gender aspects of exposure to hazardous substances and health implications;
- Number of studies completed on gender-specific consequences of climate change;
- Environmental Threats Working Group incorporating a gender perspective in its working documents and proposals;
- Number of gender analyses carried out on national natural resources policies and number of policies in which gender analysis findings are incorporated;
- Number of partner organizations supported on collection of sex-disaggregated data on women and men's resource use, access to resources and participation in decision making;
- Number of partner organizations with staff trained on the relevance of gender analysis to positive environmental outcomes;
- Number of partner organizations which have incorporated a gender perspective in implementation and monitoring; and
- Number of partner organizations which have promoted opportunities for women to participate in all levels of technical input into and decision making on environmental issues.

[24] See Appendix C, which sets forth a guide that may assist in developing gender-sensitive indicators.

6. Improved Democratic Governance

The RCSA concept paper included Improved Democratic Governance as a strategic focus area. In addition, two draft results frameworks were received with strategic options, Improved electoral competition in southern Africa, and Strengthened regional institutions to promote more effective democratic processes dated March 25, 2003.

The development challenge is to overcome uneven political development within the region. The HIV/AIDS pandemic is likely to aggravate the region's political vulnerabilities. The region remains vulnerable to:

- Conflict emanating from disputes over rules for political competition;
- Public institutions that impede business efficiency due to a lack of accountability and transparency;
- Violation of basic rights with impunity, due to a breakdown in the rule of law and lack of independence of the judiciary; and
- Limited citizen participation in national policy formulation, resulting in distorted or inappropriate policies being implemented.

Opportunities exist within the SADC, which has begun to play a visible role in addressing democratic governance issues. Upcoming elections in six countries, if properly conducted, will provide incentives for improved democratic practices. Regional institutions and certain common interest groups are vehicles through which regional standards can be developed, adopted, applied, enforced and monitored. The proposed NEPAD Peer Review mechanism provides an opportunity through which regionally agreed standards can be enforced. RCSA expects to play a role in strengthening electoral competition to sustain a "healthy democracy" and in complementing the activities of USAID bilateral programs with a democracy and governance objective, and all US embassies in the region implementing democracy and governance activities through the Democracy and Human Rights Fund.

Potential focus areas are:

- Promoting political competition through support for elections and other political processes;

- Human rights and rule of law by strengthening the ability of judges in the region and human rights nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) to advocate for human rights and rule of law; and
- Media freedom by strengthening the capacity and freedom of the region's independent media through training, networking, and advocacy activities.

Critical Gender-based Constraints and Issues: a Review of the Literature[25]

In *Women and democracy: the new political activism in Africa* (Tripp, 2001), it was noted that women's political participation in Africa increased dramatically in the 1990s, due in part to new types of women's organizations that worked for political, legislative and constitutional change. The reasons for the increase include:

- A bigger pool of educated women;
- Their long experience in organizing their own associations;
- Political commitment by leaders of some countries (Uganda, Mozambique, South Africa) and introduction of affirmative action to increase women's political representation; and
- International advocacy, as by the Inter-Parliamentary Union which has lobbied for interim quotas.

In particular, new types of women's associations took advantage of the spaces that opened up after the decline of single-party controlled women's wings. These associations had new agenda, including promotion of women's political participation, environmental issues, land rights, legal reform, structural adjustment and the fight against corruption. They have created networks and issue-based coalitions with diverse civil society organizations.

Women's associations have been active in electoral politics through non-partisan support to women candidates and to men supportive of women's interests, human rights and citizenship training, and repeal of discriminatory legislation. However, the most important constraint to women's participation in electoral politics is still cultural—the attitude that women do not belong in public life.

In *Towards sustainable democratic institutions in southern Africa* (Lowe Morna, May 2000), it is argued that regional and national efforts to improve women's political participation are linked to new forms of democratic governance in most SADC member countries. The *SADC Declaration on Gender and Development* commits to a 30 per cent women's representation in politics and decision-making by 2005.[26]

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[25] See also *Violence, vengeance and gender: investigation into the links between violence against women and HIV/AIDS in South Africa* (Vetten and Bhana, April 2001) and *Women's participation in Angola's reconstruction and in its political institutions and processes* (Greenberg et al., July 1997).

[26] See also Chapter 10.

As reported in Lowe Morna (May 2000), there is variation within SADC on women's representation in parliaments. Three countries approach the 30 per cent target (Mozambique 28.4 %, South Africa 28%, Seychelles 23.5%), compared to Mauritius (7.6%) and Swaziland (4.2%). Women's representation in local government is lower than at national level, except in Namibia (41%) and Seychelles (52%).[27]

Women's access to politics is constrained, above all, by conservative attitudes about "women's proper place." The type of electoral system also influences access. Women have a better chance of being elected in a system of proportional representation combined with a legislated quota than in a constituency-based system. For example, ANC and Frelimo have voluntary 30 per cent quotas. The strong showing of Namibian women in local government elections was due to a legislated quota and a proportional representation system. However, in countries such as Tanzania, which have a quota (15%) combined with a constituency based system, women continue to confront the stereotype that they are incapable of competing openly with men.

Women's political participation is also constrained by their marginalization in political party structures, their lower level of education and lesser access to campaign funds, and the voting public/women's ignorance about gender equality issues in political campaigns. Women's effective participation in politics is as important as their access: their location within cabinet, their ability to transform political institutions (e.g. challenging male, cut-throat styles of debate) and bringing forward gender-relevant issues for debate (e.g. domestic violence acts).

Working towards good governance is more effective if there is broad participation by women, as well as by men, and if leaders take account of the diversity of needs of their constituents (Greenberg, February 1998). Although the South African government has taken forceful legal and institutional measures to promote equality in democratic governance, there is still a "culture of silence"—women are not accustomed to speaking out, largely because of the force of tradition in a patriarchal society.

The Greenberg report focuses on opportunities for technical assistance[28] to address gender issues and to strengthen women's political participation through:

- Capacity building (e.g., through coalitions, leadership skills, information dissemination);
- Expanding the number of women in government, such as local officials and civil servants (e.g., mentoring and training programs); and
- Supporting the translation of progressive gender-relevant policies and laws into practice (e.g. by engaging men as well as women).

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[27] These figures were from the Lowe Morna (May 2000) document. Current figures are available in *Appendix D*.

[28] Examples are given of many South African NGOs and other organizations which donors can support. The report contains concrete recommendations for donors to integrate gender into existing democracy and governance projects by capacity building assistance to government; developing new approaches to working with grassroots partners; and integrating gender issues into diverse types of training (e.g. human rights and conflict prevention).

Conclusions

Despite the still limited political representation of women and the continued attitude that women do not belong in public life, the women's movements of the 1990s had important successes in:

- Contributing to constitution-making and to the inclusion of gender equality provisions in new or revised constitutions (e.g. in South Africa, Zambia, Malawi and Uganda);
- Improving women's legal status through successful advocacy for new legislation (on property and land rights, inheritance and citizenship laws, domestic violence, rape and defilement);
- Uniting a diversity of interest groups to oppose sectarian politics based on ethnicity; and
- Opposing state corruption and political patronage. Autonomous, non-partisan women's organizations are in the forefront of challenging the politics of "clientelism" and corruption that still dominate politics in many African states (Tripp, 2001).

The SADC Gender Unit and stakeholders in member countries are using the *SADC Plan of Action on Women in Politics and Decision Making* to tackle constraints and issues (Lowe Morna, May 2000).

Greenberg (February 1998) concludes that to strengthen and increase women's political participation, there must be increased capacity building, an increase in the number of women in government and support for gender-relevant policies and laws put into practice.

Recommendations[29]

Given the large number of stakeholders, both regional and national, who are working for increased participation of women in key political processes, it is recommended that the RCSA focus their efforts (nationally and thematically) in cooperation with other stakeholders.

It is recommended to consider specific areas of focus, such as *gender training of media personnel in election issues reporting, or building capability of women politicians,* rather than other areas where the US may not have a comparative advantage.

The RCSA can support its regional partner organizations in increasing assistance in areas of capacity building, expanding the number of women in government and supporting the translation of progressive gender-relevant policies and laws into practice.

Analyzing the existing situation and stakeholder initiatives in a specific country is recommended so that technical assistance can make a positive and meaningful contribution.

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[29] Also see Chapter 7: Reduced Corruption in Southern Africa.

In Yeshiareg and Martin (July 2002, p. 25, and pp. ix, 20), it is recommended to assess results achieved to date by the Engendering SADC Parliaments activity and the sustainability of the mechanisms supported. If necessary, provide additional support (and / or mobilize support from other donors) to ensure the sustainability of these initiatives within the SADC Parliamentary Forum. Sustaining the capacity and mechanisms developed will be important in achieving and maintaining greater political participation by women and in addressing gender-based legal status and reform issues, and gender issues related to HIV / AIDS[30] throughout the region.

Suggested Indicators

- SO: Strengthened Regional Institutions to Promote More Effective Democratic Processes (draft dated 3 / 25 / 03)[31]
  - — Increased capacity of organizations seeking to achieve regional democracy and governance impacts is measured by the percentage of organizations classified as strong, according to six dimensions, which do not include gender. It is recommended to include a dimension to measure capacity to address gender issues, such as percentage of staff members trained in gender analysis (Yeshiareg and Martin, July 2002, p. 27).
- IR1—Bilateral missions have increased access to services and information to strengthen national actors.
  - — Increased numbers of bilateral missions to which gender-relevant services and information have been provided.
  - — Increased numbers of national actors requesting / using gender relevant services and information provided by missions.
- IR2—Improved management of regional democracy and governance programs.
  - — Number of improved programs with staff with gender expertise and gender sensitivity applied to the design and implementation of programs.
- IR3—Increased enforcement of key regional norms and standards.
  - — Identification of key regional norms and standards, with a verification of non-discrimination on the basis of sex.
- IR4—More transparent and accountable regional institutions.
  - — Increased numbers of regional institutions with policies and practices in place that are verifiable with regard to gender-sensitive practices.
- SO: Improved electoral competition in southern Africa.

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[30] See also Chapter 8: HIV / AIDS.

[31] See Appendix C, which sets forth a guide that may assist in developing gender-sensitive indicators.

— Percentage of citizens expressing trust and confidence in select electoral competition processes and institutions (current). Suggested change: Percentage of female / male citizens expressing trust and confidence in select electoral competition processes and institutions.

— Transparency International Index, Afrobarometer (current). Suggested change is to ensure that the measurement considers gender as a factor.

— Improved civil and political rights record (State Dept. HR report) (current). Consider, improved civil and political rights records in which explicit attention is given to women's rights.

— Progress made in meeting the Millennium Challenge Account (governing justly) eligibility criteria (World Bank) (current).

- IR1—Increased accountability and transparency of electoral competition processes in the region.

  — Use of corruption control mechanisms (World Bank) (linked to the African Bureau's anti-corruption initiative) (current). Consider, use of corruption control mechanisms which include gender impact assessment.

- IR2—Improved electoral processes through compliance with regional norms and standards.

  — Degree to which electoral laws and rules conform to regional norms and standards (EISA Report) (current). Consider, number of countries in which gender analysis and / or advocacy for affirmative action has resulted in changes to electoral laws and rules so as to facilitate women's increased participation.[32]

[32] For example, in the April 2003 parliamentary elections in Nigeria, registration fees for women candidates who wished to stand for election were waived.

7. Reduced Corruption in Southern Africa

The RCSA concept paper addresses this topic as a strategic focus area and a cross-cutting theme. A results framework was not received.

The development challenge is that corruption, and the perception of corruption, is endemic in the region.

Opportunities exist with the recognition of corruption by many African leaders. The SADC Heads of State have signed a regional protocol on corruption. Civil society has begun to organize itself around issues of corruption and good governance and donors are coming to a consensus about addressing corruption issues. RCSA will support the implementation of the USAID Anti-corruption Initiative in southern Africa through activities that empower civil society to play a greater role in a variety of specific areas.

Potential focus areas are:

- Anti-corruption partnerships, coalitions, and networks with the intention of increasing civic participation and oversight of government decision-making processes;
- Information, research and analysis that empower reformers, within civil society, government, and the private sector, with the information and knowledge necessary to meaningfully participate in, monitor, and report on government actions and performance; and
- Regional programmatic integration enhancing, complementing, and leveraging other resources to more effectively fight corruption in the region.

Critical Gender-based Constraints and Issues: a Review of the Literature[33]

In *Gender and corruption* (Swamy et al., 2001), the authors analyse three sets of different types of data to investigate whether increasing women's participation in public life will reduce corruption.

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[33] See also Dollar et al. (October 1999).

World Value Surveys carried out in many countries in the North and South in the 1980s-90s investigated people's attitudes, including to dishonest behavior and bribe taking. In most countries, the percentage of women who said that bribe taking was never justified was higher than the percentage of men.

In a World Bank survey of 350 business firms in Georgia (formerly part of the Soviet Union), managers were questioned on whether they were asked to give bribes to government agencies. The percentage of male firm managers reporting that they did give bribes was twice as high as the percentage of female firm managers.

Analyses of macro-level country data and cross-country comparisons were made to examine the relationship between women's status and the severity of corruption in public life. The latter included both high-level corruption by senior government officials and petty corruption such as demands for bribes in connection with, e.g., import/export licenses, tax assessment, police services, etc. Three measures of women's status were used: their proportion in national parliaments; their proportion of ministerial positions; and their share of the labor force. Results of statistical manipulations showed a consistent pattern: that higher participation of women in politics and commerce is positively correlated with a lower incidence of corruption.

Conclusion

There are policy implications—that progress in promoting women's participation in political and economic life will contribute to reducing tolerance of corruption.

Some countries have already acted on the common feeling that women are less prone to corruption; for example, in Mexico City, only female traffic police are allowed to write tickets. The Swamy et al. (2001) article demonstrates that this "feeling" is confirmed when various relevant data sets are analyzed. In particular, the argument that promoting gender equality in politics and commerce pays off in terms of reducing tolerance of corruption is relevant to the Strategic Plan.

Another point to consider is that corruption affects and impacts on women and men differently, because they are involved in different activities and have different locations in power structures. For example, women are more vulnerable to petty corruption at health service delivery points because they, with their children, are in the majority of clients. They have less power to complain or to resist. And, they have less money in the first place, so petty corruption depletes their already limited resources. Women are also vulnerable to threats of sexual violence (as men are not) if they do not acquiesce to petty corruption when dealing with the police, with customs officers, etc.

Recommendations

Continued support for women's participation in political and economic life is recommended in an effort to reduce tolerance to corruption.

Where appropriate, with other donor organizations or partner organizations, share findings and lessons learned from programs targeting anti-corruption. Where possible, share training experiences, especially for gender analysis in program design, implementation, data collection, etc.

Additional recommendations are found in the Gender Assessment and Recommendations for Enhancing Gender Integration into USAID/RCSA's Program (Yeshiareg and Martin, July 2002, pp. xi, 25, 26).

Possible Indicators

- Number of established partnerships, coalitions and networks with the intention of increasing civic participation for women (explicitly) and men and oversight of government decision-making processes.[34]
- Numbers of established mechanisms to provide information, research and analyses that empower "women/men" reformers, within civil society, government, and the private sector, with the information and knowledge necessary to meaningfully participate in, monitor, and report on government actions and performance.
- Numbers of studies on the ways that corruption impacts on different categories of women and men in different sectors of economic and political life.
- Enhanced regional gender-sensitive programmatic integration complementing and leveraging other resources to effectively fight corruption in the region.

[34] See Appendix C, which sets forth a guide that may assist in developing gender-sensitive indicators.

8. HIV/AIDS

HIV / AIDS is a strategic focus area and a cross-cutting theme. A results framework was not received.

The development challenge is the current high rate of HIV / AIDS within southern Africa and the fact that the epidemic continues to grow at an alarming rate in most countries.

Opportunity exists with the recognition that HIV / AIDS is a long-term problem requiring multi-sector approaches to prevention, care and mitigation. The RCSA will address the HIV / AIDS pandemic through a multi-sector response that focuses on reducing and mitigating regional impacts, rather than on prevention or care. Activities will be mainstreamed into each strategic objective and technical assistance will be provided to bilateral missions to mainstream and implement HIV / AIDS mitigation activities into their portfolios.

Potential focus areas are:

- Regional networking, information sharing, and advocacy to facilitate networking and information sharing across the region on innovative approaches to HIV / AIDS mitigation, and strengthen the capacity of civil society to advocate for effective mitigation measures;
- Policy dialogue and development planning to support the integration of HIV / AIDS mitigation strategies into development planning and programs;
- Mitigate labor force impacts by developing innovative labor-saving technologies to reduce the impacts of HIV / AIDS on the labor force; and
- Information and knowledge providing management the analytical basis for developing effective HIV / AIDS impact mitigation strategies.

Critical Gender-based Constraints and Issues: a Review of the Literature

The *AIDS and agriculture, food security, and nutrition* (USAID, 2003) workshop focused on the links between HIV / AIDS and the agricultural sector, especially in southern Africa. Gender

concerns are integrated into the coverage of policy and implementation issues. The findings are intended to inform the work of USAID bureaus.[35]

The AIDS pandemic is extremely serious in southern Africa, where 30-40 per cent of the [adult] population are HIV positive. The impact on the agriculture sector is severe, and the current famine in the region has been labeled a "new variant" famine because its causes are linked to the impacts of AIDS on food security. There is evidence of decreased land under cultivation, rural and household labor shortage, and shifts to less valuable but less labor-intensive crops. Women have been disproportionately affected, as their increased burden of care for the sick and orphans has negatively affected their work in agriculture production.

Suffering in silence: the links between human rights abuses and HIV transmission to girls in Zambia (Human Rights Watch, 2003) is a report that documents the vulnerability of girls and argues that sexual violence and abuse contribute to the disparity in infection prevalence. HIV prevalence among girls under age 18 in eastern and southern Africa is four to seven times higher than the prevalence among boys of the same age.

The report gives girls' own testimonies about sexual violence to which they have been subjected and the many different types of situations in which they are at risk. For example, one 17 year old explained that, "I used to be in a youth group [at church]. I thought I could rely on [the priest but] he called me to his office . . .[and] started undressing me, and said if I screamed, he'd shoot me and my parents" (p. 32). Girls who live in rural villages on border towns and along trucking routes are at great risk. Truckers call these girls "village chickens," who—they say—are cheaper to buy [i.e. to coerce into sex] than city girls ["chickens from the supermarkets"] (p. 40).

The report examines three common situations of sexual abuse that increase girls' risk of HIV infection:

- Within families, including assault by guardians of orphans, and at school, by teachers;
- Abuse of girls who are heads of household and who, because of extreme poverty, often have few options other than trading sex for survival; and
- Abuse of girls who live on the street.

Sexual violence is related to:

- The subordinate social status of women and girls, which makes it difficult or impossible for them to negotiate safe sex;
- Men's pursuit of ever younger girls who are assumed to be HIV negative or with whom they believe having sex will "cure" AIDS; and
- Discrimination in girls' access to education (e.g. more girls than boys are withdrawn from school because of family poverty or to look after AIDS patients at home).

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[35] See also HIV / AIDS and food security in Africa (deWaal, 2003) and Gender equity and peace building: from rhetoric to reality: finding the way (Strickland and Duvvury, 2003).

In *Gender and HIV/AIDS: taking stock of research and programmes*, gender (i.e. societal expectations about appropriate female and male roles and behavior) is viewed as an important factor in HIV transmission and in the impact that AIDS has on individuals and societies. This "best practice" collection explains the inter-relationships between gender and HIV / AIDS, and includes 1) research on women and men's differing vulnerabilities and 2) programming responses to address gender-related issues. The report is based both on extensive literature review and on primary research.

At the level of individual risk, gender norms result in:

- Constraints on women's ability to discuss sex and to seek information, by comparison with men's;
- Young women's vulnerability to non-consensual sex with older men;
- Violence against women[36], increasing their risk of infection; and
- Vulnerability of men because of higher rates of sexual partner change, compared to women, and alcohol and drug use.

At the level of societal vulnerability, socio-economic factors pose constraints to changes in risky behavior. For example, men who migrate and women who seek waged employment in export-sector enclaves are at risk. Power imbalances between women and men shape women's economic dependency and place women at risk from the sexual behaviour of their partners. The impacts of AIDS are also gender-differentiated, such as an increased burden for women to undertake productive activities as a result of men's illness and death.

In *Violence, vengeance and gender: investigation into the links between violence against women and HIV/AIDS in South Africa*, Vetten and Bhana (April 2001) argue that there is another epidemic in South Africa besides HIV / AIDS—violence against women. Efforts to combat both have typically been parallel rather than complementary to each other.

There are no reliable national statistics on men's use of force, abuse, threat and intimidation against women. However, one study reports that 39 per cent of young women, 12-17 years old, said that they had been forced to have sex. violence against women is one factor that increases women's vulnerability and response to HIV infection. A literature review of (small case) studies shows that linkages between violence against women and HIV / AIDS include:

- Coercive sexual practices (although many women do not define these experiences as "rape" but accept them as part of their marital or even workplace obligations);

[36] While it is true that promoting women's participation in politics and decision-making might expose them to violence, it is also true that more participation of women at the decision-making structures would ensure that women's experiences, knowledge about various issues and HIV / AIDS in particular would be incorporated into the decision-making processes. Parliaments in the southern Africa region, through efforts of the SADC Parliamentary Forum (SADC-PF), have established the following committees: Gender, Women's Caucuses and HIV / AIDS. If these are strengthened, the southern Africa region is likely to see gender and HIV / AIDS sensitive and responsive laws and policies come out of parliaments. There is already evidence of serious debates on these issues in the various parliaments.

- HIV positive status which precipitates sexual assault (e.g. the common belief throughout southern Africa that sex with a virgin or young girl will "cure" AIDS);
- Condom use (e.g. women have less power to negotiate safe sex, and wives who request condom use are often accused of infidelity or are subject to partner violence); and
- Disclosure of HIV status (e.g. women do not disclose because of fear of a male partner's violent reaction; those who do disclose are liable to abandonment, or even murder).

Structured interviews with 52 NGOs and state organizations working with violence against women and/or HIV/AIDS issues were used to identify linkages, activities being undertaken, gaps in current initiatives and ways in which these could be strengthened. Findings revealed other examples of possible links between violence against women and HIV/AIDS, including:

- Virginity testing which is increasingly common in South Africa and is an abuse of the rights of young girls;
- Violence against HIV positive women by members of their community;
- HIV testing of women without their consent; and
- Refusal of anti-retroviral treatment to women who have been raped.

Conclusions

Based on the USAID workshop, two general approaches should be used for USAID development interventions: 1) the AIDS audit approach, in which a program's vulnerability to AIDS is assessed, and 2) the AIDS "lens" approach, in which HIV concerns are integrated into design of all programs. Implementation strategies should include initiatives 1) to improve the situation of widows who have weak claims to land and are precluded by tradition from production of high value crops (e.g. sugar cane), and 2) to facilitate the empowerment of young women and girls who are at severe risk of infection.

In the Zambia case, USAID is a leading donor for HIV/AIDS programs in Zambia, including support for a project targeting truck drivers and sex workers at border crossings. It was concluded that USAID could be more effective by integrating attention to the human rights abuses of young girls and the link to HIV/AIDS transmission in all its program support.

Most programming responses to the AIDS pandemic have focused on prevention of HIV transmission rather than on reduction of its impacts. However, there is evidence that programs that improve women's socio-economic status contribute to reducing gender-based constraints that make women vulnerable. Programs that address men's vulnerability are still limited. Future challenges are to better understand male sexuality in relation to risky behavior and to develop context-specific indicators to measure reductions in gender inequalities related to HIV/AIDS vulnerability (UNAIDS, 1999).

Since most state and civil society initiatives in South Africa deal with rape, rather than abusive relationships and links to HIV / AIDS more generally, it is concluded that a broader understanding of violence and more context-specific definitions of violence against women (violence against women) are necessary to inform policies and interventions. For example, abandonment of HIV positive women by partners, in a context where they have unequal access to economic resources for survival, should be seen as economic abuse. The usual HIV prevention message, *to abstain, be faithful and use a condom*, is not helpful for many women subject to rape and other forms of sexual coercion and who are powerless to negotiate safe sex.

Recommendations

For the RCSA supported interventions, it is recommended to support the use of two general approaches: the AIDS audit approach in which a program's vulnerability to AIDS is assessed and the AIDS "lens" approach, in which HIV concerns are integrated into the design of all programs. Also, support partner organizations in implementation strategies that include initiatives 1) to improve the situation of widows who have weak claims to land and are precluded by tradition from production of high value crops (e.g. sugar cane), and 2) to facilitate the empowerment of young women and girls who are at severe risk of infection. In general, all the RCSA interventions, or support to partner organizations, should integrate HIV concerns addressing vulnerability to AIDS and the impacts that are likely to occur on gender inequalities in relation to AIDS vulnerabilities.

It is likely that common patterns, such as seen in the Zambian case, exist throughout the SADC region. Therefore, it is recommended 1) to increase the awareness of the prevalence of sexual abuse of young girls and to include that awareness in the HIV / AIDS cross-cutting theme as an issue; and 2) that specific initiatives such as promotion of cross-border trade and support to businesses incorporating HIV / AIDS actions, should include explicit attention to reducing risk to young girls and women entrepreneurs who operate at the downstream end of trade. A further recommendation for the RCSA is to work with government partners to include these issues in trade policy documents, which typically deal with macro-economic issues and not human impacts.

Violence against women is a priority issue for women in the sub-region, and it is linked in specific ways to HIV / AIDS. It is recommended that efforts to reduce violence against women be integrated within the cross-cutting theme of HIV / AIDS.

Possible Indicators[37]

The possible indicators are based on the concept paper.

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[37] See Appendix C as a guide for developing gender-sensitive indicators.

- Established network / systems accomplishing regional networking and information sharing across the region on innovative gender-sensitive approaches to HIV / AIDS mitigation;
- Number of gender analyses conducted to support integration of HIV / AIDS mitigation strategies into development planning and programs;
- Number of completed gender-sensitive development plans and policy dialogues to support the integration of HIV / AIDS mitigation strategies into development planning and programs;
- Developed innovative labor-saving technologies to mitigate the impact of HIV / AIDS on the labor force;
- Number of technologies developed specifically to cater to the needs of women and of youth; and
- Developed information systems providing information and knowledge about the analytical basis for developing effective gender-sensitive HIV / AIDS impact mitigation strategies.

9. Conflict Vulnerability

Conflict vulnerability is a cross-cutting theme. A results framework was not available for review. The conflict vulnerability SOW was utilized for background information.

The following factors could affect the potential for conflict or peace in the region:

- Demographic factors, including population growth and urbanization, unemployed youth, former combatants, victims of war;
- Environmental factors, water, droughts, land, desertification, floods, mineral resources;
- Economic factors, economic growth, economic deprivation, labor migration, unemployment, poverty;
- Political and governance factors, political participation, support for democracy, legitimacy of the state, rule of law, human rights;
- HIV / AIDS, impact on resources and social and economic stability;
- Factors identified by bilateral missions that have been actively monitoring and assessing conflict in their respective countries; and
- Gender relations.

The RCSA will 1) prepare an appropriate conflict vulnerability analysis, 2) summarize the findings of such analysis in the strategic plan, and 3) specifically indicate when and how these findings affect the proposed strategic plan.

Critical Gender-based Constraints and Issues: a Review of the Literature

Gender equity and peace building: from rhetoric to reality: finding the way (Strickland and Duvvury, 2003) is based on an extensive review of a growing body of literature. Key findings are presented to illustrate how gender concerns are integral to conflict and post-conflict situations and to draw out the implications for policies and programs in post-conflict reconstruction settings.

Women's lives are affected by armed conflict, and its aftermath, differently than men's. In the absence of men, women often take over men's roles. Women are targets of sexual

violence and are at increased risk of HIV infection.[38] Although often portrayed as victims, women are also active participants both in conflict and in peace building. However, women's peace building efforts are often overlooked because these are extensions of their existing gender roles or are outside of formal peace processes. Women and men's priorities in the peace building process often differ as well, but women are marginalized in decision-making bodies.

The Windhoek Declaration, 2000, was an important international milestone. The Declaration emphasized that principles of gender equality should be integrated into all processes of peace building and of reconstruction over the long term. This was an important input into U.N. Security Council Resolution 1325 (October 2000). Member governments and the U.N. system itself are now required to incorporate women's concerns and a gender perspective into all aspects of peacekeeping and reconstruction.

However, despite more awareness of gender-sensitive requirements, specific approaches and programs to address gender-based discrimination are not yet well developed or implemented.

Although African women have been active in grassroots peace *building* organizations, they are noticeably absent from major peace *making* negotiations on the continent, as noted in *Closing the circle: towards a gendered understanding of war and peace* (Cock, July 2001).

Women also support and participate in war, but they bring a different perspective to peace making, compared to men—one focused on meeting basic human needs, rather than power. A gendered perspective on peace includes:

- Supporting local women in peace building and social reconstruction efforts;
- Meeting the needs of female refugees, displaced persons and female ex-combatants;
- Recognizing the links between masculine identities and violence;
- Understanding that women who are responsible for household economies suffer the most from poverty, environmental degradation and other outcomes of violent conflict;
- Addressing gender-based violence, which increases in post-conflict situations; and
- Promoting women in political peace making.

These issues are pertinent in southern Africa, where a process of demilitarization began in 1989. However, since 1997 South Africa has begun to remilitarize, and violence and militarized conceptions of masculinity are still seen by the political elite as legitimate.

Women's participation in Angola's reconstruction and in its political institutions and processes (Greenberg et al., July 1997) is a study that was commissioned to identify constraints and opportunities inhibiting or encouraging women's participation in the USAID Mission's programs in Angola. The findings are organized according to two USAID / Angola Strategic

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[38] See Chapter 8: HIV / AIDS, in particular, *Violence, vengeance and gender: investigation into the links between violence against women and HIV/AIDS in South Africa* (Vetten and Bhana, April 2001).

Objectives: 1) increased resettlement, rehabilitation and food self-reliance of war-affected communities and 2) increased national reconciliation through strengthened civil society and political institutions. Research was conducted in five provinces through interviews and focus groups. In addition, the report includes an overview of the historical and socio-economic factors influencing Angolan women's situation.

Given the reluctance of many demobilized male soldiers to return to war-devastated homes, women play a critical role in reconstruction efforts. Their ability to contribute is constrained by the high incidence of extremely poor female headed households and of polygamous unions, women's increased labor burden exacerbated by destruction of social and economic infrastructure, and their poor health. Interventions need to take account of the diversity among Angolan women, including internally displaced persons resettled in urban slums, women disabled from landmines, poor rural women, women in transit camps and those in demobilization camps.

The report also identifies constraints to women's participation in democracy, governance and civil society and draws attention to opportunities such as capacity building for NGOs and women's groups and influencing newly formed legal and judicial institutions.

Conclusions

In Strickland and Duvvury (2003), it is concluded that gender relations are characterized by a power imbalance. As a result, women's reconstruction priorities are typically subordinated in decision-making systems that are dominated by men and that reflect male-determined issues. Transformative approaches towards gender equality are necessary to eliminate deeply rooted traditional norms about gender, which continue to characterize most peacekeeping and reconstruction initiatives.

Cock notes, in *Closing the circle, towards a gendered understanding of war and peace*, that a positive step is the African Women's Peace Table (meeting in Pretoria since 2000, under the leadership of the Deputy Minister of Defence), a coalition of stakeholders from regional, national and local levels, and from both state (the military) and civil society. The Peace Table promotes dialogue on and actions towards peace in a holistic way, in a spirit of reconciliation, tolerance and respect for human rights. Women involved in grassroots peace building efforts in other countries (e.g. DRC, Angola) also participate.

Recommendations

A gender perspective derived from a gender analysis should be integrated in all aspects of the Conflict Vulnerability Analysis, based on the SADC Windhoek Declaration and on Security Council Resolution 1325.[39]

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[39] The Greenberg et al. report (July 1997) covers many aspects of integrating gender concerns into post-conflict situations and, in general for RCSA, provides a model of how to integrate gender issues into the implementation of strategic objectives.

The conflict vulnerability analysis is to include recommendations on how development resources can help mitigate conflict and support peace. In this context, the recommendations should be gender sensitive and reference should be made to potential partners such as the African Women's Peace Table, Ceasefire (a South African civil society organization) and women's peace coalitions in the SADC member states.

Some general recommendations noted in Davidson and Strickland (2000, p. 6):

- Collect sex-disaggregated data to help define gender differences and support gender analysis;
- Use both qualitative and quantitative instruments to assess women's economic status and the effects of changes in policies and programs; and
- Create meaningful changes in women's economic status through fundamental shifts in the policy context.

Possible Indicators

No examples of possible indicators were developed. However, when a results framework is developed, see *Appendix C*, which sets forth a guide that may assist in developing gender-sensitive indicators.

10. Strengthening Gender Approaches for RCSA: Identifying Partner Organizations

There are many potential partners that the RCSA might wish to support and with which to cooperate. This section will not, however, identify potential partners by name of organization (except in a few cases), but will rather indicate the types of partners that are relevant to achievement of the strategic objectives.

The types of potential partners identified include both government and civil society organizations (CSOs). In the latter case, attention is drawn to regional networks as well as to national (i.e. indigenous) NGOs and other types of organizations, such as from the private sector.

There are differences among the SADC member states in the number, experience, capabilities and vibrancy of civil society organizations, and these differences influence the types and forms of possible partnerships. The political shift to multi-party democracies, as in Tanzania, Zambia and Malawi, has been accompanied by an exponential increase in numbers of diverse interest groups. The regime in Swaziland, in contrast, makes it difficult for civic groups to organize freely. Although NGOs are active in countries devastated by war (Angola), support may need to focus on capacity building. The situation in the Democratic Republic of Congo is unclear. In Zimbabwe, the RCSA, with its SADC partners, will have to exercise considerable diplomacy in order to cooperate with NGOs, including women's NGOs, which are subject to state repression.[40]

Regardless of the organizations with which the RCSA partners, *gender* should be made a requirement in all the support which the RCSA gives to its partners. That is the only way to ensure gender equality becomes a norm in the region rather than an exception.

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[40] While the work of RCSA impacts at the national level, it's mandate is at the regional level. Therefore, strengthening regional civil society organization networks would be most useful for the RCSA and the region in that it would, among other things, cushion those CSOs whose space for activism has been shrunk by the dominance of the executive arm of government and repressive regimes.

SADC

The Gender Unit at SADC is the most obvious partner with which the RCSA can cooperate to promote attention to gender issues in the Strategic Plan. With (apparently) only two staff members, its capacity may be limited, however. The Gender Unit will be a good source of advice, however, on specific and relevant regional and national organizations with which potential partnerships can be explored.

The RCSA should also work on gender issues directly with the four SADC Directorates in Gaborone: 1) Trade, Industry, Finance and Investment[41]; 2) Food, Agriculture and Natural Resources[42]; 3) Infrastructure and Services; and 4) Social and Human Development and Special Programs.[43] The SADC Declaration on Gender and Development[44] obliges all to include gender concerns in all programs.

The SADC Parliamentary Forum and the Chief Justices Forum are two others for the RCSA to consider for partnership.

A general recommendation for all interventions under the Strategic Plan is for the RCSA to explicitly and actively assist partners to implement the SADC Declaration, including building their capacity to do so.

Member States

All SADC member states have a government office responsible for "women's affairs" and for integrating attention to gender issues in government policy-making and planning (a so-called "national machinery for the advancement of women"). The form that this office takes and its location within government vary from one country to another. However, all are characterized by their marginalization (in terms of grossly inadequate funding and poor links to the corridors of power) within government. Rather than dismissing these offices as too weak in capacity and influence, to the extent possible, the RCSA can use its partnership with SADC to insist on the inclusion of the national machinery in specific interventions. In particular, their inclusion in policy formulation and other macro-level activities is important to build their capacity.

Some of the government ministries with which the RCSA[45] and its SADC partners will cooperate have gender units with dedicated staff positions (as opposed to so-called "gender focal points" who usually have no influence within their ministries). Where there is a gender unit, it is important that it is included in policy and planning exercises.

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[41] See Chapter 2, specifically Pheko (June 1999), GENTA Research Office (August 2000), and APRODEV (November 2002).
[42] See Chapters 5 and 8, especially Population Reference Bureau (January 2002) and USAID (2003).
[43] In addition, the RCSA should consider working with COMESA, especially as the relationship expands between COMESA and SADC, in mainstreaming gender issues.
[44] See SADC (September 1997) *Gender and development*. A declaration by heads of state or government of the Southern African Development Community.
[45] While this recommendation might be more appropriate for bi-lateral missions, the RCSA may have some influence with the SADC partners.

Regional NGOs

There are regional (sometimes continental) networks that bring together national member NGOs, research institutions, and others on issues of common interest. These networks offer good possibilities for partnership with the RCSA. By way of example (only), SANGONet (Southern African Non-Governmental Organization Network) is a major umbrella organization. The Society of Women and AIDS in Africa, a continent-wide organization, and Women and Law in Southern Africa (regional) are well-established networks working on themes relevant to the Strategic Plan.

There are other regional issue-based networks (besides those that are "women specific") that integrate attention to gender equality in their programs. For example, networks of organizations working on human rights and / or democracy and governance, are potential partners, such as HURINet (Human Rights Information Network).

Potential partners may exist for the RCSA amongst such regional organizations as WiLDAF, WLSA, Gender Links, Media Institute of Southern Africa and others.

National Civil Society Organizations

In many countries these are so numerous that it has proved difficult or impossible to keep national NGO directories up to date. There are national civil society organizations organized around all of the themes in the Strategic Objectives: gender and trade, associations of women entrepreneurs and businesswomen, gender in democracy and governance[46], electoral support and civic education, sustainable environment, promotion of community participation, etc.[47]

Some of the national organizations in some countries in the region have done a good job of promoting women's participation in politics and decision-making at a national level. These organizations are now seeking to expand their coverage beyond their national borders. The RCSA should consider providing support to such organizations.

In identifying potential partners, it is important to keep the following in mind:

- Some of the well-known, successful NGOs attract so much donor support that their capacity is over-stretched.
- Some thematic NGOs—such as those working on election issues—may not be gender-sensitive, with the result that women have had to form their own parallel

[46] The recently conducted DG assessment has revealed that southern African states are failing to complete the democratization process due to an implementation crisis in the region. That is, they lack of agreed to norms and standards both at regional and national levels. Lack of implementation of policies and programs that would bring about development. Hence, it would be useful to build the demand side for this implementation; i.e., the regional CSO networks, regional legislative bodies, Chief Justices Forum and similar. There seems to be very little hope in the region that the executive arm of governments will do anything in terms of implementation without a push from other actors in the democratization process.

[47] See also Greenberg (February 1998), Tripp (2001), Cock (July 2001) and Flood et al. (1997).

organizations; however, RCSA can make gender-responsiveness a condition of partnership—with civic electoral monitoring groups for example.

- Private sector organizations (e.g. commercial farmers bureaus, Chambers of Commerce) have often not had a good track record on facilitating opportunities for women; again women have formed parallel organizations.
- In the preceding case, however, associations of women entrepreneurs tend to be composed of already better-off women, leaving the vast majority who work in agriculture or informal-sector enterprises unrepresented.
- A distinction should be made between NGOs which are "project" and "community" or micro-level oriented and those which focus more on macro-level issues (e.g. trade and other aspects of liberalization, legal reform—such as land law, etc.). The latter are important potential partners for RCSA.
- At the same time, community-based organizations (such as associations of water users) are important; but just because they label themselves as "community based" or "participatory" does not automatically mean that they are gender sensitive. In some cases, they are not gender sensitive, nor are they participatory. USAID/RCSA can again use conditionality as a way of strengthening gender sensitivity in partnership with such organizations.

Donors

The bilateral and multilateral donors[48] working in the same areas included in the strategic plan include some with extensive experience in gender integration. For example, SNV (Dutch), DfID and The World Bank, which are reportedly working in the area of rural livelihoods, all have strong commitment to gender equality and/or women's empowerment and have collected examples of good practices that they can share. Of the donors reportedly working in the area of regional competitiveness, DfID, CIDA and UNDP have all taken strong positions on gender equality as a goal, gender mainstreaming as an approach and both applied to macro-economic issues. The RCSA can dialogue with these and other identified donors on sharing of experiences and possible collaborative efforts to strengthen attention to gender issues in themes of common interest.

Key Recommendations for RCSA and its Partners

A challenge for donor organizations, and national initiatives, is that gender issues are integrated into strategic plans at the beginning of the process, but then there is limited, if any, follow-through. Without clearly stating how and by whom the SO and IR gender issue is going to be implemented in practice, and which resources—human, financial, institutional—are going to be allocated, eventually the integrated gender issues "evaporate" (Derbyshire, April 2002, p. 31).

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[48] See also Hellum (2001) and WEDO (January 2003) where it is suggested that donors have an obligation to work with national and regional partners to understand and apply international treaties such as CEDAW.

Therefore, as a donor organization developing a strategic plan and integrating gender issues, it is essential to clearly state how and by whom the SO and IR gender issue is going to be implemented in practice, and which resources are going to be allocated. Also, develop corresponding *gender sensitive* indicators as a basis for monitoring and evaluation.

Working groups developing the SOs and IRs should ensure they consider *people* in their topical/intervention areas, and not only take a women's perspective, but a *gender* perspective with their proposed interventions.

A general recommendation for all interventions under the Strategic Plan is for the RCSA to explicitly and actively assist partners to implement the SADC Declaration, including building their capacity to do so.

Regardless of the organizations with which the RCSA partners, *gender* should be made a requirement in all the support which the RCSA gives to its partners to ensure gender equality becomes a *norm* within the region rather than an exception.

Where there are *gender* units in organizations (or, ministries), with dedicated staff positions, with which the RCSA is working, either directly or through the SADC, ensure that the *gender* unit staff are included in policy and planning exercises. In addition, where possible, provide capacity building support to the gender unit staff.

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This is one of the few thorough empirical studies of anticipated impacts of an Economic Partnership Agreement on women. Based on primary research in Zimbabwe (up to the year 2000 and not factoring in the current political / economic crisis), the study addresses the implications for poor women of ACP-EU negotiations on future trade relations.

The aim of ACP-EU cooperation is poverty eradication. Women constitute the majority of Zimbabwe's rural poor. Living largely in communal areas, women are the major source of agricultural labor but face severe supply-side constraints in accessing land and other economic resources.

The EU's Common Agricultural Policy is likely to result in low-priced EU maize exports undermining the maize production of women farmers. Future ACP-EU trade relations will have negative impacts on women unless small-scale producers are explicitly

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[49] The criteria used in identifying documents to include in the Annotated Bibliography were as follows:

- Overviews or state-of-the art analyses that set out the key gender issues with respect to the Strategic Objectives;
- Recent empirical research or analytical studies that concretely demonstrate the linkages between gender concerns and the Strategic Objectives; and
- Inclusion of studies from as many of the SADC member states as possible (however, it was not possible to fulfil this criteria).

The guiding questions used to review and to annotate each reference were:

- Are gender relationships and gender inequalities analysed? Is women's situation discussed in the context of gender inequality, or in isolation?
- What are the key gender / women's issues covered? What are the key or emerging gender needs (practical) and interests (strategic)?
- How do unequal gender relationships (or women's status) affect women and men's ability to participate in and to benefit from interventions?
- What are the key constraints to women and men's participation in and benefit from interventions? What actions are needed to make participation and benefit more equal?
- What recommendations are made to improve the effectiveness of interventions, relevant to achievement of the Strategic Objectives in the RCSA Strategic Plan for FY 2004 – FY 2010?

protected (as is being discussed with respect to special trading arrangements for cereals in the SADC Free Trade Zone.)

Bamberger, Michael. December 1-3 1999. Designing travel and transport projects which respond to the needs of both women and men. Paper presented at the Rural Travel and Transport Program 14th Coordinating Committee Meeting, in Pretoria, South Africa. 4 pp.
http://www.worldbank.org/gender/transport/Key_Issues/gndrsens.htm

This brief paper, presented in outline form, provides a useful quick guide to key gender issues in rural travel and transport. The topics covered are 1) women's social and economic responsibilities and related travel needs, 2) constraints on their access to travel and transport, 3) the economic costs in terms of efficiency and equity of women's limited access, 4) promising approaches and 5) challenges to governments and donors in addressing women's transport needs.

Besides the well-known constraints to women's access to travel and transport, such as their limited voice in planning transport interventions, there are also constraints on women transport entrepreneurs. Because women entrepreneurs have more limited access than men to credit and to technical assistance, women are in the minority of those who own and manage small companies, and they often find it more difficult than men to compete for road maintenance contracts.

There are serious economic and social costs of women's limited access to travel and transport. For example, their agricultural productivity is affected when they suffer post-harvest losses because of inadequate road infrastructure and means of transport that make transport of their products to market difficult. Women also receive lower prices for their products because lack of mobility makes it difficult to take advantage of market price fluctuations.

Among the promising approaches outlined is opening up more opportunities for women entrepreneurs in this sector by supporting their access to credit and technical assistance and giving them priority in contracts for road construction and maintenance. There are challenges for governments and donors. For example, economic analysis does not account for the economic and social costs incurred by women in burdensome, time consuming transport, and staff of implementing institutions are not trained in gender analysis.

Çagatay, Nilüfer. 2001. *Trade, gender and poverty*. New York: UNDP Bureau for Development Policy. 43 pp.
http://www.undp.org/bdp

The author summarizes existing evidence that challenges mainstream trade theory, which holds that trade liberalization leads to higher growth and to benefits for all. A gender

analysis of trade shows that women and men are differently affected by trade policies and by outcomes – or trade performance.

In industrializing countries trade liberalization appears to benefit women by opening up new and increased employment opportunities. At the same time it disadvantages them because their "comparative advantage" consists of working for low wages in inferior working conditions. Trade liberalization through increased export crop production, as in sub-Saharan Africa, disadvantages women. Small female producers are not able to compete with medium- and large-scale producers (mostly men) for new market opportunities because of their unequal access to land, credit, new technologies and marketing knowledge. Gender-based differences in resource control have particularly adverse effects where women are mostly self-employed or work as unpaid family workers, as in agriculture.

Not only are women and men differently affected by the implementation of trade policies, but gender-based inequalities also impact on trade policy outcomes. Inequalities between women and men in access to health, education and farm inputs negatively affect output, productivity and growth rates in the long run. Also, gender inequality constrains export performance, especially in agricultural economies dominated by smallholder producers and where women's contribution is significant.

Until recently gender was not considered a relevant category of analysis in mainstream macro-economics. However, new research and advocacy have been instrumental in ensuring inclusion of gender mainstreaming processes and gender review structures in two regional trade organizations (Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation Forum and Mercosur in Latin America). Policy makers need to be conversant with how the outcomes of trade liberalization are affected by gender inequality. This requires promotion of gender analysis in the context of country- and region-specific trade analysis and trade agreements and an institutional structure with the political will to ensure that trade reform will lead to equal opportunities for women and men.

Cock, Jacklyn. July 2001. Closing the circle: towards a gendered understanding of war and peace. *AGI Newsletter* 8. Cape Town: African Gender Institute. 5 pp. http://www.act.za.org/agi

Although African women have been active in grass-roots peace *building* organizations, they are noticeably absent from major peace *making* negotiations on the continent.

Although women also support and participate in war, they bring a different perspective to peace making, compared to men – one focused on meeting basic human needs, rather than power. A gendered perspective on peace includes:

- Supporting local women in peace building and social reconstruction efforts;
- Meeting the needs of female refugees, displaced persons and female ex-combatants;

- Recognizing the links between masculine identities and violence;
- Understanding that women who are responsible for household economies suffer the most from poverty, environmental degradation and other outcomes of violent conflict;
- Addressing gender-based violence, which increases in post-conflict situations; and
- Promoting women in political peace making.

These issues are pertinent in southern Africa, where a process of demilitarization began in 1989. However, since 1997 South Africa has begun to remilitarize, and violence and militarized conceptions of masculinity are still seen by the political elite as legitimate.

A positive step, however, is the African Women's Peace Table (meeting in Pretoria since 2000, under the leadership of the Deputy Minister of Defence), a coalition of stakeholders from regional, national and local levels, and from both state (the military) and civil society. The Peace Table promotes dialogue on and actions towards peace in a holistic way, in a spirit of reconciliation, tolerance and respect for human rights. Women involved in grass-roots peace building efforts in other countries (e.g. DRC, Angola) also participate.

Dollar, David, et al. October 1999. Are women really the "fairer" sex? Corruption and women in government. *Policy and Research Report on Gender and Development, Working Paper Series* 4. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank, Development Research Group / Poverty Reduction and Economic Management Network. 12 pp. http://worldbank.org/gender/prr/wp4.pdf

This was the first econometric study to empirically test a widely held social science and psychological hypothesis, that women have higher ethical standards and are more concerned with the common good, than with personal material gain, than are men. The purpose of the research was to test whether a reduction in government corruption is positively correlated with an increased percentage of women's representation in government.

The principal measure of corruption used was the *International Country Risk Guide's Corruption Index*, designed to measure whether government officials, at both low and high levels, expect bribes. The Inter-Parliamentary Union survey, *Women in Parliament: 1945-1995*, was used for the variable on women's governmental participation for the years 1985, 1990 and 1995.

The results of the statistical manipulations performed clearly indicate that women's greater representation in parliament is strongly correlated with lower levels of corruption in government. Although other variables were included, none were significant. The conclusion is that not only is increased representation of women in government of value for its own sake, as an important marker of gender equality, but that society as a whole

benefits under a less corrupt government where the presence of more women has had a positive influence on men's opportunistic behavior.

de Waal, Alex, and Joseph Tumushabe. February 2003. *HIV/AIDS and food security in Africa.* A report for DfID. 22 pp.
http://www.sarpn.org.za

The paper summarizes gender issues, together with other factors, in existing evidence on the impact of HIV / AIDS on agrarian livelihoods. There is evidence that the HIV epidemic affects agriculture more severely than other sectors because smallholders cannot cope with loss of labor resulting from AIDS-related illness and death.

Most of the burden of struggling with the impact of AIDS at household level falls on women. One of the main impacts is loss of household labor. For example, when a productive adult, especially a woman, is ill, she works less and the household devotes time and resources to her care. Death has a drastic effect on household production capability. Households facing labor shortage respond in diverse ways, e.g. by removing girls from school, investing little / no effort in soil and land conservation and shifting crop composition to those that are less labor intensive such as cassava. Other impacts are reduction in a household's disposable cash income and in their asset base, including dispossession of land especially where widows' claims to land are not protected, consumption of seeds and shift from cash-oriented to subsistence production. As the extended family and non-formal networks of social support break down, phenomena such as exploitation of orphans', especially girls', labor and property grabbing from widows increases.

Agriculture extension services are collapsing in some countries because of the effects of the pandemic, and there is a much-reduced rate of adoption of new agricultural technologies by farmers. The paper succinctly summarizes current thinking and best practice on policy and program responses to mitigate the impact of HIV / AIDS on food security, including:

- Addressing labor scarcity (e.g. promoting non-labor intensive crops);
- Completely reorienting agriculture extension (e.g. targeting AIDS / affected families, women and child headed households) and research (e.g. lighter ploughs for women and youth); and
- Learning from existing micro-credit schemes that have developed innovative approaches in AIDS-affected communities.

The first author is responsible for hypothesizing that HIV / AIDS, together with other factors such as drought and mismanagement of food reserves, is fuelling a "new variant famine" in southern Africa. The paper argues the case for urgent responses and radical interventions to address this.

Economic and Social Council. 28 January 2002. *Dialogue paper by women*. Addendum no. 1 to Secretary-General's Note for the multi-stake holder dialogue of the second preparatory committee for the World Summit on Sustainable Development. New York: United Nations ECOSOC: 16 pp. http://www.earthsummit2002.org/wcaucus/csdngo.htm

The Women's Environmental and Development Organization, in consultation with women's organizations worldwide, prepared this overview. Constraints to and progress in addressing gender issues in sustainable development since the 1992 U.N. Conference on Environment and Development are summarized and women's priorities on sustainable development issues for the future given.

Although the role of women in use and management of natural resources has been increasingly recognized, this is not yet reflected in most governmental policies on environment. Although there are isolated projects to increase women's participation in sustainable development initiatives, in general there are still few women in decision-making positions in key institutions, national and local.

Improving women's access to and control of natural resources is negatively affected by:

- Land degradation which increases their workload and responsibilities;
- Limited quantities of water, of increasingly poor quality;
- Privatization of natural resources which constrains their ability to use and conserve land, water and forest resources;
- Their lack of equal property rights;
- Appropriation of indigenous, traditional and often women's knowledge of and control over genetic resources due to international agreements on intellectual property rights;
- Information systems, such as environmental impact assessment, which are not gender sensitive; and
- Lack of appropriate indicators to measure progress on gender equality in relation to environmental issues (e.g. the U.N. Commission for Sustainable Development indicators include only one that is gender-related).

Among women's priorities are an increase in their participation in decision-making on sustainable development; ensuring sustainable livelihoods and environmental security, including more attention to the gender aspects of natural disasters; health issues, including studies on the gender aspects of exposure to hazardous substances, and the gender-specific consequences of climate change.

Flood, Tania et al. 1997. *Beyond inequalities: Women in South Africa.* Bellville: University of Western Cape, Gender Equity Unit and Harare: Southern African Research and Documentation Centre (SARDC). 92 pp.
Order at http://www.sardc/Widsaa/index.htm

This overview on women in South Africa is one of the national profiles on women and gender issues in twelve SADC member countries. All were produced by the WIDSAA (Women in Development Southern Africa Awareness) program, a regional networking program to bring together available information on the situation of women, in comparison with that of men, in the sub-region. In addition to the twelve national profiles (Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe), a synthesis volume on *Beyond inequalities: women in Southern Africa* (2000), has also been produced.[50]

All twelve volumes, including this one on South Africa, include a situation analysis, an overview of policies and programs of government, non-governmental organizations and donors and analysis of priorities for future action. The situation analysis includes sex-disaggregated data and qualitative information on the economy and the poverty situation, politics and power, social structures (e.g. family law and customary law, ethnicity, religion, etc.), education, the media, environment, health, violence and conflict.

The focus of the profiles is on identifying the obstacles to women's advancement in each country and the initiatives at national and regional levels to address these obstacles. The information in each volume is presented in an accessible way so that it can inform the development of policy frameworks and can be used by national and regional stakeholders and by the donor community. The overall goal is to contribute to furthering processes of gender mainstreaming in regional development so as to improve women's subordinate status. Each volume provides information on the relevant NGOs and civil society organizations working with each of the themes covered.

Fontana, Marzia. March 2002. Modelling the effects of trade on women: the case of Zambia. *IDS Working Paper* 155. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies. 40 pp. http://www.eldis.org/gender/index.htm

Agriculture is the most important employment sector for Zambian women, accounting for 64% of total female market time, compared to 55% for men. This paper reports the results of application of a computable general equilibrium model (CGE) to a set of 1995 data for Zambia. The model was designed to reveal gender differences in the effects of trade changes by treating women and men separately, and by taking account of differences among women and men of differing educational levels and including their household responsibilities.

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[50] Unfortunately the synthesis volume could not be obtained for inclusion in the Annotated Bibliography.

Simulations on the effects of abolition of tariffs demonstrate that as imports of manufactured food decline, production of commercial agriculture crops, especially maize, increases. Female workers with no education (the majority) benefit the most in this scenario of expanded maize production. However, previous government subsidies to maize production distorted Zambia's agricultural economy. Diversification of market-oriented crops has so far elicited a low supply response from small-scale farmers, especially women who lack time and access to productive resources. Agricultural products account for only 3% of Zambia's exports.

Simulations on the impact of agricultural export incentives show that choice of crop has differential impacts on women and men. Women benefit more from expansion of horticultural crops and groundnuts (which use a higher share of female labor) than they do from expansion of male-intensive crops such as tobacco and coffee. However, the impact varies for women of differing educational levels, benefiting those with primary education the most. Reallocation of assets from production of maize to production of female-intensive crops makes women more productive and increases their wages relative to men's; however, it also reduces their time for household and leisure activities. Women working for wages in horticultural production are more likely to control their income, compared to women whose labor on and income from family-produced crops is controlled by men.

The paper concludes by noting that price incentives in agriculture will benefit women more if there are complementary policies to reduce their burden of social reproduction, thus enabling them to respond to trade and market reforms.

GENTA Research Office. August 2001. *Trade liberalization: impacts on African women.* Prepared for The International Gender and Trade Network (IGTN) meeting. Cape Town: Gender and Trade in Africa. 32 pp. http://www.genderandtrade.net/Africa/Africa.htm

This overview summarizes the general and gendered impacts of specific international trade agreements on African countries and provides case studies on specific impacts, e.g. on food security and sustainable rural livelihoods.

The Agreement on Agriculture (AOA) has resulted in higher-cost producing LDCs being flooded with cheap imports from lower-cost producing developed countries. African women's small-scale agricultural and craft production is negatively affected because of declining markets for their products. The Trade Related Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) undermines the livelihoods of African women farmers who are traditionally custodians of seeds and medicinal plant knowledge. The General Agreement on Trade and Services (GATS) has negative impacts on African women employees and entrepreneurs, who are concentrated in vulnerable lower and middle echelons of national service industries such as health care provision.

A study in Zimbabwe indicates that trade liberalization has had negative differential impacts on female and male small-holder producers, and on their food security, as a result

of the country's shift from a net exporter to a net importer of maize. There is evidence that South Africa's agreement with the EU, including relinquishing rights to Italy with respect to the designation of *grappa*, may have negative impacts on South African women; they may lose employment as casual labor in wine plantations and wineries, through job reduction as South Africa struggles to reposition itself in the international market.

A main conclusion is that a gender perspective is critical in analyzes of the consequences of trade liberalization. Because the two sexes have differing roles in production and in service provision, processes of trade liberalization have differing impacts on women and men and can lead to the worsening of women's position. There has been less research on these processes in Africa, than in Asia, and research gaps need to be addressed to more fully understand specific situations and to ensure that food security is not sacrificed at the expense of trade liberalization.

Gladwin, Christina H., and Anne M. Thomson. no date. *Food crops or cash crops: which is the key to food security?* University of Florida: Center for Research on Soil Productivity. 16 pp.
http://www.fred.ifas.ufl.edu/CRSP/food.htm

This paper puts forth the case that gender-based constraints on the agricultural production of women farmers are part of the explanation for Africa's food security problems. The data and studies referred to are interpreted to show that there is need for a broader focus on promoting the food security of women farmers, rather than a narrow focus on promoting only their food crops as a solution to food insecurity.

Data from Malawi show that a female household head will not be able to grow sufficient maize for household consumption, even if she increases her production by switching from local to hybrid maize. In any case, most women farmers cannot afford commercial inputs. Men, who previously grew hybrid maize as a cash crop, drastically decreased their production in the 1990s, in response to escalating input prices. Agro-forestry innovations have been tested and disseminated in order to counter soil fertility depletion, the main biophysical cause of declining per capita food production in Africa. However, research in Kenya and Malawi shows that women farmers face constraints in adopting agro-forestry innovations. Other constraints to increasing women farmers' cash income from cash crop production include: a widespread female gender identity that associates being a woman with food crop production, and the priority given to the family's consumption needs by planting food crops first.

Because women's food and cash crop production are interdependent, the authors suggest three strategies to promote women farmers' food security:

- Encourage women to take a small part of their land out of food crops in order to grow highly profitable cash crops (so that the proceeds from sales can be used to intensify their food crop production);

- Continue to focus agriculture research programs on meeting women's needs; and
- Provide fertilizer-for-work programs to the very poor and food insecure, including female household heads.

Greenberg, Marcia E., et al. July 1997. *Women's participation in Angola's reconstruction and in its political institutions and* processes. Vol. 1. Washington, D.C.: WIDTECH (a Women in Development Technical Assistance Project). 74pp. http://www.widtech.org/Publications/Angola_voll.pdf

This study was commissioned to identify constraints and opportunities inhibiting or encouraging women's participation in the USAID Mission's programs in Angola. The findings are organized according to two USAID / Angola Strategic Objectives: 1) increased resettlement, rehabilitation and food self-reliance of war-affected communities and 2) increased national reconciliation through strengthened civil society and political institutions. Research was conducted in five provinces through interviews and focus groups. In addition, the report includes an overview of the historical and socio-economic factors influencing Angolan women's situation.

Given the reluctance of many demobilized male soldiers to return to war-devastated homes, women play a critical role in reconstruction efforts. Their ability to contribute is constrained by the high incidence of extremely poor female headed households and of polygynous unions, women's increased labor burden exacerbated by destruction of social and economic infrastructure, and their poor health. Interventions need to take account of the diversity among Angolan women, including internally displaced persons resettled in urban slums, women disabled from landmines, poor rural women, women in transit camps and those in demobilization camps.

Analysis of women's participation in resettlement, rehabilitation and agriculture programs identified constraints and opportunities in major thematic areas:

- Involving women in needs assessment and distribution phases of emergency food assistance;
- Involving women as trainers and reaching women in landmine awareness campaigns;
- Making the planning and implementation of agriculture research and extension activities gender-sensitive;
- Ensuring that rehabilitation of water, health and educational infrastructure includes women and meets their perceived needs;
- Assisting wives and female relatives of demobilized soldiers in reintegration interventions; and

- Addressing the poverty and isolation of disabled women.

The report also identifies constraints to women's participation in democracy, governance and civil society and draws attention to opportunities such as capacity building for NGOs and women's groups and influencing newly formed legal and judicial institutions.

Greenberg, Marcia E. February 1998. *Improving results in democracy and governance programs in South Africa through enhanced attention to gender issues.* Washington, D.C.: WIDTECH (a Women in Development Technical Assistance Project). 39 pp. http://www.widtech.org/Publications/

Working towards good governance is more effective if there is broad participation by women, as well as by men, and if leaders take account of the diversity of needs of their constituents. Although the South African government has taken forceful legal and institutional measures to promote equality in democratic governance, there is still a "culture of silence" – women are not accustomed to speaking out, largely because of the force of tradition in a patriarchal society.

This report focuses on opportunities for technical assistance to address gender issues and to strengthen women's participation by:

- Capacity building (e.g. through coalitions, leadership skills, information dissemination);
- Expanding the number of women in government, such as local officials and civil servants (e.g. mentoring and training programs); and
- Supporting the translation of progressive gender-relevant policies and laws into practice (e.g. by engaging men as well as women).

Examples are given of many South African NGOs and other organizations, which donors can support. The report contains concrete recommendations for donors to integrate gender into existing democracy and governance projects by capacity building assistance to government; developing new approaches to working with grassroots partners; and integrating gender issues into diverse types of training (e.g. human rights and conflict prevention).

Management mechanisms that donors can use with potential grantees are suggested. Concrete recommendations are also given on how donors can work with NGOs, contractors and other grantees to incorporate gender concerns into project design; to increase women's participation in their activities; to improve the quality of women's participation and to encourage exchange of information between women and men; to develop the capacity of their female staff; to integrate gender into training curricula; to

support networking and sharing of gender resources; and to integrate gender analysis into public policy analysis.

Hellum, Anne. 2001. Towards a human rights based development approach: the case of women in the water reform process in Zimbabwe. *Law, Social Justice and Global Development* 1: 27 pp.
http://elj.warwick.ac.uk/global/issue/2001-1/hellum.html

This review of Zimbabwean law and policy documents and of research findings applies a woman-focused human rights approach to promoting gender equality in water resource management. The shift from previous government-provided subsidized water services to a market-oriented approach will have different impacts on poor women and men water users, such as in communal areas. Both men and women use water for commercial purposes (men for irrigated cash crop production and women for vegetable gardens). However, their access to water is unequal, and inequality is likely to increase with application of the user pay principle. These and other issues are not addressed in Zimbabwe's draft water reform policy and strategy documents, which fail to live up to the stated goal of integrating a gender perspective into all aspects.

The author argues that a human rights approach will best promote women's equal access to water and to their participation in water management. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) is a key legal instrument, which would make a distinction between domestic water use (i.e. women) and commercial water use (i.e. men) discriminatory.

Zimbabwe's Water Act (1998) gives equal opportunity (to "all") to access water for commercial purposes. However, because women's interest is relegated to domestic use only, their commercial use of water is not recognized. The Act does not require registration for a permit to use water for commercial purposes in the name of both spouses.

Women are inadequately represented in the stakeholder groups that comprise the new water management bodies such as sub-catchment councils. Research shows that women and men have differing priorities in local water management – women, for example, being more concerned about water quality than men. The author reviews the evidence about women's limited *active* participation in local water management and assesses the pros and cons of various strategies to increase their participation, including quotas and more gender-sensitive definition of stakeholders.

Human Rights Watch. 2003. *Suffering in silence: the links between human rights abuses and HIV transmission to girls in Zambia.* 122 pp.
http://www.hrw.org/reports/2003/zambia/zambia1202.pdf

HIV prevalence among girls under age 18 in eastern and southern Africa is four to seven times higher than the prevalence among boys of the same age. This report documents the vulnerability of girls and argues that sexual violence and abuse contribute to the disparity in infection prevalence.

The report gives girls' own testimonies about sexual violence to which they have been subjected and the many different types of situation in which they are at risk. For example, one 17 year old explained that, "I used to be in a youth group [at church]. I thought I could rely on [the priest but] he called me to his office . . .[and] started undressing me, and said if I screamed, he'd shoot me and my parents" (p. 32). Girls who live in rural villages on border towns and along trucking routes are at great risk. Truckers call these girls "village chickens," who – they say – are cheaper to buy [i.e. to coerce into sex] than city girls ["chickens from the supermarkets"] (p. 40).

The report examines three common situations of sexual abuse that increase girls' risk of HIV infection: 1) within families, including assault by guardians of orphans, and at school, by teachers; 2) abuse of girls who are heads of household and who, because of extreme poverty, often have few options other than trading sex for survival; and 3) abuse of girls who live on the street. Sexual violence is related to:

- The subordinate social status of women and girls, which makes it difficult or impossible for them to negotiate safe sex;
- Men's pursuit of ever younger girls who are assumed to be HIV negative or with whom they believe having sex will "cure" AIDS; and
- Discrimination in girls' access to education (e.g. more girls than boys are withdrawn from school because of family poverty or to look after AIDS patients at home).

USAID is a leading donor for HIV/AIDS programs in Zambia, including support for a project targeting truck drivers and sex workers at border crossings. The report recommends that USAID could be more effective by integrating attention to the human rights abuses of young girls and the link to HIV/AIDS transmission in all its program support.

Lowe Morna, Colleen. May 2000. Women's political participation in SADC. Paper presented at the conference towards sustainable democratic institutions in southern Africa held in Botswana. Stockholm, Sweden: International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Institutions: 182-210. http://www.idea.int/ideas_work/22_s_africa/Botswana_report.pdf

Regional and national efforts to improve women's political participation are linked to new forms of democratic governance in most SADC member countries. The *SADC Declaration on Gender and Development* commits to a 30% women's representation in politics and decision-making by 2005.

There is variation within SADC on women's representation in parliaments. Three countries approach the 30% target (Mozambique 28.4 %, South Africa 28%, Seychelles 23.5%), compared to Mauritius (7.6%) and Swaziland (4.2%). Women's representation in local government is lower than at national level, except in Namibia (41%) and Seychelles (52%).

Women's access to politics is constrained, above all, by conservative attitudes about "women's proper place." The type of electoral system also influences access. Women have a better chance of being elected in a system of proportional representation combined with a legislated quota than in a constituency-based system. For example, ANC and Frelimo have voluntary 30% quotas. The strong showing of Namibian women in local government elections was due to a legislated quota and a proportional representation system. However, in countries such as Tanzania, which have a quota (15%) combined with a constituency based system, women continue to confront the stereotype that they are incapable of competing openly with men.

Women's political participation is also constrained by their marginalization in political party structures, their lower level of education and lesser access to campaign funds, and the voting public/women's ignorance about gender equality issues in political campaigns. Women's effective participation in politics is as important as their access: their location within cabinet, their ability to transform political institutions (e.g. challenging male, cut-throat styles of debate) and bringing forward gender-relevant issues for debate (e.g. domestic violence acts).

The SADC Gender Unit and stakeholders in member countries are using the *SADC Plan of Action on Women in Politics and Decision Making* to tackle these constraints and issues.

Meinzen-Dick, Ruth, et al. May 1997. Gender, property rights, and natural resources. *FCND discussion paper* 29. Washington, D.C.: IFPRI, Food Consumption and Nutrition Division. 43 pp.
http://www.ifpri.org/divs/fcnd/dp/dp29.htm

Property rights, i.e. diverse tenure rules on access to and use of land, water and trees, are crucial in patterns of natural resource management. Gender influences how property rights, responsibilities and resources are allocated. This paper identifies key gender asymmetries in property rights and suggests how these asymmetries affect four outcomes: efficiency of natural resource use, environmental sustainability, equity of resource distribution and empowerment of resource users. Examples were drawn from the literature and from discussions in an IFPRI email conference.

Women and men have differing and usually asymmetrical opportunities to claim property and user rights to natural resources. For example, because tree clearing to establish a claim to land is a male task, women are precluded from this way of accessing property. Women and men's rights to resource use also differ – for different crops and uses of water and of forest products. Privatization of natural resources transfers property rights to an individual holder. Where women have benefited from communal agreement on multiple

uses of a natural resource (such as gathering wild vegetables from the land or non-timber products from forests), titling tends to threaten their access.

National policies on rights to natural resources are usually "gender neutral." Because women's existing rights of access are not recognized and protected, they tend to be impinged upon. A gender analysis of local practices of natural resource use and allocation is necessary in the formulation and implementation of national policies. Promoting collective action is one way to make natural resource access more equitable, e.g. when a women's group obtains land, denied to them as individuals, for collective gardens or tree nurseries.

Therefore, a gendered understanding of property rights should be integrated into policy formulation and implementation of interventions. Organizing groups of local women to press their claims is an important complement to other efforts.

Peters, Pauline, et al. August 2002. Gender and broadening access to land and water in Southern Africa. *BASIS Brief* (Broadening access and strengthening input market systems) 12. Madison: University of Wisconsin Land Tenure Center: 4 pp. http://www.wisc.edu/ltc/live/basbrief12.pdf

Policies on land and water in southern African countries have changed in recent years. Land is now treated as a property right and water as an economic good (rather than as a social service), and decentralization of resource management to lower levels is expected to contribute to more equitable democratic processes. This overview, based on research findings from several countries in southern Africa, demonstrates that the new policies usually pay lip service to addressing gender issues in natural resource management. However, in practice few meaningful initiatives can be identified, and gender-based discrimination continues and is being reinforced.

For example, in Zimbabwe women are represented only in village-level committees but not in the councils that manage river basin or catchment area water supply at higher levels. In Mozambique women in small-scale irrigation schemes are more likely to default on service payments and to give up their irrigated plots because the particular constraints they face have not been recognized or addressed.

The findings suggest the need for concrete measures to tackle gender inequalities in access to land and water:

- Legal frameworks that explicitly recognize women's right to land and water (rather than being couched in gender neutral language such as "households");
- Quotas for women's membership in key institutions;
- Listing of wives' names on a par with husbands' names on title deeds, water leases and permits, etc.

Recognition that women are not just "domestic users" of water but also commercial users (e.g. vegetable production and food processing for sale) and that the obstacles in their access to capital, credit and markets must be addressed in parallel with improving their access to natural resources.

Pheko, Mohau. June 1999. The SADC trade protocol & gender: what are the connections? *SADC Today* 3(1). 2 pp. http://www.sardc.net/editorial/sadctoday/v3-1-06-1999/v3-1-06-1999-13.htm

Among the key objectives of the SADC Trade Protocol are to further liberalize intra-regional trade, to enhance productive capacity within SADC to maximize comparative advantages and to create a free trade area. However, the Protocol does not address human development and gender concerns, and the socio-economic impact of changing trade patterns on women and men respectively has not been extensively researched.

Key issues that need to be addressed within the context of further development and implementation of the Trade Protocol are:

- The impact that elimination of tariffs and quotas will have on female and male producers in specific sectors;
- The impacts of immigration and customs laws (non-tariff barriers) on women's current active involvement in cross-border trade;
- Protection of employment in sectors dominated by women (agriculture, textile and service industries); and
- Women's constraints in accessing credit and capital in order to benefit from opportunities offered in a free trade area.

Population Reference Bureau. January 2002. *Women, men, and environmental change: the gender dimensions of environmental policies and programmes.* Washington D.C.: PRB policy brief. 7 pp. http://www.prb.org/pdf/WomenMenEnviron_Eng.pdf

This overview summarizes the importance that gender differences make in natural resource use, how resource depletion affects women and men differently and how gender concerns can be integrated in environmental planning.

Gender influences natural resource use because of:

- The differing roles and responsibilities of women and men (e.g. with men playing a greater role in natural resource exploitation for commercial purposes);

- Unequal access to and control over natural resources (e.g. in eastern Democratic Republic of the Congo men plant permanent tree crops on land where they have secure access, while women have no incentive to invest in soil conservation on the steep eroded fields to which they have been relegated);

- Women's and men's differing knowledge of their natural resources base; and

- Women's low participation in formulation, planning and implementation of environmental policy, resulting in decisions being taken that negatively affect their activities and livelihoods (e.g. penalties for fuel wood collection or estuary fishing).

Although environmental degradation impacts on both women and men, the consequences for women are often more severe. They must spend longer hours and more energy for natural resource use activities (e.g. obtaining fuel wood and water) and, together with children, are more exposed to indoor pollutants from use of biomass fuels. Reduction of soil fertility and availability of fuel wood forces women to "economize" by using less nutritious, more quickly cooked foodstuffs and affects household nutrition status. Women's farming activities expose them to chemical pollutants and increased reproductive risk as a result.

A few countries have started to initiate gender-responsive environmental policy formulation, planning and implementation. In order to develop better solutions for sustainable use of natural resources, experience shows the importance of several key actions: 1) collection of sex-disaggregated data on women and men's resource use, access to resources and participation in decision making; 2) training staff on the relevance of gender analysis to positive environmental outcomes; 3) incorporating a gender perspective in implementation and monitoring; and 4) promoting opportunities for women to participate at all levels of technical input into and decision making on environmental issues.

Republic of Zambia. no date c2000. *Gender mainstreaming in rural travel and transport programmes in Zambia.* Lusaka: Ministry of Local Government and Housing. 31 pp. http://www.mwengo.org/grti/Zambia

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SADC. September 1997. *Gender and development. A declaration by heads of state or government of the Southern African Development Community*. 3 pp. http://www.sardc.net/widsaa/wid_genderdec.htm

This milestone in SADC's policy commitments acknowledges gender equality as a fundamental human right. The Declaration acknowledges that, despite progress, there is still evidence of disparities between women and men in legal rights, power sharing and decision making, access to and control over productive resources, education and health.

SADC leaders resolve to eradicate all gender inequalities in the region and specifically to:

- Place gender firmly on the agenda of the SADC Programme of Action;
- Promote women's full access to and control over productive resources such as land, livestock, markets, credit, modern technology, formal employment; and
- Protect and promote the human rights, and the reproductive and sexual rights, of women and girls, among other commitments.

The Declaration mandated establishment of a Gender Unit at the SADC Secretariat.

Stott, Leda, and Nerishni Shunmugan. 2002. Business and gender equality—lessons from South Africa. *in focus 4 (Summary).* The International Business Leaders Forum and The Resource Centre for the Social Dimensions of Business Practice. 16 pp. http://www.rc-sdbp/section4/infocus4.pdf

There are few studies of gender equality practices in the South African private business sector. The study reported on here includes a situational analysis of gender equality practices in selected companies and examples of good practice and methods for transferring knowledge in order to share and to replicate lessons learned.

Although South Africa has a progressive legislative framework to safeguard the rights of women workers and to eliminate discrimination in employment, there is not yet a "culture of gender equality" in the private sector. Many employed women, especially black women, are segregated in the lower and poorly paid echelons of particular (especially service) industries. Although some women are able to become self-employed entrepreneurs, the majority are limited to survivalist micro and small-scale informal sector enterprises.

This research included eleven businesses of different types. The key research findings are that most gender equality interventions are of three types: 1) building the capacity of women employees (e.g. skills training and mentoring), 2) promoting equal opportunity initiatives (e.g. research on barriers to women's advancement and initiatives to encourage women to enter male-dominated areas), and 3) management of diversity (i.e. aiming for a racially mixed and balanced workforce of both sexes). However, there were few examples of interventions directed at institutional change (e.g. to make corporate culture and workplace practice race and gender-friendly and to promote opportunities for marginalized poor black women).

Advancing gender equality in the private sector will require transferring skills and knowledge widely. Suggestions from research participants included cross-sector dialogue and exchange of information and good practices among companies and with government and international agencies. Dialogue is important because many business leaders do not yet understand that investing in gender equality makes good business sense in terms of improving employees' motivation, efficiency and productivity. In addition to internal company interventions, the Shell Nigeria experience of an externally oriented initiative is singled out. This company promotes the use of company supply chains and procurement procedures to increase opportunities for small female-owned businesses.

Strickland, Richard, and Nata Duvvury. 2003. *Gender equity and peace building: from rhetoric to reality: finding the way*. Washington, DC: International Center for Research on Women. 40 pp. http://www.icrw.org

Based on an extensive review of a growing body of literature, key findings are presented to illustrate how gender concerns are integral to conflict and post-conflict situations and to draw out the implications for policies and programs in post-conflict reconstruction settings.

Women's lives are affected by armed conflict, and its aftermath, differently than men's. In the absence of men, women often take over men's roles. Women are targets of sexual violence and are at increased risk of HIV infection. Although often portrayed as victims, women are also active participants both in conflict and in peace building. However, women's peace building efforts are often overlooked because these are extensions of their existing gender roles or are outside of formal peace processes. Women and men's priorities in the peace building process often differ as well, but women are marginalized in decision-making bodies.

The Windhoek Declaration, 2000, was an important international milestone. The Declaration emphasized that principles of gender equality should be integrated into all processes of peace building and of reconstruction over the long term. This was an important input into U.N. Security Council Resolution 1325 (October 2000). Member governments and the U.N. system itself are now required to incorporate women's concerns and a gender perspective into all aspects of peacekeeping and reconstruction. However, despite more awareness of gender-sensitive requirements, specific approaches and programs to address gender-based discrimination are not yet well developed or implemented.

Gender relations are characterized by a power imbalance. As a result, women's reconstruction priorities are typically subordinated in decision-making systems that are dominated by men and that reflect male-determined issues. Transformative approaches towards gender equality are necessary to eliminate deeply rooted traditional norms about gender, which continue to characterize most peacekeeping and reconstruction initiatives.

Swamy, Anand, et al. 2001. Gender and corruption. *Journal of Development Economics* 46: 25-55.
http://www.williams.edu/Economics/wp/Swamy_gender.pdf

The authors analyze three sets of different types of data to investigate whether increasing women's participation in public life will reduce corruption.

World Value Surveys carried out in many countries in the North and South in the 1980s-90s investigated people's attitudes, including to dishonest behavior and bribe taking. In most countries the percentage of women who said that bribe taking was never justified was higher than the percentage of men.

In a World Bank survey of 350 business firms in Georgia (formerly part of the Soviet Union) managers were questioned on whether they were asked to give bribes to government agencies. The percentage of male firm managers reporting that they did give bribes was twice as high as the percentage of female firm managers.

Analyzes of macro-level country data and cross-country comparisons were made to examine the relationship between women's status and the severity of corruption in public life. The latter included both high-level corruption by senior government officials and petty corruption such as demands for bribes in connection with, e.g., import/export licenses, tax assessment, police services, etc. Three measures of women's status were used: their proportion in national parliaments, their proportion of ministerial positions and their share of the labor force. Results of statistical manipulations showed a consistent pattern: that higher participation of women in politics and commerce is positively correlated with a lower incidence of corruption.

These findings have implications for policy – that progress in promoting women's participation in political and economic life will contribute to reducing tolerance of corruption.

Tripp, Aili Mari. 2001. Women and democracy: the new political activism in Africa. *Journal of democracy* 12(3): 141-55. http://www.polisci.wisc.edu/users/tripp

Women's political participation in Africa increased dramatically in the 1990s, due in part to new types of women's organizations that worked for political, legislative and constitutional change. The reasons for the increase include 1) a bigger pool of educated women; 2) their long experience in organizing their own associations; 3) political commitment by leaders of some countries (Uganda, Mozambique, South Africa) and introduction of affirmative action to increase women's political representation; and 4) international advocacy, as by the Inter-Parliamentary Union which has lobbied for interim quotas.

In particular, new types of women's associations took advantage of the spaces that opened up after the decline of single-party controlled women's wings. These associations had new agendas, including promotion of women's political participation, environmental issues, land rights, legal reform, structural adjustment and the fight against corruption. They have created networks and issue-based coalitions with diverse civil society organizations.

Women's associations have been active in electoral politics through non-partisan support to women candidates and to men supportive of women's interests, human rights and citizenship training, and repeal of discriminatory legislation. However, the most important constraint to women' participation in electoral politics is still cultural – the attitude that women do not belong in public life.

Despite the still limited political representation of women, the women's movements of the 1990s have had important successes in:

- Contributing to constitution-making and to the inclusion of gender equality provisions in new or revised constitutions (e.g. in South Africa, Zambia, Malawi and Uganda);

- Improving women's legal status through successful advocacy for new legislation (on property and land rights, inheritance and citizenship laws, domestic violence, rape and defilement);
- Uniting a diversity of interest groups to oppose sectarian politics based on ethnicity; and
- Opposing state corruption and political patronage. Autonomous, non-partisan women's organizations are in the forefront of challenging the politics of clientelism and corruption that still dominate politics in many African states.

UNAIDS. 1999. *Gender and HIV/AIDS: taking stock of research and programmes.* Geneva: Joint United Nations Programme on HIV / AIDS. 40 pp. http://www.unaids.org

Gender (i.e. societal expectations about appropriate female and male roles and behavior) is an important factor in HIV transmission and in the impact that AIDS has on individuals and on societies. This "best practice" collection explains the inter-relationships between gender and HIV / AIDS, and includes 1) research on women and men's differing vulnerabilities and 2) programing responses to address gender-related issues. The report is based both on extensive literature review and on primary research.

At the level of individual risk, gender norms result in:

- Constraints on women's ability to discuss sex and to seek information, by comparison with men's;
- Young women's vulnerability to non-consensual sex with older men;
- Violence against women, increasing their risk of infection; and
- Vulnerability of men because of higher rates of sexual partner change, compared to women, and alcohol and drug use.

At the level of societal vulnerability, socio-economic factors pose constraints to changes in risky behavior. For example, men who migrate and women who seek waged employment in export-sector enclaves are at risk. Power imbalances between women and men shape women's economic dependency and place women at risk from the sexual behavior of their partners. The impacts of AIDS are also gender-differentiated, such as an increased burden for women to undertake productive activities as a result of men's illness and death.

Most programing responses to the AIDS pandemic have focused on prevention of HIV transmission rather than on reduction of its impacts. However, there is evidence that programs that improve women's socio-economic status contribute to reducing gender-based constraints that make women vulnerable. Programs that address men's vulnerability are still limited. Future challenges are to better understand male sexuality in relation to

risky behavior and to develop context-specific indicators to measure reductions in gender inequalities related to HIV/AIDS vulnerability.

USAID. January 29, 2003. AIDS and agriculture, food security, and nutrition. *Report of USAID Workshop*. College Park: University of Maryland, IRIS Center. 12 pp. http://www.iris.umd.edu/PPC_IDEAS/HIV_AIDS/documents/workshop_report.pdf

The workshop focused on the links between HIV/AIDS and the agricultural sector, especially in southern Africa. Gender concerns are integrated into the coverage of policy and implementation issues. The findings are intended to inform the work of USAID bureaus.

The AIDS pandemic is extremely serious in southern Africa, where 30-40% of the [adult] population are HIV+. The impact on the agriculture sector is severe, and the current famine in the region has been labelled a "new variant" famine because its causes are linked to the impacts of AIDS on food security. There is evidence of decreased land under cultivation, rural and household labor shortage, and shifts to less valuable but less labor-intensive crops. Women have been disproportionately affected, as their increased burden of care for the sick and orphans has negatively affected their work in agriculture production.

Implementation strategies should include initiatives 1) to improve the situation of widows who have weak claims to land and are precluded by tradition from production of high value crops (e.g. sugar cane), and 2) to facilitate the empowerment of young women and girls who are at severe risk of infection.

Two general approaches are suggested for USAID development interventions: 1) the AIDS audit approach, in which a program's vulnerability to AIDS is assessed, and 2) the AIDS "lens" approach, in which HIV concerns are integrated into design of all programs.

Uttaro, Robert P. 2002. Diminishing choices: gender, small bags of fertilizer, and household food security decisions in Malawi. *African Studies Quarterly* 6(1-2 special issue on gender and soil fertility in Africa): 34 pp. http://www.africa.ufl.edu/asq/v6/v6i1a4.htm

This journal article reports empirical research findings on decisions which have a direct relation to food security and which are made by Malawian small-scale farmers: whether or not to buy chemical fertilizers and to buy and plant hybrid maize seed. Because much technical agricultural and food security research has "invisibilized" women by not explicitly addressing gender differences, this research design included men in male-headed households, married women and female household heads in Zomba district. The overall context is the threatened food security status of Malawian rural households, which cannot

produce enough food for their family members and cannot afford to purchase sufficient amounts of processed maize meal during the hungry season – from the time that household food stores are depleted until green mealies are harvested.

The findings show that gender does make a difference: 55% of female household heads did not use any chemical fertilizer on their maize, compared to 38% of married women and 33% of male farmers. The overwhelming reason is that the cost of fertilizer, as well as of hybrid maize seed, is beyond their means. However, farmers in all categories prefer hybrid to local maize varieties because the former matures earlier, yields more (when fertilized), provides a source of income and shortens the hungry season. Nonetheless, farmers are planting less hybrid maize and more local varieties, and female household heads in particular have almost no other option. Reliance on local maize will not improve household food security, however.

Malawi has introduced sale of fertilizer in smaller, repackaged quantities than 50 kg bags. The farmers in this sample did not consider this a useful option, however, because smaller bags cost more per unit weight. In particular, female household heads, who should benefit the most, cannot afford the smaller bags.

van Koppen, Barbara. 2000. *From bucket to basin: managing river basins to alleviate water deprivation*. Colombo, Sri Lanka: International Water Management Institute. 48 pp. http://www.iwmi.cgiar.org/

This policy-oriented analysis of empirical research studies in the South, including Africa, demonstrates the inter-relationship among gender relations, poverty status and access to water and the processes that contribute to the worldwide problem of water deprivation. Water deprivation results more from processes of social deprivation, including gender-based deprivation, than from natural scarcity of water. The analysis includes micro (household and community), institutional (irrigation / water management boards) and policy-making levels.

The most important conclusion is that although the poor suffer the most from water deprivation, poor women's and men's rights to water as one input into their businesses and livelihoods are unequal. Although African women are farmers in their own right, as well as jointly with husbands, their needs for water have been generally ignored. The main constraint arises from the widespread assumption that men, not women, are the main primary stakeholders in local water management systems. Where women do participate in irrigation systems, they are typically in a less favorable position to claim their rights, than men. Some research studies show, however, that when women who control their own production are introduced to new agricultural technologies, their productivity increases to a greater extent than men's.

In order to maximize opportunities to alleviate water deprivation and to improve rural livelihoods through a water basin management strategy and / or irrigation scheme, several key recommendations are made, including: a context-specific analysis of gender relations in

agriculture and water resource use; identification of the respective unmet needs of both women and men, and development of gender-specific strategies to meet these needs. In addition, it is critical to promote women's active participation in water user associations and in institutions responsible for water resource management.

Vetten, L., and K. Bhana. April 2001. *Violence, vengeance and gender: investigation into the links between violence against women and HIV/AIDS in South Africa.* Johannesburg: The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation. 45 pp. http://www.csvr.org.za/pubslist/pubsgend.htm

There is another epidemic in South Africa besides HIV / AIDS – violence against women (VAW). Efforts to combat both have typically been parallel rather than complementary to each other.

There are no reliable national statistics on men's use of force, abuse, threat and intimidation against women. However, one study reports that 39% of young women, 12-17 years old, said that they had been forced to have sex. VAW is one factor that increases women's vulnerability and response to HIV infection. A literature review of (small case) studies shows that linkages between VAW and HIV / AIDS include:

- Coercive sexual practices (although many women do not define these experiences as "rape" but accept them as part of their marital or even workplace obligations);
- HIV+ status which precipitates sexual assault (e.g. the common belief throughout southern Africa that sex with a virgin or young girl will "cure" AIDS);
- Condom use (e.g. women have less power to negotiate safe sex, and wives who request condom use are often accused of infidelity or are subject to partner violence); and
- Disclosure of HIV status (e.g. women don't disclose because of fear of a male partner's violent reaction; those who do disclose are liable to abandonment, or even murder).

Structured interviews with 52 NGO and state organizations working with VAW and / or HIV / AIDS issues were used to identify linkages, activities being undertaken, gaps in current initiatives and ways in which activities could be strengthened. Findings revealed other examples of possible links between VAW and HIV / AIDS, including 1) virginity testing which is increasingly common in South Africa and is an abuse of the rights of young girls; 2) violence against HIV+ women by members of their community; 3) HIV testing of women without their consent; and 4) refusal of anti-retroviral treatment to women who have been raped.

Most state and civil society initiatives deal with rape, rather than abusive relationships and links to HIV / AIDS more generally. It is recommended that a broader understanding of violence and more context-specific definitions of VAW are necessary to inform policies and interventions. For example, abandonment of HIV+ women by their partners, in a context

where they have unequal access to economic resources for survival, should be seen as economic abuse. The usual HIV prevention message, "to abstain, be faithful and use a condom," is not helpful for many women subjected to rape and other forms of sexual coercion and who are powerless to negotiate safe sex.

WEDO. January 2003. *Untapped connections: gender, water and poverty*. New York: Women's Environment and Development Organization. 12 pp. http://www.wedo.org

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Appendix A. Statement of Work for Gender Analysis for the USAID/RCSA FY 2004-2010 Strategic Plan

A. Background

The Regional Center for Southern Africa (RCSA) is in the process of developing a Strategic Plan for FY 2004–FY 2010. The RCSA's Concept Paper for this Strategic Plan was reviewed by USAID / Washington on January 30, 2003. As a result of this review, the RCSA was authorized to proceed to develop a Strategic Plan with interventions in the following areas:

- Enhanced Southern African Competitiveness in Global Markets;
- A More Integrated Regional Market;
- Reduced Corruption in Southern Africa;
- Improved Democratic Governance;
- Enhanced Regional Food Security;
- Water Resource Management;
- Reduced Regional Impact of HIV / AIDS Through Multi-Sector Response;
- U.S.-Southern African Development Community (SADC) Engagement; and
- Southern Africa Enterprise Development Fund.

The review also authorized RCSA to treat gender, HIV / AIDS, anti-corruption, conflict, and public-private partnerships as cross-cutting themes and issues across the portfolio. USAID / Washington requested RCSA to consider how best to consolidate these areas of involvement into a more limited number of strategic objectives and special objectives in finalizing the Strategic Plan.

USAID's gender mainstreaming approach requires that gender analysis be applied to the range of technical issues that are considered in the development of the RCSA's strategic plan. Agency guidance states: "Strategic Plans must reflect attention to gender efforts to improve the status of women by taking into account not only the differential roles of men

and women, but also the relationship and balance between them and the institutional structures that support them. Specifically, analytical work performed in the planning and development of Results Frameworks should address at least two questions: (1) how will gender relations affect the achievement of results; and (2) how will results affect the relative status of women. "Gender" is not a separate sector to be analyzed and reported in isolation. Instead, gender mainstreaming requires that gender analysis be applied to each set of issues that is considered in the development of the Strategic Plan."

RCSA leadership is committed to ensuring that gender is effectively mainstreamed into the RCSA program. In February 2002, a team of two WIDTECH gender experts conducted a gender assessment and developed a gender plan of action for the RCSA. Their report, "Gender Analysis and Plan of Action for USAID/RCSA" (February 2002) is a useful starting point for the Gender Analysis required for the strategic plan. As a follow-up to this initial gender assessment, RCSA staff participated in a two-day Gender Training session led by Dr. Sandra Russo in June 2002, immediately following a Strategic Planning Workshop that also highlighted the importance of integrating gender issues into the strategic planning process. As part of the process of developing its Strategic Planning Concept Paper, the RCSA contracted with Chemonics International, Inc., to conduct a preliminary gender analysis ("Gender in the Balance: A Summary Report").

In early March 2003, a team of consultants provided Results Framework Training and Technical Assistance to the RCSA under USAID's Integrated Managing for Results activity. Following a one-day training session, the consultants assisted working groups to develop preliminary results frameworks for each of the proposed strategic areas. Each working group was also asked to incorporate cross-cutting themes and issues, including gender, into their results frameworks. Additional technical analysis and extensive consultations with partners and stakeholders are required to consolidate the proposed areas into a coherent strategic framework. In addition, several Results Framework Working Groups have been formed to continue working on the results frameworks between now and the submission of the Strategic Plan to USAID/Washington. These working groups are specifically tasked with mainstreaming gender into the results framework.

B. Objective

The objective of the Gender Analysis is to assess gender relations and issues in the RCSA's proposed program as part of the process for developing the new strategic plan for FY 2004-2010, and to make recommendations on how the RCSA can achieve greater gender integration.

Appendix B. Gender-Sensitive Indicators

While this is a very basic guide, it may provide some assistance in developing gender-sensitive indicators.

What are gender-sensitive indicators designed to measure?

Gender-sensitive indicators allow measurement of benefit to women and men. Depending on the policy / project, this might include:

- The impact / effectiveness of activities targeted to address women's or men's practical gender needs, i.e., new skills, knowledge, resources, opportunities or services in the context of their existing gender roles;
- The impact / effectiveness of activities designed to increase gender equality of opportunity, influence or benefit, e.g., targeted actions to increase women's role in decision-making; opening up new opportunities for women / men in non-traditional skill areas;
- The impact / effectiveness of activities designed to develop gender awareness and skills amongst policy-making, management and implementation staff;
- The impact / effectiveness of activities to promote greater gender equality within the staffing and organizational culture of development organizations; e.g., the impact of affirmative action policies.

There is no standard or agreed-upon method for measuring women's empowerment. Aspects of empowerment can be reflected in numbers (such as an increase in numbers of women in positions of power), but above all, empowerment concerns women's perceptions of their own lives and experiences. To measure qualitative aspects of empowerment, it is important that it is clearly defined. Most definitions stress two main areas:

- A personal change in consciousness involving a movement towards control, self-confidence and the right to make decision and determine choices; and
- Organization aimed at social and political change.

The greater the degree of existing gender inequality, the more subtle changes are likely to be. It is important in this context for indicators to recognize the significance of modest gains and breakthroughs.

How do they measure?

Gender-sensitive indicators need to capture quantitative and qualitative aspects of change.

QUANTITATIVE INDICATORS

Quantitative indictors refer to the numbers and percentages of women and men or organizations involved in or affected by any particular group of activity. Quantitative indicators draw on the sex disaggregated data systems and records that have been examined during the processes of policy or project planning. The availability of quantitative baseline data means that indicators usually include some element of target setting.

Monitoring information should be available through routine data systems and records.

QUALITATIVE INDICATORS

Qualitative information refers to perceptions and experiences. Qualitative information is vitally important. It is not enough to know that women are participating in an activity: the quality of their participation and experience, whether in community level meetings, primary school classes or as users of public services, is all-important.

Qualitative indicators (as well as quantitative indicators relating to visible change at the community level) should be developed in conjunction with beneficiary groups. In project documents, it is legitimate to use a phrase like 'quantitative and qualitative indictors to be developed with beneficiary groups in the first six months of the project.' This creates the space to develop indicators in conjunction with beneficiary groups once they have fully understood the nature of the project. (What changes would they like to see? What will the change look like? How can it be measured? This process should take place using qualitative methods such as focus group discussions and informal interviews.

It is only possible to set targets for qualitative change if baseline data is available. This requires baseline surveys: it is highly unlikely that appropriate baseline data will be available from secondary sources. Where baseline data is available on experiences and perceptions, targets for qualitative change can be set. For example, at least 50% of women participating in water committees report active involvement in management and decision-making by the end of the Year 2 (from a baseline of 10% at the start of the project).

Where baseline data is not available, or is not easily aggregated into numbers and percentages, it is necessary to resort to general statements of improvement. For example,

- Significant improvement in staff knowledge, skills and attitudes on mainstreaming gender equality in participating organizations by the end of Year 3, (where each organization starts with markedly different levels); and
- Significant increase in quantity and improvement in quality of media reporting on gender violence.

Information on qualitative indicators should be collected through evaluation surveys. Depending on the indicator, these might be questionnaire surveys reviewing perceptions and experiences of agreed indicators, or participatory method such as focus group discussions and case studies.

Source: *Gender Manual: A Practical Guide for Development Policy Makers and Practitioners* (Derbyshire, April 2002, pp. 28–29)

Appendix C. Women in Parliament

Table 1
Women in Parliament and Cabinet in SADC Countries (December 2002)

Country	Electoral System	Number Women/ Parliament[a]	% Women in Parliament	Number Women/ Cabinet[b]	% Women in Cabinet	Women Deputy Minister	% Women Deputy Minister
Angola	PR	34/224	15.1	4/28	14.3	5/43	11.6
Botswana	Const	8/44	18.0	4/15	27	2/6	33.0
Dem. Rep. of Congo.							
Lesotho	Const	12/97	10.0	6/21	28.50	2/ ?	?
Malawi	Const	16/192	8.3	2/22	9.00	2/9	12.9
Mauritius	Const	6/70	8.6	1/25	4.00	N/A	N/A
Mozambique	PR	78/250	31.2	3/23	13.04	5/25	27.7
Namibia	Pr-nat/ C/Reg PR/local	18/ 99	18.0	3/19	12.00	4/23	17.0
Seychelles	Const	8/34	24.0	3/11	27.00	(no such posts)	
South Africa	PR/Nat; PR and C/local	125/400	31.3	9/27	33.30	8/14	57.1
Swaziland	Const	9/95	9.47	2/17	11.70	N/A	N/A
Tanzania	Const	62/275	22.5	4/27	15.00	5/17	29.0
Zambia	Const	17/158	12.02	2/24%(?)	8.3(?)	2/28%(?)	7.1 (?)
Zimbabwe	Const	15/150	10.0	2/21	16.00	?	?

a. Sometimes parliamentary figures include upper and lower house;
b. Cabinet sometimes includes deputies/assistants and sometimes ministers only.
- Sometimes data not complete and ratios of women and men not shown

SOURCE: *SADC Secretariat, Member States*

Table 2 shows that the trends since 1999 have been mixed, with some countries recording increases in women's representation in parliament, and in two countries, the numbers of women in decision-making positions have reduced rather than increased as the target of 30% by 2005 advances.

Table 2
Representation of Women MPs in SADC Countries (December 2002)

Country	Pre election		Post election		Increase/ Decrease
	No of Women	Percentage	No of Women	Percentage	
Botswana	4/44	9.0	8/44	18.0	+100 %
Malawi	9/171	5.2	16/192	8.3	+ 59 %
Tanzania	48/275	18.0	62/275	22.5	+4.5%
Mauritius	6/70	8.6	4/70	5.7	Decreased
Mozambique	70/250	28.0	78/250	31.2	+3.2%
Zimbabwe	21/150	14.0	15/150	10.0	Decreased
Namibia	14/99	14.1	18/99	18.0	+ 4 %
S Africa	111/400	27.8	125/400	31.3	+3.5 %
Zambia	16/158	10.1	17/158	12.02	+2.2%
Lesotho	2/80	2.5	12/120	10.0	+7.5%
Seychelles	No change—Next election 2004				
Angola	To be included				

SOURCE: SADC Secretariat, Member States