



# Ec priority areas for development cooperation: aspects for gender analysis

## SECTION 2

# Toolkit

on mainstreaming gender equality  
in EC development cooperation



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## INTRODUCTION

The Programme of Action for the mainstreaming of gender equality in Community development cooperation<sup>1</sup> states as its main objectives:

- a. The analysis and integration of gender in the priority areas identified by the Community Development Policy;
- b. The mainstreaming of gender in projects and programmes at regional and country levels;
- c. Gender capacity building to underpin the Commission's capacity to mainstream gender issues effectively across the board.

With reference to the first objective, the six priority areas identified by the Community Development Policy<sup>2</sup> are as follows:

1. Support for macroeconomic policies, poverty reduction strategies and social sector programmes in health and education;
2. Food security and sustainable rural development;
3. Transport;
4. Institutional capacity building, good governance and the rule of law;
5. Trade and development;
6. Regional integration and cooperation.

This section of the Toolkit, Section 2, provides checklists of gender equality issues to be addressed in each of the six priority areas, using the schema of macro, meso and micro levels of analysis, which was presented in Section 1, Chapter Six (6.3) of the Toolkit.

The **macro level** presents gender equality issues at national policy level, relating for example to national commitments to the Beijing Platform for Action (1995) or the Millennium Development Goals (2000). The reflection of these national commitments in sectoral policies and in national development plans should be taken into consideration at this level.

The extent to which national policies and legislation reflect sector-specific international commitments to gender equality (e.g. the commitments taken at the World Social Summit<sup>3</sup> or the goals set at Dakar for Education for All<sup>4</sup>) or converge with the gender equality provisions included in EC thematic guidelines (e.g. the EC Communication on education and training in the context of poverty reduction in developing countries<sup>5</sup> and Council Resolution on education and poverty<sup>6</sup>) should be considered here.

<sup>1</sup> Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament and to the Council on the Programme of Action for the mainstreaming of gender equality in Community development cooperation COM (2001) 295 final. See Section 1, Chapter Two of the Toolkit for more discussion of the Programme of Action.

<sup>2</sup> Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament on the European Community's Development Policy, COM (2000) 212 final, 26 April 2000.

<sup>3</sup> See <http://www.un.org/esa/socdev/wssd/>.

<sup>4</sup> See [http://www.unesco.org/education/efa/wef\\_2000/index.shtml](http://www.unesco.org/education/efa/wef_2000/index.shtml).

<sup>5</sup> Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament on education and training in the context of poverty reduction in developing countries, COM (2002) 116 final, 6 March 2002.

<sup>6</sup> Education and poverty: Resolution of the Council and Representatives of the Governments of Member States, 2429<sup>th</sup> Council Meeting (30 May 2002), 8958/02.



The macro level also relates to the legislative basis for gender inequalities and the national commitment to the international Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).<sup>7</sup>

The consistency of national legislation with sector-specific international legal instruments, including provisions for gender equality, should also be reviewed here (e.g. ILO Conventions such as Convention no. 111 on discrimination in employment and occupation<sup>8</sup>).

The representation of women and men at the highest decision-making levels (public and private sector) and the collection and reporting of national statistics disaggregated by sex are also issues which must be examined at this level.

The checklist of issues to be considered at macro level also includes a question as to whether or not a gender budget analysis of the sector has taken place.

The **meso level** concerns primarily public- and private-sector institutions and delivery systems which may or may not reflect adherence to principles of gender equality in their structures and in the services they provide. The positions of men and women in the labour market and in the informal economy are also reviewed at this level. Institutions and organisations who are particular advocates of gender equality issues may be important stakeholders at this level.

The **micro level** addresses gender issues at family and community level and looks at relative access to and control over the material and non-material benefits of society by women and men, which may have a political and/or legal basis or may be based on custom and tradition. Different stakeholders for gender equality issues, including women's organisations and machineries at this level, should also be identified.

This schema (macro, meso, micro levels of analysis), like all similar analytical frameworks, necessarily oversimplifies a very complex situation. There are complex interrelationships between different levels of the same priority area, and the priority areas themselves are overlapping rather than discrete entities.

Gender equality as a key development objective and as a requirement for sustainable development offers an opportunity for the concrete application of the EC principle of policy coherence. This is the commitment to take account of development problems in all the activities which are likely to affect developing countries, including a systematic analysis of the direct and indirect effects of policy measures.<sup>9</sup>

The analysis of gender issues in each priority area highlights interdependencies between the various areas and across different levels of possible action, and the need to take an integrated and multidisciplinary approach to address development problems from a long-term perspective.

The gender equality issues presented for each priority area in this Section of the Toolkit are indicative rather than exhaustive, and are intended to stimulate reflection and ideas for conducting a deeper gender analysis of particular projects or programmes. For each priority area, actual examples and a list of additional resources are provided.

<sup>7</sup> See Section 1, Chapter Two of the Toolkit for more details on the Beijing PFA, CEDAW and the MDGs; and Chapter Three for further information as to how these commitments and related processes are reflected at the level of Country Strategy Papers (CSPs).

<sup>8</sup> ILO Convention no. 111 concerning discrimination in respect of employment and occupation, adopted at International Labour Conference, 42nd Session. Geneva, 25 June 1958.

<sup>9</sup> Communication on the European Community's Development Policy, op. cit.

## PRIORITY AREA 1

### Support for macroeconomic policies, poverty reduction strategies and social sector programmes in health and education

#### 1.1

#### Overview of gender equality issues in macroeconomic policies

It is often considered that gender is a purely 'social' issue of little relevance to economic policy-making. The lack of sex disaggregation of the data upon which many economic models are based has contributed to the neglect of the women's contribution to the overall economy and to the underestimation of the differential impacts of macroeconomic policies on men and women.

The EC recognises that gender equality is a cross-cutting issue that is critically linked to poverty reduction.

Improving women's access to economic opportunities and enhancing returns on their efforts is considered central to the goal of poverty eradication and the achievement of the MDGs.<sup>10</sup>

Although exact data are often scarce, women in developing regions seem to bear an unequal share of the poverty burden. Studies have shown that in many countries female heads of households are younger and less educated than their male counterparts and have less access to land, capital and labour.<sup>11</sup> Globally, women from poor households play a more critical role in income-earning and expenditure-saving activities than do women from better-off households, and these activities are concentrated in the informal economy.

Key gender equality issues in macroeconomic policies are outlined in the following pages.

#### 1.2

#### Some key gender equality issues in macroeconomic policies

##### Macro level

- Do national poverty reduction policies and strategies recognise the different economic contribution of men and women to the productive and care economies<sup>12</sup> and the differential impact of economic reforms on men and women?

<sup>10</sup> Kabeer, N., *Gender Mainstreaming in Poverty Eradication and the Millennium Development Goals: A handbook for policy-makers and other stakeholders* (Commonwealth Secretariat/IDRC/CIDA, 2003).

<sup>11</sup> FAO (2003) Socio-economic and Gender Analysis Programme (SEAGA), *Macro Level Handbook: Gender analysis in macroeconomic and agricultural sector policies and programmes* (FAO, 2003),

<sup>12</sup> In all types of work done by men and women a distinction can be made between productive and reproductive work. Reproductive work is also referred to as work in the care economy. Production includes the production of goods and services for income or subsistence. This is the work most commonly included in national statistics. Reproductive or care work encompasses the care and maintenance of the household and its members. It is normally unpaid and is not counted in conventional economic statistics. It is mostly done by women.

- Are data on which national economic planning and budgeting is based disaggregated by sex? Are qualitative data available on the economic participation of women and men in all sectors of the economy, and on the impact upon them of current economic reform?
- Does existing national legislation underpin gender inequalities in economic participation, e.g. through discrimination between women and men in terms of inheritance rights, rights to own land and other assets; and/or ability to own bank accounts and have access to credit? What measures are being taken to bring discriminatory legislative provisions into line with national CEDAW commitments?
- Has a gender budget analysis taken place?

#### Meso level

- Does public expenditure at this level respect gender equality commitments and principles enunciated at the macro level?
- Is the labour market segregated vertically and/or horizontally<sup>13</sup> according to gender such that women are to be found only in certain sectors and at lower-status, more poorly paid jobs?
- How have economic reforms impacted on women and men at this level?
- Are new vocational training programmes being designed to address existing gender-based occupational segregation and to ensure that new opportunities are equally accessible by women and men?
- Are new economic opportunities available to both women and men?
- Are sex-disaggregated data on the informal sector available at this level?
- Are statisticians trained to collect data which reflect differential participation and gender-differentiated poverty rates?
- Are important stakeholders at this level, e.g. public- and private-sector employers, banks and credit institutions, respecting gender equality principles and/or making special efforts to enhance women's participation? Are women well represented as owners and managers of businesses and enterprises at this level?

#### Micro level

- How does access to and control over the material and non-material resources of the society differ between women and men?
- What is the gendered division of labour, decision-making and time-use in the household?
- What are the different spending and saving habits of men and women?
- How are the impacts of discriminatory legislation related to inheritance or access to job opportunities or credit felt at the level of the household?

<sup>13</sup> Job segregation, occupational segregation and employment segregation are all terms to describe the concentration of women and men in different types and levels of activity and employment, with women normally being confined to a narrower range of occupations (horizontal segregation) than men, and to the lower grades of work (vertical segregation). See *One Hundred Words for Gender Equality: A glossary of terms on equality between women and men* (DG Employment and Social Affairs, 1998), [http://europa.eu.int/comm/employment\\_social/equ\\_opp/glossary/glossary\\_en.pdf](http://europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social/equ_opp/glossary/glossary_en.pdf).



### Further information on gender issues in macroeconomic policies

- ▶ Anker, Richard (1998), *Gender and Jobs: Sex segregation of occupations in the world*. Geneva: ILO
- ▶ Vickers, Jeanne (1991), *Women and the World Economic Crisis*. London: Zed Books
- ▶ Wichterich, Christa (2000), *The Globalized Woman*. London: Zed Books
- ▶ World Bank (2001), *Engendering Development: Through gender equality in rights, resources, and voice*. Oxford University Press / World Bank, January. ISBN 0 19 521596 6

## 1.3

### Overview of gender equality issues in the education sector

The education system is important for the transmission not only of knowledge, skills and information but also of societal values relating, *inter alia*, to gender equality.

In many countries and regions girls still lag behind boys in terms of educational enrolment and achievement, and even where this gap may have been closed in quantitative terms, qualitative differences remain as a result of girls and boys being 'streamed' into different disciplines at secondary or tertiary levels. Normally girls are encouraged to pursue studies in so-called 'soft' areas in arts subjects rather than to take on subjects considered more 'scientific' or 'technical', such as engineering. In this way the education system often acts as a vehicle for the transmission of traditional stereotypes which are then reflected in gender-based occupational segregation of the economy.

It is important to highlight that improvements in the education system alone will be insufficient to eliminate the range of gender inequalities in a given country or enhance women's economic participation without accompanying changes in the 'enabling environment'.<sup>14</sup> Structural causes of inequality, some of them legally based, and attitudes embedded in institutions and society at large must also be tackled. In several countries in the Middle East, for example, girls are represented in equal or more than equal numbers at some or all levels of the educational system, yet participate very little in the paid economy, largely because of stereotypes which militate against their working outside the home.

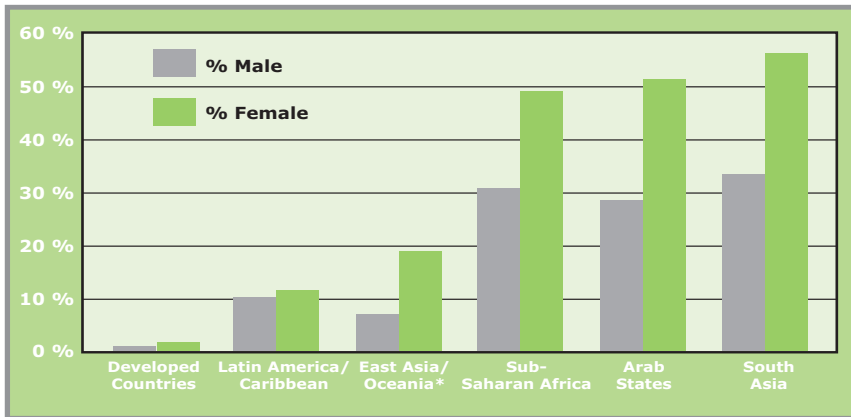
On the other hand, the benefits of enhanced education for girls and women go far beyond improving their economic potential. It has been well documented that improving access to education for women and girls has positive effects on the health and well-being of their families later in life.



<sup>14</sup> Millennium Project, Task Force 3, Interim Report on Gender Equality, 2004.



Estimated world illiteracy rates, by region and by gender, 2000



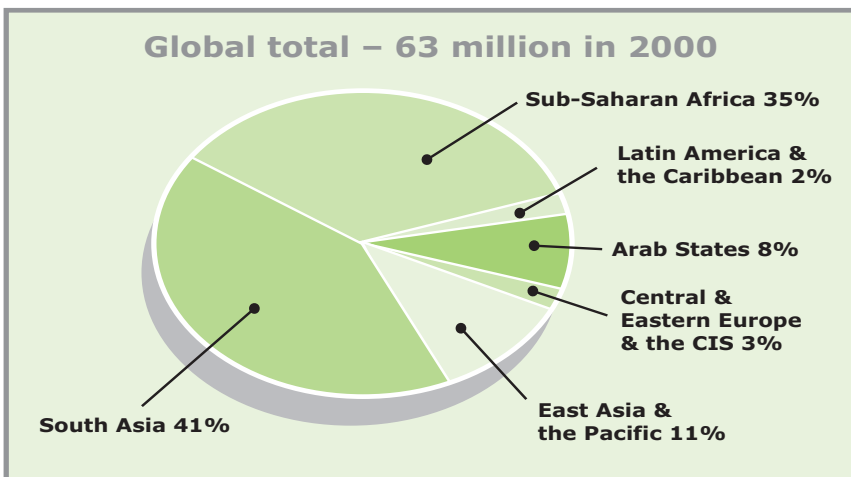
Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics

\*Not including Japan, Australia and New Zealand

The EC has placed a strong emphasis on promoting primary-school education<sup>15</sup> in particular for the girl child, in the context, *inter alia*, of the international commitments to the MDGs. MDG 2 is to ensure that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling. The target for this Goal is to ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.<sup>16</sup> MDG 3 is to promote gender equality and empower women. The main target of this goal is to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005 and at all levels by 2015. The focus on education as the target for MDG 3 is justified by the evidence that investing in girls' education yields high returns, both material and non-material, at individual, family and societal levels, as stated above.<sup>17</sup>

Key gender equality issues in the education sector are outlined in the following pages.

Regional distribution of primary age girls not enrolled, 1998-2000



Source: UNDP Human Development Report, 2003.

<sup>15</sup> EC Communication on education in the context of poverty reduction, op. cit., and subsequent Council Resolution,

<sup>16</sup> Primary-school completion estimates through 2015 are based on completion rates during the 1990s.

<sup>17</sup> See Section 1, Chapter One of the Toolkit for elaboration of this point.

1.4

## Some key gender equality issues in the education sector

### Macro level

- Have governments made commitments to the achievement of gender equality goals in the education system overall, through commitments to the Beijing PFA, CEDAW, the MDGs or the Education for All goals? Is there coherence with the gender equality provisions of the EC policy on education and training in developing countries? Gender equality goals should not only address gender equality in access, achievement and retention, but should also look at qualitative issues such as the streaming of girls and boys into different disciplines, which lays the basis for occupational segregation in the labour force. Elimination of persistent negative gender stereotypes in teachers' classroom behaviour and in curricula and teaching materials should also be addressed at the policy level.
- How are gender equality issues reflected in the country's National Development Plan?
- Is policy dialogue in the educational system linked to national human resource development planning and capacity building?
- Is there a monitoring system to ensure that girls and boys alike are able to enjoy equal educational opportunities and access to the labour market? This concerns not only the promotion of girls' education but also, for instance, ensuring that boys are retained in the education system when the labour market has a strong demand for a young unskilled labour force.
- Is there gender balance and gender sensitivity in decision-making in the education sector, at all levels?
- Are gender equality goals being addressed through teacher training and recruitment and placement of teachers in the education system at various levels?
- Are managerial and supervisory staff in the education system also trained, recruited and managed with respect to gender equality principles?
- Are different stakeholders in the education sector involved at the policy level? Finance ministries and education ministries will be part of consultative mechanisms regarding school fees and finances available for school structures, but it is also important to involve women's machineries and organisations, parents' and community groups, and other stakeholders, such as religious groups, who are concerned with societal values.
- Are potential employers in both public and private sectors included in education policy dialogue, with respect *inter alia* to enhanced employment opportunities for women and attention to better working conditions?
- Are the agendas of teachers' unions concerned with gender equality issues and are these included in education policy dialogue?
- Are sex-disaggregated data available on human resources in the educational system at all levels and on enrolment, retention/drop-out, achievement and subject specialisation of the student population?
- Has there been a gender analysis of the education sector budget?



**Meso level**

- Do educational institutions reflect gender balance in their teaching, management and supervisory staff? Insufficient numbers or absence of female teachers may affect parents' willingness to send girls to school.
- Is gender balance reflected on school boards, and are women's machineries and other organisations concerned with gender equality issues involved at this level?
- Is there concern for gender equality principles in qualitative issues relating to treatment of boys and girls in class, and are attempts made to discourage automatic streaming of girls and boys into discipline areas traditional to their respective genders?
- Are curricula and teaching materials gender-sensitive and free of sexist concepts, wording or images?
- Are educational institutions gender-sensitive in terms of, for example, having separate toilet facilities for boys and girls, location of school buildings, and provision of transport if necessary, particularly to encourage the enrolment and attendance of girls from remote rural areas?

### Bangladesh promotes gender balance in delivery of education

In **Bangladesh**, the Ministry of Education, in partnership with the European Commission, is implementing the **Programme to Motivate, Train and Employ Female Teachers in Rural Secondary Schools (PROMOTE)**. The programme's objective is to improve the quality of education in rural secondary schools and to facilitate a gender-sensitive and more equitable society by promoting girl-friendly secondary schools all over the country. Major interventions include promoting the enrolment and employment of female teachers in rural secondary schools by offering grants to women graduates and resources to schools which employ PROMOTE-sponsored teachers, strengthening the quality of teaching through training and establishing well-equipped resource centres, and building hostels to provide safe accommodation for women teachers in rural areas.

*Source:* Delegation of the European Commission to Bangladesh,  
<http://www.eudelbangladesh.org/en/projects/projectdetails/30.htm>

**Micro level**

- Are parents' and women's groups in the community involved in formal or informal consultation with the school system on management and other issues?
- Is education equally valued for boys and girls, or is there an assumption that it is less important for girls as their primary aim is to get married? Early marriage or early onset of sexual activity resulting in teenage pregnancies may result in a high drop-out rate for girls
- Other reasons affecting enrolment and attendance relate to perceived lack of employment opportunities for girls, or to girls' (or boys') premature entry into the labour force or activities helping in the home, family business or farm.
- Do cultural factors such as parents' objections to boys and girls being in the same classroom, or fear of sexual harassment of girls by teaching and other staff, affect girls' access to education? Long distances between home and school often lower girls' attendance rate.
- Conflict in many countries also contributes to lack of access to school as a result of fears over security concerns or a complete breakdown of the education system.



### Further information on gender equality in education

- ▶ Dar, A., Blunch, N., Kim, B., and Sasaki, M., (2002): *Participation of Children in Schooling and Labor Activities: A review of empirical studies* (Social Protection Discussion Paper No. 0221. Washington DC: World Bank. <http://www1.worldbank.org/sp/childlabor/>
- ▶ EC (2003), Guidance Note on sector approaches in education. Draft, December
- ▶ Higher education and globalisation – a view from the South. Address by the Minister of Education, Professor Kader Asmal, at the Nuffic Conference 'The Global Higher Education Market: Shifting Roles, Changing Rules', The Hague, 19 March 2002
- ▶ Maitr, P., and Ray, R. (2002), 'The joint estimation of child participation in schooling and employment: Comparative evidence from three continents', *Oxford Development Studies* 30, No. 1
- ▶ Millennium Project Task Force 3 (2004), Interim Report on Gender Equality. Coordinators N. Birdsall, A. Ibrahim and G. Gupta; report commissioned by the UN Secretary-General and supported by the UN Development Group
- ▶ Murray, U. (2003), *Good practices: Gender mainstreaming in actions against child labour*. (Geneva: ILO). Also at <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipecc/publ/gender/mainstreaming.pdf> ISBN 92-2-113586-1
- ▶ Subrahmanian, R. (2003), Gender equality in education: Definitions and measurements. Background note for UNESCO EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/04, *Gender and Education for All: The leap to equality*
- ▶ UNESCO (2003), *Gender and Education for All: The leap to equality*, Summary Report. Paris: UNESCO Publishing
- ▶ UN Department for Economic and Social Information and Policy Analysis, Statistical Division (1995), *The World's Women: Trends and statistics*, Social Statistics and Indicators, Series K. New York: United Nations

## 1.5

### Overview of gender equality issues the health sector

While there are some obvious biological and genetic influences on women's and men's health status and health care needs, socially constructed attributes, also impact on health status and access to health care.

Differences between women's and men's health status related to cultural norms can include, for example, issues concerning sexuality and sexual and reproductive behaviour, and women's control or lack of control of access to their own bodies. Where a woman's social value is largely determined by her ability to produce children for the family or the larger social group it is likely that early, frequent and poorly spaced pregnancies will impact upon her health. It is also unlikely that she will have a strong negotiating position in terms of sexual relations with her husband. Furthermore, in societies where polygamy is common, or which support promiscuous sexuality for all men, women may be increasingly at risk of contracting sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS.

Factors, such as 'son preference', naturally stemming from a higher value given to men overall can also determine whether girl and boy children are given equal priority in terms of routine health care or special care in sickness and emergencies. Where women have very low social status and self-esteem they may neglect their own health needs in favour of those of their families.

Globally, domestic violence is increasingly recognised as being an important consequence of gender disparity which can be exacerbated by other conditions such as extreme poverty or social dislocation caused by political or economic events. Domestic violence has serious health consequences for the victims, who are predominantly women and children.

In some countries and cultures, so-called harmful traditional practices (HTPs) such as female genital mutilation (FGM) are particularly detrimental to women's health throughout their lives. Although a number of different rationales for this practice exist, an underlying theme is control of women's sexuality and reproductive capacity. FGM has both immediate and long-term health consequences for girls and women. The longer-term negative physical consequences include urinary tract infections; painful sexual intercourse, and difficulty and danger in pregnancy and childbirth.

### **Kembatta (Ethiopia) Women's Self-Help Centre: the talent and intelligence of women will improve the quality of everyone's lives**

The Kembatti Mentti Gezzima-Tope (KMG) is an organisation working to address harmful practices against women in Ethiopia, including female genital mutilation. Its research activities identified 120 different forms of harmful practice, of which 21 were identified as particularly harmful. Their main activities focus on health, livelihood and the environment, with a central focus on improving reproductive health and decreasing the prevalence of FGM and other HTPs.

The organisation is fighting against the abandonment of young girls after abduction, early marriage, and other forms of discrimination against girls and women, through activities such as on-site health education (on topics such as immunisation, family planning, personal and environmental sanitation and HIV/AIDS), mobile health clinics and community outreach targeting, amongst others, religious leaders.

*Sources:* The East Africa Four Literacies Programme, *Kembatta Women's Self-Help Centre*, <http://www.fourliteracies.org/Kembatta.htm>; European Commission, Aid for Reproductive and Sexual Health and Rights in Developing Countries, [http://europa.eu.int/comm/europeaid/projects/health/projects\\_rh\\_1999\\_en.htm#Ethiopia](http://europa.eu.int/comm/europeaid/projects/health/projects_rh_1999_en.htm#Ethiopia)

Where there is occupational segregation along gender lines, women and men are exposed to different environmental hazards and concomitant health risks according to their occupational status. Women may be more exposed to hazards from household chemicals, for example, whereas men are prone to accidents related to work in construction or with heavy agricultural machinery.

Formerly it was assumed that financial and other inputs in the health sector were gender-neutral and would be of benefit to all. However, as noted in preceding paragraphs, women and men do not start on the same 'level playing field' with respect to their needs for health care as determined by genetic inheritance or gender-related factors. In some circumstances, when economic resources are limited and/or there is a cultural preference for sons, a sick male child will be brought to the doctor more readily than a sick female child. Statistics on gender differentials in vaccination coverage and treatment sought for diarrhoea often illustrate this tendency.<sup>18</sup>

<sup>18</sup> WHO South East Asia, <http://w3.who.sea.org/women/table69.htm>.

On the other hand, the low representation of women in the medical profession may also affect women's access to health care, particularly where women tend to be reluctant or not able to be treated by male doctors.

A gender-sensitive approach to health support would also aim at increasing health professionals' awareness of the role of gender values, norms and differences in the causes and perpetuation of diseases, and at promoting social transformation to overcome gender barriers related to health.

As regards development cooperation in the health sector, there are important synergies to be sought between MDG 4, 'Reduce child mortality',<sup>19</sup> MDG 5, 'Improve maternal health',<sup>20</sup> MDG 6, 'Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases',<sup>21</sup> and MDG 3, 'Promote gender equality and empower women'. The links between the health sector, poverty reduction and long-term economic growth are also powerful.<sup>22</sup> Hence, MDGs 4, 5 and 6 are enabling factors in the achievement of the other MDGs relating to poverty reduction.

### Female Genital Mutilation (FGM)<sup>23</sup> practised globally

- FGM is practised in at least 26 of 43 African countries; the prevalence varies from 98 per cent in Somalia to 5 per cent in Zaire. A review of country-specific Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) shows FGM prevalence rates of 97 per cent in Egypt, 94.5 per cent in Eritrea, 93.7 per cent in Mali, 89.2 per cent in Sudan and 43.4 per cent in the Central African Republic.
- FGM is also found among some ethnic groups in Oman, the United Arab Emirates, and Yemen, as well as in parts of India, Indonesia and Malaysia.
- FGM has become an important issue in Australia, Canada, England, France and the United States because of the continuation of the practice by immigrants from countries where FGM is common.

Sources: Toubia, N. (1993), *Female Genital Mutilation: A call for global action* (New York: Women, Ink); *Demographic and Health Survey* (Calverton, MD: Macro International Inc., various years). Both cited in Reymond, Laura, Mohamud, Asha, and Ali, Nancy, compilers, *Female Genital Mutilation – The Facts*, <http://www.path.org/files/FGM-The-Facts.htm>

<sup>19</sup> With the target of reducing by two-thirds the mortality rate among children under five.

<sup>20</sup> With the target of reducing the maternal mortality ratio by three-quarters, by 2015.

<sup>21</sup> Targets are: Halt and begin to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS; Halt and begin to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases.

<sup>22</sup> WHO (2001), *Macroeconomics and Health: Investing in health for economic development*. Report of the Commission on Macroeconomics and Health, *World Health Organization*, 20 December 2001.

<sup>23</sup> FGM is the partial or total removal of the female external genitalia.

## 1.6

## Some key gender equality issues in the health sector

## Macro level

- Have commitments to gender equality in the health sector been made by the government in the context of the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) 1994,<sup>24</sup> and with respect to the Beijing PFA, CEDAW and the MDGs?
- Does the health sector policy reflect these global commitments and in what way? Does it share the concerns related to gender and health as expressed by the EC policy on health and poverty reduction in developing countries?
- Is there gender balance in decision-making in the health sector in all aspects, including reproductive health priorities and health research issues?
- Are all data on the health status of the population, health service training and delivery systems, and health service coverage (public and private sector) disaggregated by sex?
- Do human resource development goals in the health sector reflect gender equality principles (e.g. in the training and recruitment of men and women for all specialisations) and at all levels?
- Has there been a gender analysis of the health sector budget?
- Is there legislation in place with respect to maternity protection, women's health in the workplace, domestic violence and harmful traditional practices (e.g. FGM)?
- Do health education activities include specific components for women's and girls' health issues?

## Meso level

- Is the health service delivery system gender-balanced and gender-sensitive? Are there adequate numbers of female medical personnel to treat women and girls in societies where women and girls are reluctant or not able to be treated by male doctors? If the numbers of female personnel are currently inadequate, is this being addressed through training and recruitment plans?
- Are there adequate facilities in clinics and hospitals to deal with women's health issues, including STDs, preventive care and health education?
- Are medical personnel trained to cope with and report upon instances of domestic violence?
- What information with respect to harmful traditional practices do medical personnel have, and in what way are they dealing with these practices?
- Are regulations with respect to women's occupational health and maternity protection and benefits known and enforced by employers in public- and private-sector institutions?
- In addition to government and private-sector hospitals and clinics, does there exist a cadre of traditional medical practitioners who are an important resource for women's and girls' health issues, particularly with respect to reproductive health? Are traditional medical practitioners female, and how are they selected and trained.? What is their role, if any, with respect to HTPs such as FGM?
- What outreach or public education activities are addressing women and girls?
- Are service statistics at this level disaggregated by sex?

<sup>24</sup> The ICPD, which took place in Cairo in 1994, resulted in a Programme of Action which, *inter alia*, stressed that the empowerment of women in all fields was critical to the success of population policies.

The 48-month project, '**Upgrading the capacity of the Institute for Child Health and Development to serve as a Women's Health Counselling Centre**' in **Jordan**, touches many interrelated aspects of reproductive health. In particular, it aims at addressing psychological and cultural biases in depth, for example:

- by enhancing community awareness of reproductive health and gender relations;
- by increasing fertility regulation by choice and responsible procreation among women and men;
- by increasing the physical and psychological well-being of women and women's self-esteem;
- by increasing men's support to women's empowerment and improving the family environment.

Source: European Commission Aid for Reproductive and Sexual Health and Rights in Developing Countries, [http://europa.eu.int/comm/europeaid/projects/health/projects\\_rh\\_2000\\_en.htm#AIDOS](http://europa.eu.int/comm/europeaid/projects/health/projects_rh_2000_en.htm#AIDOS)

### Micro level

- What are the main cultural factors which impact upon women's and men's health status and access to health care? Examples are strong emphasis on women's fertility, son preference, existence of harmful traditional practices including nutritional prohibitions during pregnancy, acceptance of domestic violence as a norm.
- Women often represent the lowest level of the health care system, being responsible for the health of themselves and their families. What level of knowledge do women have and what support, if any, do they receive from the health system for their caring role?
- How are decisions taken about expenditure on health care in the family and the community? When resources are limited, health care for men and boys is often given priority. Male babies are much more likely to be given medical attention (and food) than female babies.
- Does women's low social status usually result in their placing a low priority on their own and their daughters' health? The low status of poor women may inhibit their willingness or ability to seek access to essential preventive and health care services. On the other hand, norms of masculinity may keep men away from health services.
- What traditional medical practices and practitioners are available in the community, and what priority do they have compared with government or non-traditional private-sector health services?
- What sources of health and medical information are available to families and communities?.



### AIDS prevention, positive living and empowerment (APPLE) – Mozambique and Malawi

This project, implemented by Care Österreich, aims to slow the spread of HIV/AIDS and to mitigate its impact on those infected and affected, by reducing HIV infection among young people aged 10–24 and mobile populations in two transport corridors in Mozambique and Malawi. It focuses on strengthening the existing health systems and making them more youth-friendly and accessible to women. Activities support an innovative system of integrated HIV networks that provide testing, counselling, care and referral services. In addition, an effective behaviour change communication strategy is under way, as well as assistance to community and faith-based organisations, including associations of people living with HIV/AIDS. Operational research on gender barriers to behaviour change, stigma and discrimination help guide the project's advocacy strategy. In recognition of their higher risk (biologically, economically and socially) to the pandemic, women and girls receive special attention.

Source: European Commission Aid against poverty-related diseases (HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria): [http://europa.eu.int/comm/europeaid/projects/health/projects\\_pr\\_2002\\_en.htm](http://europa.eu.int/comm/europeaid/projects/health/projects_pr_2002_en.htm)



#### Further information on gender and health

- AAWH [American Association for World Health] (2000), Stereotypes of manhood, fact sheet. Washington DC: AAWH. <http://www.aawhworldhealth.org>
- EC (2003), Guidance Note on sector approaches in education. Draft, December
- EC (2000), Programming Guidelines for Health, AIDS and Population. Experience of sector wide approaches in health – a simple guide for the confused. October
- Foster, M., Brown, A., and Conway, T. (2000), Current issues in sector-wide approaches for health development. World Health Organization, May
- Society of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists of Canada (2000), Improving reproductive and sexual health: Integrating women's empowerment and reproductive rights. [http://www.sogc.org/intl/pdfs/BOOKL\\_E.pdf](http://www.sogc.org/intl/pdfs/BOOKL_E.pdf)
- Information on UNAIDS is available at: <http://www.unaids.org/about/index.html>
- International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (2003), A training pack on gender issues, with case studies. Available on CD ROM. Geneva: IFRC
- Pan-American Health Organization (2002), Women, health and development program fact sheet – Gender and HIV/AIDS. [www.paho.org/genderandhealth](http://www.paho.org/genderandhealth)
- The GATS threat to public health (2003). A joint submission to the World Health Assembly, May. Statement endorsed by Equinet, International People's Health Council, Medact, People's Health Movement, Save the Children UK, Wemos, World Development Movement
- World Bank (1994). *A new agenda for women's health and nutrition*. Washington DC: World Bank

- UNFPA, A manual on gender-sensitive indicators for reproductive health programmes in India. <http://www.unicef.org/programme/lifeskills/reference/India/pdfs/39MGS1.pdf>
- UNICEF. A manual on gender-sensitive indicators for health and skills-based health education to prevent HIV/AIDS. <http://www.unicef.org/programme/lifeskills/starting/indicators.htm>
- UN Department for Economic and Social Information and Policy Analysis, Statistical Division. (1995), *The World's Women: Trends and statistics*, Social Statistics and Indicators, Series K, New York: United Nations
- World Bank, Checklist of essential and expanded services for women's health. <http://www.worldbank.org/gender/resources/health.htm>
- World Health Organization, Gender and women's health. <http://www.who.int/gender/en/>



## PRIORITY AREA 2

### Food security and sustainable rural development

#### 2.1

#### Overview of gender equality issues in the food security and sustainable rural development sector

The Community Development Policy<sup>25</sup> has explicitly called for a multidisciplinary approach to food security and sustainable rural development, of which gender equality is a fundamental component. One of the essential steps for sustainability in this priority area is to ensure that agricultural strategies and services are 'pro-poor' and gender-sensitive.<sup>26</sup> Rural women and women farmers are agriculturalists in their own right, and are often exclusively responsible for food production and processing and feeding their families. In Mozambique, for example, for every 100 men working in agriculture, there are now 153 women.<sup>27</sup>

#### Women's role in agriculture<sup>28</sup>

According to the UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), rural women are responsible for half of the world's food production and produce between 60 and 80% of the food in most developing countries.

- In South-east Asia, women provide up to 90% of the labour for rice cultivation.
- In sub-Saharan Africa, women produce up to 80% of basic foodstuffs both for household consumption and for sale.
- Women perform 25–45% of agricultural field tasks in Colombia and Peru.
- Women constitute 53% of the agricultural labour in Egypt.
- Fewer than 10% of women farmers in India, Nepal and Thailand own land.
- An analysis of credit schemes in five African countries found that women received less than 10% of the credit awarded to male smallholders.
- Only 15% of the world's agricultural extension agents are women.

Yet, despite their contribution to global food security, the contribution of women farmers is frequently underestimated and overlooked in development strategies. The role of both women and men farmers must be recognised and enhanced in order to achieve the first Millennium Development Goal, that of eradicating extreme poverty and hunger.<sup>29</sup> The proportion of people who suffer from hunger must be reduced by half, and if rural women are responsible for half of the world's food production, response strategies for the agriculture sector must clearly demonstrate that the differing constraints faced by rural women will also be addressed.

<sup>25</sup> Communication on the European Community's Development Policy, op. cit.

<sup>26</sup> EC, DG Development, Development Policy and Sectoral Issues. Environment, Rural Development: Programming Guidelines for the Agriculture Sector. Draft, 10 September 2001.

<sup>27</sup> FAO <http://www.fao.org/gender/en/Facte/FL9806-e.htm>.

<sup>28</sup> <http://www.fao.org/Gender/en/agrib4-e.htm>.

<sup>29</sup> See Section 1, Chapter Two of the Toolkit.

### India's Success Story: Women keep the Thar desert at bay

Local women have succeeded in restoring the green cover of India's oldest mountain range, the Aravalli Hills, which act as a natural barrier between the Thar desert and the fertile plains of eastern Rajasthan. The hills became barren as the number of people depending on them for firewood, food and fodder grew. Erosion of land forced villagers, women especially, to travel long distances to meet their families' needs.

When the Commission offered to help restore the hills' green cover, at a cost of 23 million Euro, women were their first allies. As they were responsible for the collection of domestic fuel, fodder and drinking water, women had a vested interest in the hills' reforestation and the environment-friendly management of the areas commonly used lands.

Women played an active role in the 294 local Village Forest Committees because they, not their husbands, were the primary users of the land. Slowly but surely, the women learnt to cultivate seedlings, collect grass seeds and make wood-fuel saving devices. They were also encouraged to sell the dairy produce of their cattle and learn to stitch and sew as a way of increasing their families' incomes.

In the space of nine years and two environmental reforestation awards, 38,050 hectares of common lands were replanted with trees, grass and vegetables. The project has improved the living conditions of 825,000 people. In particular it has improved the social status of local women by empowering them. and has prevented further desertification of the Aravalli Hills.

Source: Adapted from Delegation of the European Commission to India, Bhutan, Maldives and Nepal [http://www.delind.cec.eu.int/en/dev/rdnr/agricultural\\_production.htm](http://www.delind.cec.eu.int/en/dev/rdnr/agricultural_production.htm)

The EC Programming Guidelines for the Agriculture Sector<sup>30</sup> stress that agriculture is still the engine of growth for the rural economy. Growth in the rural economy, particularly in agriculture, contributes more to poverty reduction than growth in urban areas. The issues in the following paragraphs outline some key gender equality issues as they apply to individual male and female farmers.

## 2.2

### Some key gender equality issues in food security and sustainable rural development

#### Macro level

- Has the government made commitments to addressing gender equality issues in this sector in the framework of the Beijing PFA or with respect to the MDGs?
- Are these commitments reflected in sectoral policies in agriculture or rural development, or in the framework of trade liberalisation and export promotion policies which, *inter alia*, determine which crops will be promoted for export and which food items will be permitted to enter the country under preferential tariffs?
- Are institutions working on women's and gender issues, as well as women farmers' associations, involved in decision-making at national policy and planning levels?
- Are sex-disaggregated data available on women's and men's access to and control over material and non-material resources in this sector, e.g. relative ownership/usage of different categories of land, water, crops, livestock?

<sup>30</sup> EC, DG Development, Programming Guidelines for the Agriculture Sector, op. cit.

- Are data available on the involvement of women and men in the processing or marketing of agricultural produce, or in agro-industry? What technology/technological skills are available to women and men respectively?
- Does the agricultural extension service training and recruitment system cater for the differential roles and responsibilities of men and women in this sector?
- Is national legislation concerning ownership of land and other assets in this sector discriminatory with respect to gender?
- Is credit for agricultural use, from government or private sources, equally accessible to women and men?
- Has there been a gender analysis of government spending in this sector?
- Are there specific measures in place to ensure that land redistribution and/or privatisation programmes benefit women and men equally?

### Meso level

- Do agricultural extension services reach women and men farmers equally, and with the information and services needed? Plant biotechnology and breeding research stations, for example, should address the often differing roles of women and men farmers in relation to the adaptation of new seed varieties, and should involve both women and men in trials and testing of new varieties of crops and of new technology.
- Is agricultural credit equally available to women and men farmers? Many banks still require the signature of a male prior to providing credit. Delays occur in households where males have migrated in search of work, are in the army or do not allow their wives to obtain credit.
- At the meso level national gender experts, key NGOs (particularly those which give more voice to the disadvantaged in rural areas, including women and ethnic minorities) should be encouraged to provide inputs relevant to agricultural planning and food security issues.
- Is there recognition of the traditional contribution of women to the management of natural resources in a sustainable and long-term manner? Are there programmes to promote women's active role in environmental management, not only in their traditionally assigned roles but also in the planning of more complex development projects (e.g. water exploitation, deforestation)?
- Are data collected at this level disaggregated by sex?

### Micro level

- How are inequities in terms of inheritance and property rights or access to credit and savings manifest at this level?
- What is the gendered division of labour in the household and in the community?
- Are there differences between men and women in the amounts of time spent on agricultural tasks, and who takes decisions about the time spent?
- Are women primarily responsible for subsistence crops and men for cash crops? Who takes decisions on the planting, marketing and consumption of crops and water usage for agricultural or domestic consumption purposes?
- What are the patterns of food allocation (sharing, quantity, quality ...) among family members?



### Further information on gender equality in food security

- Asian Development Bank [ADB], Gender Checklist: Agriculture.  
[http://www.adb.org/Documents/Manuals/Gender\\_Checklists/Agriculture/agri2.pdf](http://www.adb.org/Documents/Manuals/Gender_Checklists/Agriculture/agri2.pdf)  
This checklist is designed to assist staff and consultants in implementing ADB's policy and strategic objectives on gender and development in the agriculture sector
- EC, DG Development (2001), Development policy and sectoral issues: Environment, rural development. Programming guidelines for the agriculture sector. Draft, 10 September
- Food and Agriculture Organization, Gender and Food Security.  
<http://www.fao.org/gender/>  
<http://www.fao.org/Gender/en/rural-e/RE4doc-e.asp>
- Gender studies in agriculture, Wageningen Agricultural University, the Netherlands. <http://www.sls.wau.nl/education/Topics/topic.htm>
- Hambly, H., Hafkin, N., Wesseler, G., and Boto, I. (2002), *Gender and Agriculture in the Information Society*. ISNAR Briefing Paper 55.  
<http://www.isnar.cgiar.org/publications/briefing/bp55.htm>
- International Fund for Agriculture and Development: For IFAD's approach to gender and household food security, see <http://www.ifad.org/gender/>. Other links from IFAD: <http://www.ifad.org/gender/links.htm>
- Saito, K., and Spurling, D. (1992), *Developing Agricultural Extension for Women Farmers*. Washington DC: World Bank
- Inter-Agency Working Group on Food Insecurity and Vulnerability Information Mapping System (IAWG-FIVIMS) provides guidance on indicators for assessing impact on food security
- World Bank resources on Environment, Agriculture and Natural Resource Management:  
<http://www.worldbank.org/gender/resources/research/res3.htm#Harold>

## PRIORITY AREA 3

### Transport

#### 3.1

#### Overview of gender equality issues in the transport sector

Transport sector problems and solutions are high on the agenda of many governments. While the mobility of people and products affects everyone, women and men have different needs because of their different roles and activities. For example, women are often responsible for taking children to school, visiting health clinics, collecting fuel and water and going to the market. Both men and women may be involved in economic activities that require transport, though, again, their precise requirements may differ. Men may need to travel to the town to work, to purchase agricultural inputs or to visit financial institutions. Women may be involved in taking goods to local markets.

#### Who carries the load?

Studies in **Ghana** illustrated that the typical woman devotes almost three times as many hours per annum, and four times as much carrying effort, to transport as the typical man. The typical female spends nearly 20 hours weekly on transport whereas the typical male worker devotes seven hours each week. For the female, this represents 50 per cent of the time a worker would expect to devote to a typical full-time job, and must be undertaken in addition to the many other domestic duties mentioned above.<sup>31</sup>

A World Bank study in 1994 in three African countries showed that domestic transport, for which women are largely responsible, accounted for 31–63% of the total time women spent on travel.<sup>32</sup>

In many societies women's right to travel alone is restricted by law or by custom, and women may be vulnerable to harassment in public spaces.

Women and men may take different forms of transport. Trucks, cars and sometimes bicycles may be thought to be more properly driven or ridden by men, whilst women resort more frequently to public transport or walking.

The EC recognises that the differences in travel and activity patterns between men and women are a common feature in all transport systems.<sup>33</sup> Although full solutions to the problems associated with gender inequalities clearly do not lie with the transport sector alone, gender differences and inequalities must be taken into account in assessing transportation priorities if transport interventions are to be effective in serving the needs of women as well as men.

<sup>31</sup> Dawson, J., and Barwell, I. (1993), *Roads are not enough* (Rugby: ITDG Publishing), cited in SIDA. *Handbook for Mainstreaming. A Gender Perspective in the Rural Transportation Sector* (1997).

<sup>32</sup> Malmberg, C. (1994), Case study on the role of women in rural transport: Access of women to domestic facilities. Sub-Saharan Africa Transport Policy Programme, Working Paper No. 11, World Bank

<sup>33</sup> EU Presidency Statement on sustainable development: transport: Ninth Session of the UN Commission on Sustainable Development. Inter-Sessional Ad Hoc Working Group on Transport and Atmosphere, March 2001.



### Rural areas require transport policy to link to markets: Zambia

In Zambia the lack of gender-responsive development policies in the transport sector meant that the majority of women, especially in farming communities, had very little access to transport facilities. Recognising these constraints, at the moment of developing an integrated transport and communication policy, the government established a number of measures to correct this and to facilitate the removal of existing gender barriers by integrating the transport needs of women into the mainstream of transport policy and planning. Measures include, *inter alia*:

- making an inventory of transport and communication use by gender;
- training and awareness raising of women in the construction and management of transport infrastructure;
- facilitating research to establish the modes of transport used in different rural localities, especially by women, and institute appropriate intervention measures;
- facilitating and providing soft loans and other incentives such as tax holidays to rural transport operators in order to increase access to transport for rural women, especially those with disabilities;
- empowering women to participate in the management of transport in their local communities;
- developing coordination mechanisms between the transport sector and other sectors in the economy in order to ensure that benefits accrue especially to women;
- enacting legislation to compel transporters to import facilities that are accessible to women and persons with disabilities.

Adapted from: Government of Zambia, Ministry of Communications and Transport, Transport Policy, May 2002; Government of Zambia, Gender in Development Division, National Gender Policy. <http://www.zihrm.org.zm/index.php>

## 3.2

### Some key gender equality issues in the transport sector

#### Macro level

- Do policy decisions in this sector reflect national commitment to gender equality (e.g. through the Beijing or MDG processes) in considering both women's and men's economic and other needs and capacities for mobility? Are they coherent with the gender equality provisions stated in the EC Communication promoting sustainable transport in development cooperation? For example, transport policies which prioritise private cars and roads, to the detriment (or substitution) of public transport, will impact differentially on those women and men with no access to private cars.
- Are women and women's organisations included in teams analysing transport policy and strategy such that, *inter alia*, commitments to enhance women's economic participation and to reduce occupational segregation are supported rather than undermined by the transport policy selected?
- Are data available on gender differences in differential mobility patterns and capabilities of women and men? Are data available on the gender-differentiated impact and economic returns of transport facilities?

- Do transport sector programmes prioritise only technical and financial indicators, and give less attention to quality at the client level (e.g. in safety, with numbers of accidents sex-disaggregated)?
- Is there a legal basis for women's and men's differential mobility where such exists (e.g., do women need a man's permission or company in order to travel outside the community)?
- Do social norms and values discourage women from independent movement and travel and/or place them at risk of harassment in public places?

### Meso level

- Has there been wide consultation among representative groups of transport users at this level so that transport services meet the needs of women and men? For example, it might be necessary to provide separate seating for men and women in public transport vehicles, or well-lit shelters and public telephones to facilitate women's independent travel.
- Has differential ownership or use of vehicles for both women's and men's transport tasks and for income generation been considered when attempting to provide transport to expand economic opportunities?
- Have decisions taken on fees for public transport been based on total household income, or on the recognition that women and men might not have the same access to household income and might travel at different times and with different frequencies?
- Have occupational opportunities and recruitment processes associated with new transport schemes included measures to ensure that women are informed about opportunities available and that measures are taken to employ women on an equal footing?
- Do transport sector programmes include measures to promote the active participation of women in the management of infrastructure projects (job opportunities at all levels, taking advantage of new market opportunities, involvement in local development initiatives, capacity building in tendering and contracting)?

### Micro level

- Do women typically make multipurpose journeys, often accompanied by children and timed so as not to conflict with their duties to provide food and other care for the family?<sup>34</sup> Do women tend to work nearer to home whereas men make single-purpose journeys to their place of work or to market, at peak hours?
- Do men and women use different modes of transport? For example, is it considered inappropriate for women to use bicycles, though it is an effective way for many men to travel?
- Where the household has access to a private motorbike, bicycle or car, do men retain priority in its use, leaving women often more reliant on public transport or travel by foot?
- Do women feel constrained from travelling alone in public, because of a real danger of aggression or because of social disapproval?

<sup>34</sup> Multipurpose journeys would include, e.g., stops at the school, perhaps at a health clinic, and at a market to purchase or to sell produce.



### Further information on mainstreaming gender in transport

- Elson, D., Evers, B., and Turner, J. (1999), Transport sector programmes in developing countries: Integrating a gender analysis. 27 April 1999. University of Manchester, Graduate School of Social Sciences, GENECON Unit
- Fernando, P., and Porter, G., eds (2002), *Balancing the Load: Women, gender and transport*. London: Zed Books
- Malmberg, C. (1994), Case study on the role of women in rural transport: Access of women to domestic facilities. Sub-Saharan Africa Transport Policy Programme, Working Paper No. 11, World Bank.
- SIDA (1997), *Handbook for Mainstreaming. a Gender Perspective in the Rural Transportation Sector*. Department for Infrastructure and Economic Cooperation, Transport Division. Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency, Stockholm. This handbook is available from the EU Gender Help Desk and contains a set of very useful programming questions that can be considered when attempting to integrate gender into the transport sector, an explanation as to why such questions are relevant and advice on what to do with the answers
- Turner, J., and Grieco, M. (1998), Gender and time poverty: the neglected social policy implications of gendered time, transport and travel. Paper presented at the International Conference on Time Use, University of Luneberg, Germany, April
- The UK Department for Transport commissioned a Public Transport Gender Audit involving a literature search and discussions with focus groups. The output was a comprehensive report aimed at policy-makers and transport organisations, with a gender audit checklist to be used as a management tool. Further information is available at: [http://www.dft.gov.uk/stellent/groups/dft\\_mobility/documents/page/dft\\_mobility\\_506790-02.hcsp](http://www.dft.gov.uk/stellent/groups/dft_mobility/documents/page/dft_mobility_506790-02.hcsp)
- The World Bank (1999), 'Gender and transport: A rationale for action', in *Prem Notes. Gender*, no. 14, January. <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTGENDERTRANSPORT/Resources/transport.pdf>
- The World Bank has a Gender and Transport Thematic Group (GTTG), which facilitates the integration of gender into transport policies and projects through: (i) support to gender-related research and pilot activities; (ii) dissemination of good practices; and (iii) promotion of dialogue with governments, NGOs and international agencies working in similar fields. Publications produced for the World Bank include a useful practical toolkit, *Mainstreaming Gender in Transportation Projects* (1997), which is an excellent resource. A list of conclusions and recommendations as the result of a special seminar on Gender and Transport held by the World Bank in April 1999 is available at: [http://www.cityshelter.org/13\\_mobil/23tend.htm](http://www.cityshelter.org/13_mobil/23tend.htm). Case studies from the GTTG on initiatives undertaken by the group are available at [http://www.worldbank.org/gender/transport/Case\\_Studies/case\\_studies.htm](http://www.worldbank.org/gender/transport/Case_Studies/case_studies.htm)

## PRIORITY AREA 4

### Institutional capacity building, good governance and the rule of law

#### 4.1

#### Overview of the institutional capacity building, good governance and rule of law sector

Gender inequalities, as we have seen from preceding sections, may have a legal basis. Women may not have the right to inherit from their father equally with their brothers; they may not have freedom to travel or to obtain a passport without male consent; they may not be able as individuals to own property or to open a bank account or obtain credit for business or agricultural purposes.

Clearly progress towards democracy in any country must address gender and other inequalities, including those which have a legal justification. It is in this context that the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)<sup>35</sup> assumes such importance and provides a blueprint for action on gender inequalities at all levels and in all sectors.

This Convention, known also as the Treaty for the Rights of Women or the Women's Convention, was adopted by the UN/General Assembly in 1979.

CEDAW is often called an 'International Bill of Rights for Women'. It is the most comprehensive agreement on basic human rights for women and is a critical step in developing a standard for those rights.

Many other human rights instruments are 'gender-neutral' and based on the assumption that the world is a 'level playing field.' They guarantee that citizens will be treated without discrimination by the State, but that is insufficient to guarantee that inequalities which already exist will be eliminated.

#### EC support towards achieving gender equality: Guatemala

A multidisciplinary network of gender specialists from delegations, government and civil society was set up in 2001 by the EC Delegation with the task of helping to improve the gender equality aspects of EC cooperation. The network has facilitated the identification and utilisation of gender specialist competence where required in EC mainstream support to Guatemala. Recently the network has developed into an Alliance between the same partners; however, ownership has shifted to the Women's Presidential Secretariat of the government. As a result, there is a heightened awareness of the need to increase budget spending on gender issues and to create new policies and programmes to promote gender equality.

*Source:* European Commission. EC Report on Millennium Development Goals, SEC (2004) 1379. Commission Staff Working Document. Brussels, 29 Oct 2004.

<sup>35</sup> See Section 1, Chapter Two of the Toolkit.

While there are indeed some aspects of life which are common to women and to men, and clearly women should be accorded equal opportunities in those areas, an enumeration of the rights of women needs to address such aspects as autonomy within the family, the conditions suitable for healthy reproduction and the right to economic autonomy.

*'For most women a relevant rights regime would be one that not only guaranteed equality with men in those areas of life that are common to the sexes, but would also promote justice in private and civil life ... Current human rights instruments reflect male experience in a world of men ... the right to be free from torture applies to men and women as citizens, but is silent about violence in the family, to which many women around the world are subject on a daily basis.'* (CEDAW)

A major achievement of CEDAW is that it reaffirms the indivisibility and interdependence of human rights, which means that these rights must be granted and achieved in all spheres – political, economic, social and cultural – because the enjoyment of some rights can depend on or can contribute to the enjoyment of other rights.

It is interesting to see that although almost all national constitutions guarantee women the right to vote, and many of them guarantee the right to stand for election, women hold only 12% of parliamentary seats worldwide. Often women's economic, social and cultural subordination can inhibit women from claiming even the basic civil and political rights which they do have.

While the numbers of women in decision-making positions in parliament, government, business and the private sector is only one indication of the status of women overall in a country, it could be argued that without sufficient numbers of women in decision-making positions in all spheres there will be no real progress or change.

A gender analysis of the civil service in many countries also shows that in the majority of cases women are found at the lower end of the pyramid, occupying junior civil service positions in the health and education systems, for example. Similarly, in the private sector, the numbers of women in decision-making positions in business or banking remains minimal.

CEDAW, in its comprehensiveness, provides a rights framework for programmes in all sectors (see Section 1 Chapter Two).

Discussion on the progress made in realising national commitments made through ratification of CEDAW should feature in political dialogue between the EC Delegation and national partners in the context of developing Country Strategy Papers (CSPs). Countries can be reminded of their obligations and commitments, or urged to ratify if they have not done so.

**Seats in Parliament held by Women: Selected Countries**

Country	Seats in parliament held by women (%)
Australia	26.5
Bahamas	18
Bangladesh	2
Cambodia	9.3
Egypt	2.4
Italy	10.3
Mexico	15.9
Namibia	21.4
Philippines	17.2
Russian Federation	6.4
Venezuela	9.7
Yemen	0.7
Rwanda	25.7

Source: UNDP. Human Development Report, 2003.

**4.2**

**Some key gender equality issues in institutional capacity building, good governance and the rule of law**

**Macro level**

- Has CEDAW been ratified? What objections or reservations have been made to specific articles, and have measures been taken to remove those reservations? Is periodic reporting on progress in implementation being made to the CEDAW Committee by government and by NGOs; with the widest possible participation of civil society? Are women’s organisations leading this process at all levels? Are the CEDAW Committee’s comments being widely disseminated?
- Do the government’s CEDAW commitments feature in policy dialogue with the EC (in CSP compilation, in negotiation on trade agreements, in peace negotiation and conflict resolution and other contexts)?
- Are the principles of equality and non-discrimination stated in the national legislation?
- Are CEDAW commitments being translated into legislative and policy reform in all sectors?
- Are gender equality commitments being implemented at the level of institutions (parliament, ministries, National Women’s Machinery, media) through enhancing women’s participation in elections as candidates and voters; through specific actions or temporary special measures (quotas) to get more women into decision-making positions in all sectors (public and private) and at all levels; through implementation of equal opportunities principles in employment?



- Are there established accountability mechanisms for ensuring the enforcement of gender equality provisions at government level and at the different levels of governance?
- Is data collection and research reflecting concern with gender equality by strengthening institutional capacity to collect sex-disaggregated data and to conduct qualitative research on gender equality issues in all sectors?
- Are media and other information channels available for discussion of gender equality issues by all citizens?

### Building institutional capacity to translate gender equality policies into action: Morocco's Centre for Information, Documentation and Studies on Women (CMIDEF)

Since October 2004 Morocco has had a public institute dedicated to women's studies. The Centre for Information, Documentation and Studies on Women (CMIDEF) springs from the partnership between the governmental women's institution – the State Secretariat for the Family, Children and the Handicapped – and the European Commission, in the framework of a two-year project 'Support to Human Development and Social Integration (MEDA)'.

CMIDEF is meant to advise the State Secretariat and other state and non-state actors on the design, implementation and evaluation of women's promotion initiatives in the country. The Centre collects, processes and disseminates demographic/statistical data on the situation of women and produces sector-specific studies on women's socioeconomic status in areas such as women's rights, health, violence against women, employment and vocational training.

The establishment of CMIDEF comes precisely at a moment when Moroccan society is finally reaping the benefits of its efforts towards gender equality: the reform of the status of women in the family code and the increase in women's participation in the Chamber of Representatives are the most notable examples. CMIDEF offers public institutions and civil society at large the opportunity and the resources to give substance and sustainability to the new political and legal environment.

Adapted from the websites of the Secrétariat d'État Chargé de la Famille, de l'Enfance et des Personnes Handicapées du Royaume du Maroc, [http://www.sefsas.gov.ma/CMIDEF\\_Francais.htm](http://www.sefsas.gov.ma/CMIDEF_Francais.htm), and from the Delegation of the European Commission to Morocco, <http://www.delmar.cec.eu.int/>.

#### Meso level

- Are the legal system, the judiciary, the police and probation officers aware of and implementing women's rights legislation?
- Do universities and faculties of law incorporate teaching on CEDAW into their curricula?
- Are administrative and service-delivery system at all levels aware of and implementing women's rights policies and legislation (health, education, social affairs) in their recruitment and employment practices as well as in service delivery conditions?
- Is there ongoing work with the media to raise the level of public debate on women's rights issues? Is there substantive reporting on successes and failures?
- Are women's rights organisations active at this level? Are women's rights and gender equality issues on the agendas of workers' organisations? Is civil society at large aware of gender equality issues and stimulated to integrate gender into its activities?

The Programme **PROIGUALDAD**, implemented in Panama from 1997 to 2002, is an example of good practice in capacity building. It was considered to be instrumental in the creation of adequate conditions for gender mainstreaming to develop a critical mass among the public at large and to empower women.

Among its main activities, PROIGUALDAD contributed to building and enhancing capacity in the public sector by strengthening existing gender machineries and the creation of a National System of Capacity Building on Gender (*Sistema Nacional de Capacitación en Género, SNCG*), and by incorporating the gender perspective into educational curricula and materials. The project also benefited NGO networks and civil society by strengthening their gender mainstreaming capacity in areas such as project management, legal assistance, combating violence, literacy and organisational support.

The media played an important role in fighting against discrimination, as well as in promoting the value of women to the society and in the deconstruction of sexist stereotypes.

Source: European Commission. 'Promoción de la Igualdad de Oportunidades en Panamá', project no. PAN/B7-3010/95/100.

### Micro level

- What are the major gender inequalities having a legal base which affect women adversely (unequal access to credit and property, access to education, protection against domestic violence etc)?
- Are their legal literacy programmes designed to make women and men, boys and girls aware of their rights relative to the State, to other institutions and organisations in all sectors and at all levels, to the community and in the family?
- Do women and men have equal access to and participation in the legal process, enabling them to implement their rights in all sectors and at all levels, and are protection and redress guaranteed (including shelter from violence)?
- Is violence against women explicitly addressed in media and protection programmes? Are men involved in awareness-raising?
- Are there possibilities for enhanced participation for women and men in the CEDAW monitoring process?





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## PRIORITY AREA 5

### Trade and development

#### 5.1

#### Overview of gender equality, trade and development

Trade and development are intrinsically linked in terms of impacts on human livelihoods. However, some assumptions underpinning policies in trade require review in terms of the international goal of gender equality as outlined in Section 1, Chapter Two of this Toolkit.

While it is necessary to examine the impact of trade on gender relations, it is also important to consider how the negative impacts of gender inequalities may impact on the success of trade policies.

Policy, particularly trade policy, has often been assumed to be 'gender-neutral', having equal effects on both women and men and different categories of women and men (e.g. young people, elderly people, rural workers, disabled people, women and men from various ethnic groups, educated or unskilled workers etc). Yet the effects of, for example, trade liberalisation are more positive for those already employed or located in industries and sectors with a comparative advantage in international trade. As discussed in Priority Area 1, vertical and horizontal occupational specialisation which determines that women are overrepresented in lower-status and more poorly remunerated jobs in certain sectors of the economy is a feature of many developing economies. Occupational segregation along gender lines will determine whether men or women benefit under trade liberalisation measures.

Although, globally, there has been an increase in the proportion of women in the labour force, it is still necessary to question where they are located in order to understand the likely impact of trade liberalisation measures upon them. In terms of formal work. Women still tend to be paid less than men for the same work and horizontal and vertical segregation of the labour market along gender lines is universal.

At the household level, improvements in equality of access to the labour market for women and men have yet to result in real socioeconomic empowerment for women. This is because an equitable distribution of household responsibilities has not taken place, so women often face a double or even triple burden: paid work, household responsibilities, caring for children and the elderly and community work.

**In 2003, out of the 2.8 billion people that had work 1.1 billion were women. The share of women with work in total employment has risen since 1993 to just above 40%.<sup>36</sup>**

The effects of trade must be measured in terms of who actually benefits from trade liberalisation and what can be done to ensure that more groups of people benefit. In many countries the gap between rich and poor is actually widening. Control over resources works in the interests of the elite and against the interests of the poor and vulnerable, with less chances for the poor and vulnerable to take up the opportunities offered by trade liberalisation. For example, access to skills training, export licences, credit and other financial services, and information may be difficult or impossible for vulnerable groups.

<sup>36</sup> ILO (2004), *Global Employment Trends for Women 2004*. Geneva : International Labour Office, March.

### Measuring the gender impact of EU–Latin America trade relations

The lack of a gender perspective in the EU–Latin America Agreements, the scarcity of information and tools to measure the effects of trade on gender relations and the lack of women's participation in the decision-making process were the problems addressed by a project implemented by WIDE (Women in Development Europe) with EC funding.

The project aimed at raising the issue of the gender implications of trade policies in the discussion forum of the EU and national government institutions dealing with trade. It also intended to strengthen the participation of civil society, particularly women, in the decision-making process shaping trade agreements. It carried out various consultations on gender and trade throughout the project period, involving EU and Latin American trade officials in regular debate with women from NGOs working on gender and trade, and formulated concrete recommendations addressing the EU, the Mexican government and governments of MERCOSUR countries.

In order to provide substantive contributions for the debate, the project undertook research on the gender impact of EU–Latin America trade agreements, which was published and widely disseminated as a policy paper entitled *International Trade and Gender Inequality: A gender analysis of the trade agreements between the European Union and Latin America: Mexico and MERCOSUR*. The project was also able to develop and propose the use of analytical tools to measure the effects of international trade and trade policies on gender relations, including a set of indicators linking trade policy variables to the situation of women. Results are available in the publication *Instruments for Gender Equality in Trade Agreements: European Union–MERCOSUR–Mexico*.

Source: European Commission Aid for integrating gender issues in development cooperation (Gender Budget Line) [http://europa.eu.int/comm/europeaid/projects/gender/projects\\_wide\\_en.htm](http://europa.eu.int/comm/europeaid/projects/gender/projects_wide_en.htm).

Informal and casual workers can be exploited in the global trading system when there is increased pressure to be competitive and firms try to lower their employee costs. Payments by firms to social security are often avoided, and commitments to provide benefits such as maternity leave with pay, health insurance, etc. can be overlooked in the race to be competitive and provide dividends to shareholders in the global marketplace. Some comparisons of women's share in the informal economy are presented below. It is evident that some countries have a higher share of informal female workers than others.

#### Women's share of employment in the informal economy – 1997/2000

Country	Women's share of non-agricultural employment in the informal economy	Women's share of non-agricultural employment in informal enterprises	Women's share of non-agricultural informal employment outside informal enterprises
India	20	20	20
Mexico	39	40	38
Kenya	60	42	79
South Africa	53	45	61
Tunisia	18	15	22

Data prepared by Jacques Charmes. Source: *Women and Men in the Informal Economy, A statistical picture*, ILO, 2002.

### United Nations Round Table on Gender and Trade 2004

The Member States of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) and the focal point in the UN for the integrated treatment of trade and development convened a Round Table on Trade and Gender in June 2004 at the UNCTAD XI meeting in São Paulo.<sup>37</sup>

Round Table participants recommended that the following types of **domestic measures** be taken to address gender inequality in the context of international trade:

- Improvements in women's and girls' access to education and skills;
- Measures to reduce discrimination in labour markets;
- Access to export market information and credit (not just microcredit) for women entrepreneurs;
- Gender equality in rights to land and other productive resources;
- Reduction of violence against women, without which they cannot benefit from other rights;
- Support to women in their reproductive roles, for example in child-feeding programmes and crèches;
- Mainstreaming, consistency and proactive implementation of gender equality policies throughout all government departments.

## 5.2

### Some key gender equality issues in trade

#### Macro level

- Occupational segregation, both vertical and horizontal, along gender lines, is a good predictor for those working at the meso level when determining the impact of trade. Do trade policies reflect concern with the possible differential impact on gender equality in terms of strengthening or suppressing sectors of the economy where women or men predominate and therefore creating unequal opportunities for women and men; in terms of undercutting local production of goods by import substitution; in terms of dedication of land formerly used for domestic consumption for export crops?
- Have Sustainability Impact Assessments (SIAs) been conducted on trade policy to assess the possible consequences of a trade agreement and to identify measures to enhance positive and mitigate negative effects? Have SIA results been integrated in the EU's trade policy dialogue?
- Are sex-disaggregated data available on these issues?
- Are studies being conducted to assess the gendered impact of economic reforms, e.g. the impact of transition on women's situation in the labour market?
- Are women's organisations and others concerned with gender equality issues, such as women workers' or women employers' organisations, involved in trade policy dialogue?
- Is new gender equality legislation been developed in order to ensure that gender equality principles are being observed with respect to new economic opportunities being introduced, e.g. through export processing zones (EPZ)?

<sup>37</sup> [http://www.unctadxi.org/templates/Event\\_42.aspx?selected=conclusions](http://www.unctadxi.org/templates/Event_42.aspx?selected=conclusions).

**Meso level**

- Is equal opportunities employment legislation which exists being implemented at this level?
- Is quantitative and qualitative information available on the current position of women and men in the labour market and the informal sector and the possible effects of trade issues on different stakeholder groups?
- Are there provisions to analyse the disadvantages linked to the overrepresentation of women in the informal economy and their impact on job quantity, quality and security (e.g. revenue capacity, pensions and benefits)?
- Are vocational education programmes being developed which would help to mitigate the effects of existing occupational segregation and would prepare women and men equally to take advantage of new economic opportunities?
- Is there dialogue and consultation at this level with civil society organisations, including business men and women, academics, trade unions, NGOs? Are women's and men's voices equally represented?

**Micro level**

- How are women and men at this level affected as consumers and producers by new trade opportunities? Women should benefit from freer trade price effects both as individual consumers and as household members primarily responsible for the family budget.
- Is the introduction of cheaper consumer items through trade liberalisation undercutting the work of women producers and traders?
- Do resource- and time-poor women and men have the opportunity to avail themselves of skills development opportunities?
- Are women working in agriculture unpaid family workers? Do they benefit from an increase in price for the goods (crops, products, services) they are instrumental in producing?
- Is the promotion of export crops made at the expense of food crops placing increased pressure on women (and men) to concentrate their energies on such export crops, sometimes inadvertently affecting the nutritional status of the whole family? Typically, women are involved in subsistence crop production, which may be regarded as secondary in importance to cash crop production, which is often under the control of men.

**Further information on gender equality in trade**

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## PRIORITY AREA 6

### Regional Integration and Cooperation

#### 6.1

#### Overview of gender equality issues related to regional integration and cooperation

Regional integration and cooperation play a decisive role in consolidating peace and preventing conflict. The EC attaches particular importance to encouraging regional forms of integration,<sup>38</sup> since these help create large, integrated local markets and enable countries in specific parts of the world to participate more effectively regarding issues of global relevance.

#### Integration of HIV/AIDS strategies and Gender in Development Programmes in SADC

The SADC HIV/AIDS Strategic Framework and Programme 2000–2004, adopted by the Council of Ministers in 2000, was found not to be gender-responsive. In order to incorporate a gender perspective into the Framework, resources had to be mobilised; a workshop for SADC HIV/AIDS Sector Coordinators and other stakeholders was planned; and a focus on gender response to HIV/AIDS included.

[http://www.uneca.org/eca\\_programmes/srdc/sa/Gender.html](http://www.uneca.org/eca_programmes/srdc/sa/Gender.html)

While it is acknowledged that trade liberalisation through regional integration will generate economic growth, there can be wide disparities in socioeconomic development among countries within a sub-region. Disparities in socioeconomic development can be associated with factors such as small and weak markets in some countries of a region, or factors such as marked gender and other disparities amongst the population.

Countries which are economically weaker than others within the region may suffer from the competition which results from removal of trade barriers between countries. The most vulnerable sections of a country's population, which will include poor women, will suffer most from the economic dislocation caused by regional integration. Such a situation very often leads to various forms of migration and population movement including, in some instances, trafficking of women and children, from the weaker to the stronger country.

#### COMESA Gender Policy

The Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) has a gender policy to facilitate the mainstreaming of gender perspectives into all COMESA's activities, because of the belief that regional integration is not possible unless all stakeholders are fully involved. In the COMESA region gender disparities pervade all spheres of life in favour of men, and for the regional trading bloc to achieve its goals there is need to tackle such gender disparities.

[http://www.comesa.int/news\\_archive/](http://www.comesa.int/news_archive/)

<sup>38</sup> The EU has a large number of multilateral relationships, both with international organisations and with other regional groupings of countries, such as SADC, the ASEAN group, Mercosur, the San José Group, and the Andean Community of countries. Strong support has been given by the EU to the African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries.



On the positive side, regional development can result in changes in investment and financial regimes, ensuring that previously excluded groups can more easily gain access to services such as savings and investments (for example, women may gain more access to credit facilities). Cross-border cooperation and regional policy integration can offer possibilities for increasing women's participation in economic development initiatives linked to mobility of goods and people.

Gender-sensitive awareness-raising initiatives at cross-country level can play an important role against the spread of the HIV/AIDS pandemic (e.g. prevention schemes over transport corridors).

Regional integration can also encourage the dissemination of ideas such as corporate social responsibility,<sup>39</sup> or ideas on gender mainstreaming. Countries which are advanced in terms of implementing policy commitments on achieving gender equality may provide a good example as well as a source of gender expertise to countries less advanced in this regard. In addition, regional women's and gender equality fora can support transformative campaigns and lobbying against discriminatory legislation and practices at the national level.

## 6.2

### Some key gender equality issues in the regional integration and cooperation priority area

#### Macro level

- Employment issues, migration, trafficking of women and peace negotiation are some of the areas which may be relevant to regional integration and cooperation. Do policy statements with respect to regional integration reflect knowledge of gender equality issues in the different countries involved? Do they consider the different ways in which women and men may be affected by new opportunities and changes caused by regional integration and cooperation?
- Is new legislation being developed to deal with gender equality issues that may arise in connection with employment, migration, trafficking and peace-building / conflict resolution?
- Are women's machineries at individual country and regional level involved in policy dialogue on regional integration and cooperation, including their being involved in peace-building and conflict resolution initiatives?
- Are mechanisms in place to ensure that sex-disaggregated data are available to measure changes resulting from enhanced regional integration, e.g. labour migration of women and men?
- Are training and capacity-building efforts associated with regional integration and cooperation providing equal access to women and men?
- Are best practices with respect to implementation of gender equality commitments by individual countries being exchanged?

<sup>39</sup> The United Nations has highlighted that the pace of development in the past five decades has been accompanied by rising disparities within nations and between nations. The 1995 UNDP Human Development Report stated that while the impact of trade liberalisation on business enterprises and farmers has been widely discussed in some countries, there is hardly any recognition of these impacts on the daily lives of women, or of the differential impact of trade policies on women and men.

### Meso level

- Do technical meetings at this level include discussion on gender equality issues in various spheres, such as employment, migration, security, trafficking, etc.?
- Are sensitisation campaigns on gender equality issues in the framework of regional integration being conducted at regional and individual country levels?
- Are women and women's organisations and other institutions working on gender issues involved in consultation and discussion at this level? Are regional networks of women's organisations being strengthened?
- Are studies being conducted on the impact of regional integration and cooperation also addressing the impacts on gender equality?

### Micro level

- How is the implementation of regional integration and cooperation policy affecting women and men at this level; in terms of job loss or new employment opportunities; and in terms of household breakdown caused by out-migration of women or men in search of new labour opportunities, etc.?
- Men and boys often migrate to work on construction sites or in agricultural plantations, which means working in groups. Migrant men may tend to have more access to formal labour markets and therefore are more likely to develop organisational capacity and strength.
- Are women and men at this level informed about regional initiatives and the likely advantages and disadvantages?
- Are civil society groups at this level able to participate in policy dialogue with respect to regional cooperation and integration?



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