
UNIT 4 EMPOWERMENT OF RURAL WOMEN (GENDER FRAMEWORK APPROACH)

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4.0 OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this unit is to impart knowledge and information relating to empowerment process with the emphasis on gender framework analysis. After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- 1 understand basic concepts on gender;
- 1 why gender is an important issue in empowerment process;
- 1 understand the process of empowerment;
- 1 able to know the indicators of empowerment, e.g. economic, social and political;
- 1 describe the various approaches of gender analysis, which are used in gender planning and women's empowerment; and
- 1 understand gender mainstreaming and gender sensitive policy approach.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Women and men have different and unequal resources and responsibilities, which have implications on their existing and potential capacity to contribute to development. Development policy and planning must take cognizance of this if it is to ensure efficient and equitable use of scarce resources. Women, particularly poor women, are directly responsible for the reproduction, care and well being of human beings. There are also, to a greater or lesser extent, key actors in the production of human and social resources. Investment in women is likely to have payoffs in terms of the key goals of a human centered development.

The roles that women play are different in any given society, and their situation is determined by the legislation, religious norms, economic status or class, cultural values, ethnicity and types of productive activity of their country, community and household. Women are usually responsible for domestic work, the care of children, family health, cooking and providing food and other household services. In most

countries, they also play a major role in the productive activities of the family; in farming, paid domestic labour, services, industries and income-generating activities. In some societies, they also have clear community roles.

In each of these areas - reproduction, production and the community – women have often been adversely affected by the development process. There is a wide gap between women's high, yet unrecognized, economic participation and their low political and social power, and development strategies have usually taken the needs of the most vocal and politically active as their starting point.

Men and women, because of their different gender roles and responsibilities, have different experiences and needs. Both play a role in the sphere of productive work and community life, but women's contribution may be less formal. While men's agricultural work may result in a cash income, women may be producing food for family consumption, and the cash value remains hidden. In community life, men generally have the role of public representation; women's role of organisation may be crucial, but less visible, particularly to outsiders.

From this perspective, the basic problematic is not women's integration into development, or their invisibility, or their lack of training, education, credit, self-esteem, but the structures and processes that give rise to women's disadvantage. One source of disadvantage is the pervasive ideology of male superiority, physical and intellectual, which appears to be found, in different degrees, in almost all cultures and economies, and which also shapes women's view of themselves and their capacities. Another is the control of men as a gender exercise over valued political, economic and social resources, and, thus, over the distribution of power. From this perspective, changing the symptoms of disadvantage – giving women training, credit, etc. – is not a solution, but only a useful first step in women's empowerment. Dismantling the structures, which support women's disadvantage – changing laws, religious and political institutions, systems of thought, socialization practices – will involve a tremendous struggle for both women and men as they negotiate and adapt to changes in the nature of gender relations in the public and the private spheres.

An analysis of the status of women depends on an understanding of gender relations in a specific context. Examining gender relations as power relations makes clear that these are sustained by the institutions within which gender relations occur. For women, absence of power results in the lack of access to and control over resources, a coercive gender division of labour, devaluation of their work, and a lack of control over their own labour, mobility as well as sexuality and fertility. Gender equality, thus, demands substantive transformation, a set of policies and conditions created by the state that facilitate the reallocation of resources, thereby increasing women's control over resources that confer power at individual, household, and societal levels.

Transformation for gender equality envisages the empowerment of women, requiring conditions that enable women to exercise their autonomy; it also envisages a process of self-empowerment, in which women begin to re-examine their lives critically and collectively. While the former involves the facilitation of women's access to and control over resources, the latter emphasizes women's agency in seeking greater access and control.

Measures of gender equality, therefore, require an assessment of the degree to which resources have been redistributed; whether state policy has facilitated women's autonomy; and the extent to which unequal gender relations have been transformed. As such, they reflect changes in both ideology and the institutions that mediate access and control. Women's status includes:

- 1 Access to and control over private assets and resources
- 1 Access to public resources
- 1 Control over their labour and income
- 1 Control over their bodies
- 1 Control over physical mobility
- 1 Access to and control over political spaces
- 1 Access to and control over intangible resources – information, influence, etc.
- 1 Position in law and access to legal structures and redress.

Control over productive resources, such as land, equipment and housing is crucial to basic security. While poverty and precariousness are characteristic of poor men as well as women, traditional gender-based subordination deprives almost all women, regardless of class, and across communities, of control over assets, making them extremely vulnerable. Formal and customary laws tend to limit their right to inheritance--an important means of acquiring private assets. Women's access to public resources, which include the services and rights guaranteed by the welfare state, is still unequal. Yet the state has traditionally limited its role to education or health measures, which have not affected the gendered barriers to women's access and have failed to empower women. As governments focus on privatization and market liberalization, the commitment to social goals takes a back seat.

Essential to women's autonomy is the ability to control their labour and income. While patriarchal ideology restricts women's access to productive work outside the home, economic hardship often necessitates this. The result is a triple burden, of household and childrearing as well as wage labour. Women in many areas are becoming the major providers of family income, yet their decision-making over its disposal depends on household power relations. So long as the household sustains a patriarchal hierarchy, women will not attain economic autonomy. Perhaps the most cruel aspect of gender subordination is women's lack of control over their own bodies. In most parts of India, women have no say in who or when they marry; heterosexuality is the norm and the satisfaction of male needs is the purpose of sexual relations. Fertility regulation in pursuit of population goals is an example of how women's bodies are often pawns in the struggles among individuals, families, religions and states.

Women's status also depends on intangible resources, including self-confidence and self-worth, as well as information, knowledge, and specific skills. A just society ensures that all individuals can acquire basic levels of these resources, eliminating discrimination that causes lack of confidence and guaranteeing every individual an equal opportunity to access information, knowledge and skills. Thus, for women's status to improve, development interventions must be designed to serve the goals of gender equality. Women's access to knowledge, information and skills have to be made central not just to promote their 'participation in development', but also to make them tools to challenge subordination.

Finally, in a constitutional state, law defines people as legal entities and determines their rights as citizens. Currently, although fundamental freedoms and rights are guaranteed equally, women's lives are bound by family, community and religious traditions that contravene their legal rights, along with legal discourse itself. Yet it is crucial that women engage with the law despite its limitations, and construct a feminist legal discourse upon which future law may be built.

History of Gender

In the 60s, women in Europe and America recognised their inequality in terms of job opportunities, wages and other conditions that were substandard to what men had. Women also protested insensitive treatment by their male counterparts. Therefore, women fought for equal treatment and equal opportunities. The movement was called “feminism” and bred some hostility and resentment between the sexes. At the first UN conference in 1975 in Mexico, research findings on women, especially in the development context, were presented as follows:

- 1 Women had been marginalised in all aspects of development;
- 1 Women were always busy, yet their role and contribution to development was unrecognized; the “invisible role of women”;
- 1 Women had been neglected in early development plans.

After this conference, 1975 was declared the year of the woman, and 1976 to 1985 the Woman’s Decade.

Thus began the woman oriented development approach called Women in Development, or WID. To assist in the integration of women in development, women’s ministries, bureaus and projects were created and supported.

- 1 1980, a mid-decade conference in Copenhagen was held to assess the WID approach. The following negative effects of the approach were discovered:
 - 1 Women were further marginalized;
 - 1 Focus placed on unprofitable activities with limited market demand, like handicrafts;
 - 1 Men felt misplaced in development activities;
 - 1 Women were not empowered politically or economically; women were assigned high level positions without considering constraints and capabilities;
 - 1 Women’s workload was increased through poorly planned women-focussed projects;
- 1 1985, end of Women’s Decade; conference held in Nairobi, at which time Gender and Development (GAD) approach was developed. Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies (NFLS) mainstreamed activities that included empowerment of women, awareness creation among men, etc.
- 1 1995: 4th Women’s Conference marked the end of the 2nd Women’s Decade – Beijing, China. Conference assessed how various governments carried out the NFLS. Conclusions: Much has been achieved, but constraints to women’s participation in development still exist.

4.2 BASIC CONCEPTS ON GENDER

Biologically, gender has been used to refer to the sex of an individual. However, in the social context, the gender concept refers both to men and women, boys and girls. Women have been focussed in gender campaigns because they are seen to be a marginalised group.

Gender roles are what responsibilities society defines for men and women, boys and girls. They are usually culture specific and reversible.

Sex roles are biological natural functions of men and women, irreversible and inborn (women have babies and breast-feed, men impregnate, etc.).

Social Construction of Gender

Social construction of gender allows for the recognition that because men and women play different roles in society, they consequently, have different needs. These different needs of men and women must be addressed in project policies and must dis-aggregate within communities, households and families, based on gender.

Theories on social construction of gender:

- a) Society uses its socialisation/enculturation process to construct gender.
- b) Society has socialisation agents through which the above is done, i.e. religion, family, media, rituals, etc.
- c) Due to this socialisation, women behave the way they do toward themselves and men, and vice versa.
- d) Therefore, to reconstruct gender roles, we have to address culture and society in general.
- e) Change can be realised, but it has to come from within and gradually.
- f) To reconstruct gender roles, awareness creation is paramount.

The conceptual distinction between sex and gender developed by Anne Oakley is a useful analytical tool to clarify ideas and has now been almost universally taken up. According to this distinction, sex is connected with biology, whereas the gender identity of men and women in any given society is socially and psychologically (and that means also historically and culturally) determined. Biological and physical conditions (chromosomes, external and internal genitalia, hormonal states and secondary sex characteristics), lead to the determination of male or female sex. To determine gender, however, social and cultural perceptions of masculine and feminine traits and roles must be taken into account.

Gender is learnt through a process of socialisation and through the culture of the particular society concerned. In many cultures, boys are encouraged in the acts considered to display male traits (and girls vice versa) through the toys given to children (guns for boys, dolls for girls), the kind of discipline meted out, the jobs or careers to which they might aspire, and the portrayal of men and women in the media. Children learn their gender from birth. They learn how they should behave in order to be perceived by others, and themselves, as either masculine or feminine. Throughout their life, this is reinforced by parents, teachers, peers, their culture and society.

Every society uses biological sex as one criterion for describing gender but, beyond that simple starting point, no two cultures could completely agree on what distinguishes one gender from another. Therefore, there is considerable variation in gender roles between cultures. Sex is a fact of human biology; we are born male or female; it is men who impregnate, and women who conceive, give birth, and breast-feed the human baby. On this biological difference, we construct an edifice of social attitudes and assumptions, behaviours and activities; these are our gender roles and identities. Questioning them may feel threatening, attacking the very foundations of our understanding of ourselves, our personal and social relations, our culture and traditions.

It is important to understand how we learn to be boys and girls, to become women and men; how we define masculine behaviour; how we are taught activities regarded as appropriate for our sex, and the ways in which we should relate to one another. What we learn depends on the society into which we are born, and our position within it, our relative poverty or wealth, and our ethnic group.

Why Gender Makes a Difference

Women are, of course, an integral part of farming households. They produce over half the food in many developing countries, bear the most responsibilities for household food security, and contribute to household well-being through their income-generating activities. Yet, women usually have more limited access to resources and opportunities and *their productivity remains low relative to their potential*. In some regions, men and women have different farming systems, different domains – for example, crops or livestock – different access to resources, and different status. In general, compared to men within the same household, women have:

- 1 A wider range of tasks and enterprises,
- 1 Different production objectives,
- 1 Dissimilar production constraints.

Econometric evidence on gender differences in agricultural productivity points to the importance of investing in women by increasing their human capital through education and extension, and by increasing their access to physical and financial inputs. Key findings are:

- 1 *Women farmers are as efficient as men farmers, once other characteristics and input levels are controlled for.* Simulations using Kenyan data (see Table 1) suggest that increasing women's physical and human resource capital to the level of men's would bring significant gains in agricultural production. Limited access to inputs combined with cultural constraints on women's farmwork tend to reduce women's labour productivity and their participation in high-productivity agricultural work.
- 1 *Women farmers underperform* in agricultural production because they lack access to information, credit, extension, inputs, and markets and the household and child care tasks limit the time available to them. This underperformance occurs despite the longer hours they work than men in traditional farming systems.
- 1 The gradual *feminization of agriculture* in many countries makes attention to women farmers necessary in implementing agricultural policy and programs. As men move out of agriculture into other sectors, women remain on the farm, gradually feminizing the agricultural labour force.
- 1 *Attention to gender facilitates economic and social objectives.* As the research findings summarized in Table 1 show, improving women's access to resources, control over income, and education, while reducing their time burden, generates both efficiency and welfare gains.
- 1 *Conversely, ignoring gender concerns can lead to project failure.* Ignoring gender issues can result in projects that are technically successful but negatively affect both women and children.

It is important to note that:

- 1 Women make up at least half of the population. The current traditional settings, social and economic status are not conducive to women realising their full economic and social potentials.
- 1 By virtue of their number, position, and possible influence, we cannot afford to ignore issues related to women.

- 1 In gender analysis, we try to determine what roles men and women play in natural resources management and conservation, and to see or find the most appropriate strategies for optimum integration of male and female members of the community in project interventions.
- 1 For us to keep to our project objectives, it is, therefore, very important to collect gender-disaggregated data (information) in any study and rural appraisals.

What has happened in the past? It was assumed that a single community with the same lineage (clan) was a homogenous group and issues pertaining to them were general and all members were affected in the same way, had more or less similar attitudes, and reacted in the same way. On probing reasons for failure of interventions or projects, it has been discovered that wrong assumptions had been made and learnings, projections, interventions had not been directed to the right groups or individuals in society/communities. In most cases, very few positive results were achieved. At times, there was complete failure. Even where there was success, the project never realised its full potential.

Gender relates to increasing the market share of disadvantaged groups, and better targeting of scarce resources. Development projects are a far cry from being shaped by market-driven or marketing forces. Men and women should be considered as different segments of a target market. Marketing means viewing project participants as customers. These customers determine the success of the development efforts.

4.3 EMPOWERMENT PROCESS

According to UN Human Development Report 1995, the human development paradigm contains four main components – productivity, equity, sustainability and empowerment. Through enhanced capabilities, the creativity and productivity of people must be increased, so that they become effective agents of growth. Economic growth must be combined with equitable distribution of its benefits. Equitable opportunities must be available both to present and to future generations. And all people, Women and Men, must be empowered to participate in the design and implementation of key decisions that shaped their lives. Human development is impossible without gender equality. As long as women are excluded from the development process, development will remain weak and lopsided.

The women's empowerment framework reconceptualizes the development objectives of gender-responsive programming. Rather than focusing on economic objectives, such as enabling women to be more productive or use their labour time more effectively in order to reap the benefits of development, it views women's equality and women's empowerment as central development objectives in their own right. The framework aims to provide tools for the design, implementation and evaluation of programmes and projects that explicitly contribute to women's empowerment and gender equality. This involves promoting a 'bottom up' approach to planning. The argument is that 'when development planners conduct a baseline survey and gender role analysis, they can identify only practical needs, not strategic interests'. The objective is to provide 'a systemic and analytical understanding of the grassroots empowerment process by which the local community recognizes and pursues its strategic interests'.

However, within the empowerment framework approach, overcoming obstacles to access involves confronting systemic discrimination, which can be done only through 'concretization' and 'participation'. Concretization implies women's recognition that

their subordination is not ‘natural’, but is imposed by a system of discrimination that is socially constructed and, therefore, alterable. And ‘equality of participation’ means involving women from the community in decision-making processes in more than a ‘token’ manner, enabling them to mobilize and take action against discrimination in access to services and resources. Finally, the understanding of the term ‘control’ extends to more than material resources, as in the GRF. Instead, ‘equality of control’ means a balance of power between women and men, so that neither is in a position of dominance. It means that women have power alongside men to influence their destiny and that of society’. The gender profile grid is used to measure how planning and implementation projects and programme interventions contribute to each level of empowerment.

Another interesting feature of the empowerment framework is the treatment of gender roles. In this perspective, ‘gender issues’ do not arise merely from gender role differentiation, but from inequalities deriving from the gender division of labour and allocation of benefits. In this perspective, gender inequality and subordination should be kept at the centre of gender-responsive planning, a point that sometimes is lost in a focus on roles. The conceptual underpinning of the empowerment framework appears to be a structuralist interpretation of gender inequality.

Empowerment is a process aimed at changing the nature and direction of systematic forces, which marginalise women and other disadvantaged sections in a given context. Empowerment is also visualized as an enabling process. It implies fundamental redistribution of power within and between families/societies and an externally induced process or mechanism of change towards women’s equality and development. Here, power is used not as a domination, but the right to choose and the ability to influence social and political process.

Empowerment is a process and is not, therefore, something that can be given to people. The process of empowerment is both individual self-assertion to collective resistance, protest and mobilisation that challenge basic power relations. For individuals and groups where class, caste, ethnicity and gender determine their access to resources and power, their empowerment begins when they not only recognize the systematic forces that oppress them, but act to change existing power relationships. Women’s empowerment can be viewed as a continuum of several interrelated and mutually reinforcing components:

- i) having control or gaining further control,
- ii) having a say and being listened to,
- iii) being able to define and create from women’s perspective,
- iv) being able to influence social choice and decisions affecting the whole society,
- v) being recognized and respected as an equal citizen and human being with a contribution to make.
- vi) Capacity building and skill development, especially the ability to plan, make decisions, organise and carry out activities.

In short, empowerment is a process of awareness and capacity building leading to greater participation, greater decision making power and control, and to transformative action.

The word empowerment is used in many different contexts and by many different organisations. There are a variety of understandings of the term empowerment due to its widespread usage. Although the term is often used in development work, it

is rarely defined. The idea of power is at the root of the term empowerment. Power can be understood as operating in a number of different ways:

Types of Power

The types of power that a person can have are explained below:

- 1) **Power within** – depends on in-born talents and capabilities.
- 2) **Power to** – involves the carrying out of actions, delegating, and taking on responsibility.
- 3) **Power with** – exists with the togetherness and input of several people acting as a group.
- 4) **Power over** – includes dictatorship, autocracy.

The first three “powers” are positive in the realm of empowering disadvantaged individuals or communities. The fourth power has negative connotations, and is not a good source of power for the betterment of the community and mankind.

Forms of Power

The forms of power include:

- 1) **Psychological power:** When a person has self-esteem, self-confidence and self-drive. An example of this power includes someone that does volunteer work striving towards a cause for the community, or someone who overcomes challenges that are confronted.
- 2) **Socio-economic power:** Changing the economic status through income-generating projects, or having inherited property that boosts economic status in the community.
- 3) **Political power:** Developed to make decisions; in administrative and policy matters that affect her life.

Levels of Power

There are five levels of empowerment:

- 1) **Welfare stage** – zero level of empowerment. Just basic needs are served at this level.
- 2) **Access stage** – the disadvantaged can have benefits, but can make no decisions about benefits.
- 3) **Participation stage** – disadvantaged are aware of their problem, see the need for change and can voice their opinion.
- 4) **Concretization state** – the person is involved in decision-making, but does not have full control over the resource;
- 5) **Control** – they have overcome cultural, social and political roadblocks and have been empowered.

Power must be understood as working at different levels, including the institutional, the household and the individual. For some theorists, power is a zero-sum: one group’s increase in power necessarily involves another’s loss of power. The idea of distribution of power is, therefore, seen as necessarily involving conflict. Some feminist writers on power have challenged the idea that power must necessarily involve domination by some, and obedience or oppression of others. Men would also benefit from the results of women’s empowerment with the chance to live in a

more equitable society and explore new roles. The kinds of power described above as power-to, power-with and power-within can be developed as alternatives to power-over.

Empowerment involves challenging the forms of oppression, which compel millions of people to play a part in their society on terms, which are inequitable, or in ways, which deny their human rights. Feminist activists stress that women's empowerment is not about replacing one form of empowerment with another.

From this multi-dimensional definition of power, it is evident that empowerment has several different and inter-related aspects. Empowerment is not only about opening up access to decision making, but also must include processes that lead people to perceive themselves as able and entitled to occupy that decision-making space. Empowerment is sometimes described as being able to make choices, but it must also involve being able to shape what choices are on offer. Empowerment corresponds to women challenging existing power structures, which subordinate women. As such, what is seen as empowering in one context may not be so in another.

Empowerment is essentially a bottom-up process rather than something that can be formulated as a top-down strategy. Women must empower themselves. Development organisations can, under some circumstances, play an enabling or facilitating role. They can ensure that their programmes work to support women's individual empowerment by encouraging women's participation, acquisition of skills, decision-making capacity and control over resources. Agencies can support women's collective empowerment by funding women's organisations, which work to address the causes of gender subordination, by promoting women's participation in political systems, and by fostering dialogue between those in positions of power and organisations with women's empowerment goals.

Empowerment cannot be defined in terms of specific activities or end results because it involves a process whereby women can freely analyse, develop and voice their needs and interests, without pre-defining, or imposing them from above by planners or other social actors. The assumption that planners can identify women's needs runs against empowerment objectives, which imply that women themselves formulate and decide what these interests are. Planning suggests a top-down approach, and yet women may define their interests differently from planners.

4.4 INDICATORS OF EMPOWERMENT

Measuring Empowerment

The claims for women's empowerment to be the goal or ultimate objective of many development policies and programmes leads to a demand for indicators of empowerment, both to reveal the extent to which women are already empowered, and to evaluate if such policies and programmes have been effective to achieve their stated aims. There are a variety of ways in which indicators of empowerment can be developed. Each has some value, but none can be taken as a complete measure, because the nature of empowerment as a multi-faceted concept means that it is not readily quantifiable. It is helpful to divide indicators of empowerment into two categories: those, which attempt to measure women's empowerment at a broad societal level, in order to gain information and make comparisons, and those, which are developed in order to measure the effects of specific projects or programmes. The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) of the Human Development Report (HDR) (UNDP, 1995) falls into the first of these categories.

The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM)

The Human Development Report (1995) states empowerment as one of the four essential components of the human development paradigm, the others being productivity, equity, and sustainability. Empowerment is described as people fully participating in the decisions and processes that shape their lives. It introduces two new indices, the gender empowerment measure (GEM) and the gender-related development index (GDI). The GDI attempts to measure countries' achievements in the basic capabilities covered by the HDI, taking note of the inequalities in achievement between women and men, and penalising for inequality. Countries with greater gender disparity in basic capabilities (life expectancy, educational attainment, and income) will have low GDIs compared to their HDI.

The GEM is a composite indicator, which looks at women's representation in parliaments, women's share of positions classified as managerial and professional, women's participation in the active labour force, and their share of national income. It aims to examine whether women and men are able to actively participate in economic and political life and take part in decision making. The HDR states that while the GDI focuses on the expansion of capabilities, the GEM is concerned with the use of those capabilities to take advantage of the opportunities of life.

Because of lack of available sex disaggregated data, GEM is not available for all countries. Also, lack of comparability between the ways in which data is defined and collected between different countries means that using GEM to compare the degree of women's empowerment across countries is not appropriate. Rather, it can be used to monitor, over time, progress in improving women's involvement in economic and political life and disparity between other development indicators and empowerment in particular countries. It is a useful additional indicator to other macro level figures, which may highlight gender gaps in development and suggests a need for reorientation of programme priorities. However, it has limitations in that, for example, quantitative measures of political participation in formal politics may not accurately reflect the degree of power, which women are able to exercise. Moreover, degree of participation of women in professional and managerial roles reflects mainly advancement of middle class women.

For **economic empowerment**, the following changes should be noted over time:

- 1 Changes in employment/unemployment rates of women and men;
- 1 Changes in time use in selected activities, particularly greater sharing by household members of unpaid housework and child-care;
- 1 Salary/wage differentials between women and men;
- 1 Changes in percentage of property owned and controlled by women and men (land, houses, livestock) across socio-economic and ethnic groups;
- 1 Average household expenditure of female/male households on education/health;
- 1 Ability to make small or large purchases independently;
- 1 Percentage of available credit, financial and technical support services going to women/men from government/non-government sources.

Social empowerment, changes overtime of:

- 1 Numbers of women in local institutions (e.g. women's associations, income generating groups, etc.) to project their population, and number of women in positions of power in local institutions;

- 1 Extent of training or networking among local women, as compared to men; control of women over fertility decisions (e.g. number of children, number of abortions);
- 1 Mobility of women within and outside their residential locality, as compared to men.
- 1 To what degree are women aware of local politics, and their legal rights?
- 1 Do women and men perceive that they are becoming more empowered? Why?
- 1 Do women perceive that they now have greater economic autonomy? Why?
- 1 Are changes taking place in the way in which decisions are made in the household, and what is the perceived impact of this?
- 1 Do women make decisions independently of men in their household? What sort of decisions are made independently?
- 1 The enforcement of legislation related to the protection of human rights;
- 1 Number of cases related to women's rights heard in local courts, and their results;
- 1 Number of cases related to the legal rights of divorced and widowed women heard in local courts, and results;
- 1 The effect of the enforcement of legislation in terms of treatment of offenders;
- 1 Increase/decrease in violence against women.

Political empowerment indicators include:

- 1 Percentage of seats held by women in local councils/decision-making bodies;
- 1 Percentage of women in decision-making positions in local government;
- 1 Percentage of women in the local civil service;
- 1 Percentage of women/men registered as voters/percentage of eligible women/men who vote;
- 1 percentage of women in senior/junior decision-making positions within unions;
- 1 Percentage of union members who are women/men;
- 1 Number of women who participate in public progress and political campaigning as compared to the number of men.

Check Your Progress I

Note: (a) Use space given below for your answers.

(b) Compare your answers with the text.

1) Describe the difference between gender and sex?

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2) Define the concept of empowerment.

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3) Describe the various aspects of empowerment process.

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4.5 GENDER ANALYSIS APPROACHES

Gender analysis reveals the roles and relationships of women and men in society and the inequalities in those relationships. That relation between men and women are at the heart of the development problematic was the starting point of analysis for a group of women working on issues of women's subordination within the development process at the Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex, in the mid-1970s. Initially at least, the group set out to contest the WID approach from a perspective, which was informed by the Marxist analysis of social change and a feminist analysis of patriarchy. The conceptual framework of GAD was constructed around several key propositions: that women are incorporated into the development process, but in very specific ways; that a focus on women alone was inadequate to understand the opportunities for women for agency or change; that women are not a homogeneous category, but are divided by class, colour and creed; that any analysis of social organisation and social process has to take into account the structure and dynamics of gender not merely their productive, or their reproductive activities; that women are not passive, nor marginal, but active subjects of social processes.

Gender analysis looks not only at roles and activities, but also at relationships. It asks not only who does what, but also who makes the decisions, and who derives the benefit, who uses resources such as land, or credit, and who controls these resources; and what other factors influence relationships, such as laws about property rights and inheritance.

What is Gender Analysis

A gender analysis is an intrinsic dimension of policy analysis, it identifies specifically how public policy affects women and men differently, it demonstrates that policy and implementation cannot be gender neutral in gendered societies. Gender analysis is a sub-set of socio-economic analysis. Its purpose is to reveal the connections between gender relations and the development problem to be solved. Its purpose may be two-fold: to "surface" the fact that gender relations are likely to have an impact on the solution to the problem, and to indicate exactly what that impact is likely to be, and alternative courses of action.

It is important to perceive that we live in societies that are permeated by gender differences and gender inequalities. There is no country in which the outcomes of public policy are equal for men and women, but the dimensions of these inequalities are often so deeply embedded that they are difficult to perceive. Gender analysis reveals these differences, and the fact that in such a social context any gender interventions that profess to be gender-neutral will, in fact, reflect and probably reinforce the imbalances that exist. Gender analysis of various kinds is, therefore, required to bring these inequalities to the surface and to the attention of people who can make a difference, so that their decisions are taken in a manner that is sensitive to and reflects the outcome of gender analysis.

What a good gender analysis should provide:

- 1 Understanding of gender relations;
- 1 The experiences of women as distinct from, and in relation to, the experiences of men;
- 1 The ways in which women are producers and contributors to the community under review;
- 1 Information on the ways in which women are subordinate to men. The ways in which women's access to resources, such as land, income, inheritance and political influence is less than men's, and through what mechanisms this inequality is maintained and preserved;
- 1 Analysis of the sexual division of labour;
- 1 Definition of the different but linked activities and responsibilities of women and men;
- 1 The ways in which men's and women's activities, in both the productive and socially reproductive spheres, are both separate and linked, cooperative and conflicting;
- 1 Discussion of fluidities, change and variation in the relationships between men and women, within their specific social context. This discussion will indicate possible opportunities for change;
- 1 How are men and women positioned in relation to the resources, constraints and benefits available in society at large.

Harvard Analytical Framework- Gender Roles Framework

Researchers at the Harvard Institute of International Development elaborated the Harvard analytical framework. It looks at access to and control over income and resources, highlighting the incentives and constraints under which men and women work in order to anticipate how projects will impact their productive and reproductive activities as well as the responsibilities of other household members. It sets out to make an economic case for allocating resources to women as well as men, and to assist planners to design more efficient projects. It is most useful for projects that are agriculturally or rurally based, and/or that are adopting a sustainable livelihoods approach to poverty reduction. It is also useful to explore the twin facts of productive and socially reproductive work, especially with groups that have limited experience of analysing differences between men and women.

Components

- 1 **Tool 1:** The activity profile. This tool assists in identifying the productive and socially reproductive activities of women and men, girls and boys. Other data disaggregated

by gender, age or other factors can also be included. It can record details of time spent on tasks and their location.

- 1 **Tool 2:** Access and control profile – resources and benefits. With this tool, the resources women and men use to carry out the tasks identified in the activity profile can be listed. It identifies whether women or men have access to resources, who controls their use and who in the household or community controls the benefits accruing from them.
- 1 **Tool 3:** Influencing factors. These are a list of factors, which determine the gender differences identified in the activities and access and control profiles.

The Harvard Analytical Framework

The Harvard Analytical Framework is also called the Gender Roles Framework or Gender Analysis Framework. Developed by the Harvard Institute for International development in collaboration with the WID office of USAID, and based on the WID efficiency approach, it is one of the earliest gender analysis and planning frameworks.

Aims of the Harvard Framework

- 1 To demonstrate that there is an economic rationale for investing in women as well as men.
- 1 To assist planners design more efficient projects and improve overall productivity.
- 1 To emphasise the importance of better information as the basis for meeting the efficiency/equity goal.
- 1 To map the work of men and women in the community and highlight the key differences.

Features

The framework consists of a matrix for collecting data at the micro (community and household) level. It has four interrelated components:

- 1 The activity profile, which answers the question, “who does what?”, including gender, age, time spent and location of the activity.
- 1 The access and control profile, which identifies the resources used to carry out the work identified in the activity profile, and access to and control over their use, by gender.
- 1 The analysis of influencing factors, which charts factors that influence gender differences in the above two profiles.
- 1 The project cycle analysis, which examines a project or intervention in light of gender-disaggregated information.

The framework also contains a series of checklists consisting of key questions to ask at each stage of the project cycle: identification, design, implementation, and evaluation.

Checklist 1: Women’s Dimension in Project Identification

- 1) What needs and opportunities exist for increasing women’s productivity and/or production?
- 2) What needs and opportunities exist for increasing women’s access to and control over resources?

- 3) What needs and opportunities exist for increasing women's access to and control over benefits?
- 4) How do these needs and opportunities relate to the country's other general and sectoral development needs and opportunities?
- 5) Have women been directly consulted in identifying such needs and opportunities?

Defining General Project Objectives

- 1) Are project objectives explicitly related to women's needs?
- 2) Do these objectives adequately reflect women's needs?
- 3) Have women participated in setting those objectives?
- 4) Have there been any earlier efforts?
- 5) How has the present proposal built on earlier activity?

Identifying Possible Negative Effects

- 1) Might the project reduce women's access to or control over resources and benefits?
- 2) Might it adversely affect women's situation in some other way?
- 3) What will be the effects on women in the short and longer term?

Checklist 2: Women's Dimension in Project Design

Project Impact on Women's Activities

- 1) Which of these activities (production, reproduction and maintenance, socio-political) does the project affect?
- 2) Is the planned component consistent with the current gender denomination for the activity?
- 3) If it is planned to change the women's performance of that activity (i.e., locus of activity, remunerative mode, technology, mode of activity), is this feasible, and what positive or negative effects would there be on women?
- 4) If it does not change, is this a missed opportunity for women's roles in the development process?
- 5) How can the project design be adjusted to increase the above-mentioned positive effects and reduce or eliminate the negative ones?

Project Impact on Women's Access and Control

- 1) How will each of the project components affect women's access to and control over the resources and benefits engaged in and stemming from the production of goods and services?
- 2) How will each of the project components affect women's access to and control over the resources and benefits engaged in and stemming from the reproduction and maintenance of the human resources?
- 3) How will each of the project components affect women's access to and control over the resources and benefits engaged in and stemming from the socio-political functions?
- 4) What forces have been set into motion to induce further exploration of constraints and possible improvements?

- 5) How can the project design be adjusted to increase women's access to and control over resources and benefits?

Checklist 3: Women's Dimension in Project Implementation

Personnel

- 1) What training techniques will be used to develop delivery systems? Are project personnel aware of and sympathetic to women's needs?
- 2) Are women used to deliver the goods and services to women beneficiaries?
- 3) Do personnel have the necessary skills to provide any special inputs required by women?
- 4) Are there appropriate opportunities for women to participate in project management positions?

Organisational Structures

- 1) Does the organisational form enhance women's access to resources?
- 2) Does the organisation have adequate power to obtain resources needed by women from other organisations?
- 3) Does the organisation have the institutional capability to support and protect women during the change process?

Operations and Logistics

- 1) Are the organisation's delivery channels accessible to women in terms of personnel, location and timing?
- 2) Do control procedures exist to ensure dependable delivery of the goods and services?
- 3) Are there mechanisms to ensure that the project resources or benefits are not usurped by males?

Finances

- 1) Do funding mechanisms exist to ensure programme continuity?
- 2) Are funding levels adequate for proposed tasks?
- 3) Is preferential access to resources by males avoided?
- 4) Is it possible to raise funds for women from allocation to delivery with a fair deal of accuracy?

Flexibility

- 1) Does the project have a management information system, which will allow it to detect the effects of the operation on women?
- 2) Does the organisation have enough flexibility to adapt its structures and operations to meet the changing or new-found situations of women?

Checklist 4: Women's Dimension in Project Evaluation

Data Requirements

- 1) Does the project's monitoring and evaluation system explicitly measure the project's effects on women?
- 2) Does it also collect data to update the Activity Analysis and the Women's Access and Control Analysis?

- 3) Are women involved in designing the data requirements?

Data Collection and Analysis

- 1) Are the data collected with sufficient frequency, so that necessary project adjustments could be made during the project?
- 2) Are the data fed back to project personnel and beneficiaries in an understandable form and on a timely basis to allow project adjustments?
- 3) Are women involved in the collection and interpretation of data?
- 4) Are data analysed so as to provide guidance to the design of other projects?
- 5) Are key areas of WID research identified?

Uses of the Framework

- 1) Best suited for project planning, rather than programme or policy planning.
- 2) As a gender-neutral entry point when raising gender issues with constituents resistant to considering gender relations and power dynamics.
- 3) For baseline data collection.
- 4) In conjunction with Moser's framework, to draw in the idea of strategic gender needs.

Moser Framework Gender Planning

This framework, developed by Caroline Moser, also examines women's roles, going beyond the household to look at women's triple roles – in production, reproduction, and community management – and the implications of these for their participation in development. This model distinguishes between gender practical needs and gender strategic needs.

The Moser Framework (gender planning) was developed as a planning tradition in its own right. It takes the view that gender planning, unlike other mainstream planning, is both technical and political in nature. It assumes conflict in the planning process. It involves transformative processes and it characterises planning as a 'debate'. There are different tools in the framework that can be used for analyses and planning. It can also be used for gender training. Institutional scope: households and community.

Components

Tool 1: Gender roles identification/triple role. This tool includes making visible the gender division of labour. It can be carried out by mapping all the activities of men and women (can include girls and boys) in the household over a twenty four hour period. A triple role for women is identified by Moser as productive, reproductive and community management roles.

Tool 2: Gender needs assessment. Women have particular needs because of their triple role as well as their subordinate position to men in society. These needs differ from men's needs. A distinction is made between practical gender needs (relating to women's living conditions) and strategic gender interests/needs (related to issues of power and control in gender relations). Practical and strategic gender interests/needs should not be seen as entirely distinct and separate, but rather as a continuum.

Tool 3: Disaggregating control of resources and decision-making within a household. This tool is used to find out who has control over resources within the household, who makes decisions about their use, and how decisions are made.

Tool 4: Balancing of roles. This relates to how women manage the balance between their productive, reproductive and community tasks. It asks whether a planned intervention will increase a women's workload in one role with consequences for her other roles.

Tool 5: WID/GAD policy matrix. The WID/GAD policy matrix provides a framework for identifying/evaluating the approaches that have been (or can) be used to address the triple role, and the practical and strategic gender needs of women in programmes and projects. Five different approaches can be identified: welfare, equity, anti-poverty, efficiency, and empowerment.

At the outset, it is important to clarify the distinction Molyneux makes between "women's interests" and gender interests. The concept of 'women's interests' assumes compatibility of interests based on biological similarities. In reality the position of women in society depends on a variety of different criteria, such as class and ethnicity as well as gender. Consequently, the interests they have in common may be determined as much by their class position or their ethnic identity as by their biological similarity as women. As Molyneux (1985s) has argued, women may have general interests in common. But this should be referred to as "gender interests", to differentiate them from the false homogeneity imposed by the notion of 'women's interests'.

"Gender interests are those that women (or men for that matter) may develop by virtue of their social positioning through gender attributes. Gender interests can be either strategic or practical, each being derived in a different way and each involving differing implications for women's subjectivity."

Similarly, within the planning context, 'women's need' also vary widely. They are determined not only by specific socio-economic contexts, but also by the particular class, ethnic and religious structures of individual societies. Consequently, although planners refer to the category of 'women's needs' in general policy terms, it is of limited utility when translated into specific planning interventions.

Gender Needs

Molyneux's distinction between strategic and practical gender interests is of theoretical significance for gender analysis. For gender planning, it is the distinction between strategic and practical gender needs that is important. It is this that provides gender planning with one of its most fundamental planning tools. Frequently, different needs are confused. Clarification is essential if realistic parameters are to be identified both as to what can be accomplished in the planning process, as well as the limitations of different policy interventions.

Strategic Gender Needs

Strategic gender needs are the needs women identify because of their subordinate position to men in their society. Strategic gender needs vary according to particular contexts. They relate to gender division of labour, power and control and may include such issues as legal rights, domestic violence, equal wages and women's control over their bodies. Meeting strategic gender needs helps women to achieve greater equality. It also changes existing roles and, therefore, challenges women's subordinate position.

Strategic gender needs are those needs that are formulated from the analysis of women's subordination to men. Deriving from this analysis, strategic gender interests necessary for an alternative, more equal and satisfactory organisation of society than that which exists at present can be identified. This relates both to the structure

and nature of relationships between men and women. As will be illustrated, the strategic gender needs identified to overcome women's subordination vary depending on the particular cultural and socio-political context within which they are formulated, strategic gender needs, as Molyneux has identified, may include all or some of the following:

“The abolition of the sexual division of labour; the alleviation of the burden of domestic labour and children; the removal of institutionalized forms of discrimination, such as rights to own land or property, or access to credit; the establishment of political equality; freedom of choice over childbearing; and the adoption of adequate measures against male violence and control over women.”

Strategic gender needs such as these are often identified as ‘feminist, as is the level of consciousness required to struggle effectively for them. Historically, top down state intervention alone has not removed any of the persistent causes of gender inequality within society. The capacity to confront the nature of gender inequality and women's subordination has only been fulfilled when it has incorporated the bottom-up struggle of women's organisations. Even here, however, despite a few optimistic examples, the failure to fulfil strategic gender needs continues to be a widespread preoccupation for many. As Molyneux has identified, for feminists, it is these, which are women's ‘real’ interests.

Practical Gender Needs

Practical gender needs are the needs women identify with their socially accepted roles in society. Practical gender needs do not challenge the gender divisions of labour or women's subordinate position in society, although rising out of them. Practical gender needs are a response to immediate perceived necessity, identified within a specific context. They are practical in nature and often are concerned with inadequacies in living conditions, such as water provision, health care, and employment.

Practical gender needs, in contrast, are those that are formulated from the concrete conditions women experience. These derive from their positions within the gender division of labour, in addition to their practical gender interests for human survival. Unlike strategic gender needs, they are formulated directly by women in these positions, rather than through external interventions. Practical needs, therefore, are usually a response to an immediate perceived necessity, which is identified by women within a specific context. As Molyneux has written, ‘they do not generally entail a strategic goal such as women's emancipation or gender equality – nor do they challenge the prevailing forms of subordination even though they arise directly out of them’.

The gender division of labour within the household gives women primary responsibility not only for domestic work involving child care, family health and food provision, but also for the community managing of housing and basic services, along with the capacity to earn an income through productive work. Therefore, in planning terms, policies to meet practical gender needs have to focus on the domestic arena, on income-earning activities, and also on community level requirements of housing and basic services. In reality, basic needs such as food, shelter and water are required by all the family, particularly children. Yet they are identified specifically as the practical gender needs of women, both by policy-makers concerned to achieve developmental objectives, and by women themselves. Both are, therefore, often responsible for preserving and reinforcing (even if unconsciously) the gender division of labour. Since there is often a unity of purpose between the development priorities

of intervening agencies and practical gender needs identified at the local level, the two frequently and easily become conflated. This serves the purposes of planners who are then identified as meeting 'women's needs'. At the same time, it can make it even more difficult for women themselves to recognize and formulate their strategic gender needs.

It has become very popular for policy-makers and the media alike to label any policy or programme associated with women as 'feminist' or 'women's lib'. Such terms are used by many in such a derisory manner that they provide a hostile and negative reaction from female and male planners alike. The differentiation between practical and strategic gender needs provides a critical planning tool. This allows practitioners to understand better that planning for the needs of low-income women is not necessarily 'feminist' in content. Indeed, the vast majority of interventions for women world-wide are considered within the existing gender division of labour, as wives and mothers. These are intended to meet their practical gender needs. While such interventions are important, they will only become 'feminist' in content, if, and when, they are transformed into strategic gender needs.

Gender needs differentiation, therefore, can provide a useful tool for planners. Not only does it help in diffusing the criticisms of those who find 'feminism' unacceptable by showing them that working with women is often not 'feminist'. In addition, it is helpful for policy-makers and planners responsible for meeting the practical gender needs of women, in assisting their adoption of more 'challenging' solutions. What then defines the 'political space' for addressing different gender needs within specific contexts? Is it the family, civil society or the state? To answer such a question requires an understanding of the interrelationship of these three levels of social, economic and political organisations.

Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM)

The gender analyses framework is developed by A. Rani Parker. The framework aims to find out the different impacts of development interventions on women and men by providing a community-based technique for the identification and analysis of gender differences. It assists the community to identify and challenge their assumptions about gender roles in a constructive manner. It may be used for different purposes, for example, transformatory gender training, or as a participatory planning tool.

Components

The analysis is conducted at four levels of society: women, men, household and community. The GAM examines impact on four areas: labour, time, resources and socio-cultural factors.

Women's Empowerment Framework (WEP)

The women's empowerment framework, developed by Sara Hlupekile Longwe, aims to assist planners question what women's equality and empowerment means in practice and to what extent a development intervention is supporting empowerment.

Institutional scope: development institutions. These five levels are presented as criteria for measuring for extent of women's development in any area of social life. They are:

- i) **Welfare:** The level of material welfare of women, relative to men, in such matters as food supply, income and medical care. This level of equality is concerned purely with relative level of welfare, and is not concerned with whether women are

themselves the active creator and producers of their material needs; such involvement would suggest a higher degree of empowerment and development, which is considered a higher level of criteria.

- ii) **Access:** Women's access to the factors of production on an equal basis with men: equal access to land, labour, credit, training, marketing facilities and all publicly available services and benefits on an equal basis with men. Here equality of access is obtained by ensuring the principle of equality of opportunity, which typically entails from the reform of the law and administrative practice to remove all forms of discrimination against women.
- iii) **Conscientisation:** The understanding of the difference between sex roles and gender roles, and that the latter are cultural and can be changed; conscientisation also involves a belief that the sexual division of labour should be fair and agreeable to both sides, and not involve the economic or political domination of one sex by the other. Belief in sexual equality lies at the basis of gender awareness, and provides the basis for collective participation in the process of women's development.
- iv) **Participation:** This level of equality is concerned with women's equal participation in the decision making process; this means participation in the processes of policy making planning and administration. It is a particularly important aspect of development projects, where participation means involvement in needs assessment, project formulation, implementation and evaluation. Equality of participation means involving the women of the community affected by the decision taken, and involving them in the same proportion in decision making as their proportion in the community at large.
- v) **Control:** This level entails not only the participation of women in the decision-making process, but a utilisation of this participation through conscientisation and mobilisation to achieve equality of control over the factors of production, and equality of control over the distribution of benefits. Equality of control means a balance of control between men and women, so that neither side is put into a position of dominance or subordination.

Social Relations Approach

The social relations framework, developed by Naila Kabeer at the Institute of Development Studies (Sussex, UK), analyses the social relations within the family, market, state and community that illuminates the ways in which gender and other inequalities are created and reproduced. It examines the social processes through which human needs are met as well as the institutions through which inequalities are constructed and reproduced. The aims of the Social Relations Approach are to analyse existing gender inequalities in the distribution of resources, responsibilities and power and to design policies, which enable women to be agents in their own development.

Institutional scope: households, community, state, market, and development institutions.

Components

The main concepts of the Social Relations Approach are:

- 1 **Concept 1:** Development as increasing human well-being (survival, security and autonomy), and not just about economic growth or increased productivity.
- 1 **Concept 2:** Social relations. Social relations determine people's roles, responsibilities and claims, as well as the rights and control they have over their

own lives and those of others. Social relations include gender relations, class, ethnicity, race.

- 1 **Concept 3:** Institutional analysis. The factors that produce gender inequalities are not found solely in the family, but exist across a wide range of institutions. The social relations approach identifies four key institutions: the state, the market, the community, and the family/kinship.

Challenging the ideological neutrality and independence of institutions, five distinct, but inter-related elements of social relationships are analysed: rules (how things get done), resources (what is used and/or produced), people (who is in/out, who does what), activities (what is done), and power (who decides, and whose interests are served).

- 1 **Concept 4:** Institutional gender policies. Gender policies are divided into categories depending on the extent to which they recognise and address gender issues: gender-blind policies, gender-aware policies, gender-neutral policies, gender-specific policies, and gender-redistributive policies.
- 1 **Concept 5:** Underlying and structural causes. When undertaking an analysis for the purpose of planning an intervention, this framework examines the immediate, underlying and structural factors, which are responsible for the problems, and their effects on those involved.

The Policy Context

Gender analysis lays out the different policy approaches to women, men and development that have emerged over the years and the assumptions made about gender relations within each approach. In analyzing development policies, we can distinguish between:

Gender-blind policies – policies, which take no account of how they will impact on the lives of men and women. Such policies often tend to be male-biased. They either implicitly draw on male activities and male experiences as the basis of their design or they are explicitly targeted at male heads of households on the assumption that such benefits will trickle across to women and children within the household.

Gender-aware policies are based on assumptions and practices, which recognize that women and men are differently positioned in relation to production and reproduction and may have different and conflicting needs and interests. Gender-aware policies may result in:

Gender-neutral interventions – these take cognizance of gender differences in resources and responsibilities and channel development inputs to the appropriate actors. Such policies seek to leave the distributional patterns unchanged. Example, seeking to improve agricultural productivity will require some interventions to be channeled to women and others to men, based on an analysis of the existing division of labour.

Gender-specific policies – these take cognizance of gender differences in resources and responsibilities and may support one or other gender in order to meet a particular set of needs. While they may provide extra resources to women or men, they generally do so within the existing distribution of resources and

responsibilities. A concern with child survival may mean providing nutritional education to mothers and support for their homestead gardening activities, but it does not question the division of responsibilities within the home.

Gender-redistribution policies – these take cognizance of gender inequalities in resources and responsibilities as well as power and privilege and seek to bring about more equitable distributions.

Improving Agricultural Development Projects through Gender Analysis

A) *Gender Roles in the Farming System*

Women and men have distinct roles within the farming system. Gender differences in rural farming households vary widely across cultures, but certain features are common. Women tend to concentrate their agricultural activities around the homestead, primarily because of their domestic and reproductive roles; they play a critical role in food production, post-harvest activities, livestock care, and increasingly in cash cropping. Certain tasks, activities, or enterprises are regarded as “male” or “female”. In some settings, a rigid division of labour exists between men and women: household members have separate incomes and expenditures and reciprocal or skewed rights and obligations. In others, the division of labour and specialization of tasks is less rigid and not as skewed. In general, however, women tend to have a wider range of activities and enterprises than men. On the one hand, they have productive activities in agriculture and livestock management; on the other, they have chief responsibility for reproductive activities, that is, the bearing and rearing of children and maintenance of the house hold. Although the gender-based division of labor in the farming system varies widely, it still affects responses to agricultural innovation everywhere.

Table: Gender-Based Differences in Agriculture

Access to	Gender-Based Differences
Land	Land title and tenure tend to be vested in men, either by legal condition or by socio-cultural norms. Land reform and resettlement have tended to reinforce this bias against tenure for women. Land shortage is common among women. Compared to men, women farms are smaller and more dispersed and are less likely to hold title, secure tenure, or the same rights to use, improve, or dispose of land.
Extension and training	Women farmers have less contact with extension services than men, especially where male-female contact is culturally restricted. Extension is often provided by male agents to male farmers on the erroneous assumption that the message will trickle “across” to women. In fact, agricultural knowledge is transferred inefficiently or not at all from husband to wife. Moreover, the message itself tends to ignore the unique workload, responsibilities, and constraints faced by women farmers.
Technology	Women generally use lower levels of technology because of difficulties in access, cultural restrictions on use, or

considerations of women's crops and livestock as low research priorities.

Finance	Women have less access to formal financial services because of high transaction costs, limited education and mobility, social and cultural barriers, the nature of their businesses, and collateral requirements, such as land title, that they cannot fill.
Time	Women face far greater time constraints than men. They may spend less time on farmwork, but work longer total hours on productive and household work and paid and unpaid work, due to gender-based division of labour in child care and household responsibilities.
Mobility	Women are less mobile than men, both because of their child care and household responsibilities and because of socio-cultural norms that limit their mobility.
Education and training	Women are less educated and their illiteracy hampers their access to and ability to understand technical information. Worldwide, women have less access to education and training in agricultural subjects.

Women's agricultural activities are changing with mounting pressure on land, environmental degradation, increased rural poverty, and male out-migration. Female-headed households, in particular, may suffer from labour constraints, especially for the typically male task of land preparation. In addition, household data often underestimate the proportion of de facto female-headed households. The identification of female-headed households depends, to a large extent, on how surveys are designed and administered. Most households are traditionally described as male-headed, but further questioning reveals that many male heads are very young, very old, or absent .

Checklist of Gender Issues in Agriculture Sector

<i>Policies:</i> Is there legal equality in: 1 Property law, land title, and tenure? 1 Access to credit and savings? Is gender explicit in: 1 The national development plan? 1 The agricultural development plan?	Correct de jure gender bias. This helps ensure a gender-balanced approach and prevents compromising the success of actions or worsening of women's situations.
<i>Assess gender relations in the household:</i> How do women participate in family and community decision making? Is male-female contact culturally restricted? What are the gender differences in customary law?	Gender analysis can uncover actual inequality that may be masked by legal equality. It can reveal the views of both men and women, particularly from rural areas. Then, actions can be based on their expressed needs, rather than imposed top-down.
<i>Determine number of de facto women heads of farming households and women's role as farmers:</i>	The importance of women as farmers and as heads of farming households is known. Special actions to ensure that

What are traditional attitudes towards women as heads of households?
Are census/survey data available on women as heads of farming households?
Do they agree with data from smaller intensive surveys? How did methodologies differ? How were questions worded or administered?
What are the rate and characteristics of male out-migration?
How much farmland (titled or customary) do women, especially heads of households, hold?

women's access to farming resources, services, and opportunities can be designed as needed.

Identify expertise and pressure groups for gender:
Is there a gender unit in the Ministry of Agriculture?
Is there a special women's Ministry or unit?
Are these units effective?
Which NGOs are working on gender?

Potential partners, implementers, and sources of information can be identified.

Check Your Progress II

Note: a) Use space given below for your answers.

b) Compare your answers with the text.

1) What is gender analysis ?

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2) How gender analysis is useful in gender planning.

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4.6 LET US SUM UP

The women's empowerment framework reconceptualizes the development objectives of gender-responsive programming. Rather than focusing on economic objectives, such as enabling women to be more productive or use their labour time more effectively in order to reap the benefits of development, it views women's equality and women's empowerment as central development objectives in their own right. The framework aims to provide tools for the design, implementation and evaluation

of programmes and projects that explicitly contribute to women's empowerment and gender equality. This involves promoting a 'bottom up' approach to planning. The argument is that 'when development planners conduct a baseline survey and gender role analysis, they can identify only practical needs, not strategic interests'. The objective is to provide 'a systemic and analytical understanding of the grassroots empowerment process by which the local community recognizes and pursues its strategic interests'. The main methodological tool is a five-level profile for measuring women's empowerment, which builds on the access and control profile developed in the GRF. Women's advancement to equality and empowerment is measured on the basis of a hierarchy of ascending 'levels of equality': welfare; access; conscientization; participation; control.

Empowerment is a process aimed at changing the nature and direction of systematic forces, which marginalise women and other disadvantaged sections in a given context. Empowerment is also visualized as an enabling process. It implies fundamental redistribution of power within and between families/societies and an externally induced process or mechanism of change towards women's equality and development. Here, power is used not as a domination, but the right to choose and the ability to influence social and political process. Economic growth must be combined with equitable distribution of its benefits. Equitable opportunities must be available both to present and to future generations. And all people, women and men, must be empowered to participate in the design and implementation of key decisions that shape their lives. Human development is impossible without gender equality. As long as women are excluded from the development process, development will remain weak and lopsided.

While the impact of various developmental policies, plans and programmes implemented over the last few decades have brought forth a perceptible improvement in the socio-economic status of women, problems like illiteracy, ignorance, discrimination and violence continue to persist even today. Gender disparity manifests itself in various forms, the most obvious being the trend of continuously declining female ratio in the population in the last few decades. Social stereotyping and violence at the domestic and societal levels are some of the other manifestations. Discrimination against girl children, adolescent girls and women persists in parts of the country. The underlying causes of gender inequality are related to social and economic structure, which is based on informal and formal norms and practices.

Women and men have distinct roles within the farming system. Gender differences in rural farming households vary widely across cultures, but certain features are common. Women tend to concentrate their agricultural activities around the homestead, primarily because of their domestic and reproductive roles; they play a critical role in food production, post-harvest activities, livestock care, and increasingly in cash cropping. Certain tasks, activities, or enterprises are regarded as "male" or "female".

4.7 KEY WORDS

Empowerment is a process of awareness and capacity building leading to greater participation, greater decision making power and control, and to transformative action.

Sex identifies the biological differences between women and men and is genetically determined. Only a very small proportion of the differences in roles assigned to men and women can be attributed to biological and physical differences based on sex. For example, pregnancy, childbirth and differences in physiology can be attributed to sex related characteristics.

Gender refers to the socially determined differences between women and men, such as roles, attitudes, behaviour and values. Gender roles are learned and vary across cultures and over time; they are, thus, amenable to change. Gender is a relational term that includes both women and men. Gender equality focuses on changes for both women and men.

Gender Equity is the process of being fair to both men and women. To ensure fairness, measures must often be available to compensate for historical and social disadvantages that prevent women and men from otherwise operating on a level playing field. Equity can be understood as the means, where equality is the end. Equity leads to equality.

Gender Analysis is a process to assess the differential impact of proposed or existing policies, programmes, projects and legislation on men and women. Gender analysis recognizes that the realities of men's and women's lives are different, and that equal opportunity does not necessarily mean equal results.

Women in Development (WID) is an approach that emerged in the 1970s, with the goal of integrating women more fully into the development process. It includes strategies, such as women-only projects and credit and training projects for women.

The Gender and Development (GAD) approach was developed in the 1980s in response to perceived failings of the WID approach. Rather than focusing exclusively on women, this approach is concerned with relations between women and men. It challenges unequal decision-making and power relations between not only men and women, but also between rich and poor.

Women-specific approach refers to initiatives that target women or girls exclusively. These initiatives tend to have an explicit objective to meet practical or strategic needs of women that are not always addressed through the integrated approach. Such activities are often valuable development investments, especially where they will be catalytic, innovative or strategic, or where they remedy a particularly urgent gender inequity. They are justified as being necessary to overcome gender-blindness that has in the past excluded women from the benefits of development.

Gender-blind policies – policies, which take no account of how they will impact on the lives of men and women. Such policies often tend to be male-biased. They either implicitly draw on male activities and male experiences as the basis of their design or they are explicitly targeted at male heads of households on the assumption that such benefits will trickle across to women and children within the household.

Gender-aware policies are based on assumptions and practices, which recognize that women and men are differently positioned in relations to production and reproduction and may have different and conflicting needs and interests. Gender-aware policies may result in.

Gender-neutral interventions – these take cognizance of gender differences in resources and responsibilities and channel development inputs to the appropriate actors. Such policies seek to leave the distributional patterns unchanged. Eg., seeking to improve agricultural productivity will require some interventions to be channeled to women and others to men based on an analysis of the existing division of labour.

Gender-specific policies – these take cognizance of gender differences in resources and responsibilities and may target one or other gender in order to meet a particular set of needs. While they may provide extra resources to women or men, they

generally do so within the existing distribution of resources and responsibilities. A concern with child survival may mean providing nutritional education to mothers and support for their homestead, gardening activities, but it does not question the division of responsibilities within the home.

Gender-redistribution policies – these take cognizance of gender inequalities in resources and responsibilities as well as power and privilege and seek to bring about more equitable distributions.

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