WHAT IS GENDER ANALYSIS

One of the key elements of gender mainstreaming strategy is to first understand the context we are working with from the perspective of relationships between men and women. We start our actions from the understanding that in each community and societies at large, there are differences in power, which are determined by sex, class, caste, race, religion and combinations of all before mentioned. Due to these differences, we cannot assume that development programmes, policy measures or other initiatives, will equally benefit, affect and reach all members in the selected community/society.

Therefore, before making any interventions, it is important to analyse the problem or issue from a gender perspective and try to identify ways to address the root causes of inequalities.

Gender analysis presents variety of approaches and methods used for systematically examining the differences between the roles that women and men play, responsibilities they have, the different levels of power they hold, their differing needs, constraints and opportunities, and how all this differences impact on their lives.

It also helps us to understand and assess how and why gender differences and inequalities are relevant to the subject under discussion and to identifying where there are opportunities to narrow these inequalities and deciding on the approach to be taken.

Gender analysis creates a “gender looking-glass” through which we examine our context.

When conducting gender analysis we often assess the following areas from the perspective of gender:

- How the gender division of labour and patterns of decision-making affects the programme/project, and how the programme/project affects the gender division of labour and decision making? Who normally does what? Has that changed recently (due to a disaster, economic upheaval or illness)? What are the gender roles in the division of labour?
- Who has access to and control over resources, assets and benefits, including from programme/project or other interventions. Which factors influence access to and control over resources, e.g. age, sex, wealth, location of living, level of education level, networks, and relationships/friendships with local leaders?
- What are women’s/girls’ and men’s/boys’ different needs, priorities and strengths? What are women’s and men’s strategic and practical needs, and how to address those needs? What are men’s, women’s, girls’, boy’s strengths, capacities and vulnerabilities (physical, organisations)? How to build on existing strengths?
- What is the level of complexity of gender relations, what are different norms and beliefs about gender that amplify differences, and where are the opportunities for addressing gender inequality?
- What are the barriers and constraints in accessing women and men participating and benefiting equally from the programme/project?

Gender analysis further directs us to see what are the best strategies and approaches to address harmful norms, structures, behaviours and other constraints and how to transform existing gender relations.

It also helps us to better understand what type of disaggregated information is available, where are the gaps, and how to measure the impact of the strategies on gender equality and development outcomes using gender indicators.
IMPORTANT! Taking into account the heterogeneity between groups

Any interventions aimed at improving women's and men's living conditions should take into account that women's and man's lives often vary depending on factors other than their sex, such as age, ethnicity, race and economic status.

This requires from us that we do not generalise across diverse populations, but rather to consider the ways that lives of individuals are influenced by a range of factors, gender just being one of them.

WHEN TO CONDUCT GENDER ANALYSIS

Gender analysis should be seen as a foundation of strategic and effective gender integration processes in programmes, projects, research and policy and should be essential part of any diagnostic work before developing and implementing any interventions. It should be planned and budgeted for as early in the design of the process as possible.

On practical level, gender analysis can be integrated into other assessments (needs, situational assessment, etc.), we plan to conduct or ideally, performed as a standalone analysis.

We can distinguish the following levels:

- **at the macro level**: gender issues are introduced into the policy process, usually at national level (e.g. macro policies, national development strategies and/or poverty reduction strategies, public expenditure programmes/budgets, legislation, regulations and procedures, operational guidelines);
- **the intermediate level or mezzo level**: within institutions, structures and services which operationalise the links between macro and field levels (e.g. in provincial or district development plans, policies, strategies, budgets, legislations, regulations and procedures);
- **the field level or micro level**: focuses on individuals, households and communities (e.g. in community or organisational development plans, programmes and activities and donor programmes, project identification, design and assessment).

**DOING GENDER ANALYSIS: KEY STEPS AND FRAMEWORKS**

**ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORKS AND TOOLS TO CARRY OUT GENDER ANALYSIS**

There are many tools and methods available for undertaking a gender analysis:

- **Harvard Analytical Framework**: the division of labour between men and women in agricultural and in more urban settings,
- **Moser Framework**: the division of labour between men and women in agricultural and in more urban settings (triple roles),
- **Levy Framework**: gender mainstreaming in institutions,
- **Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM)**: gender differentials in the impact of projects at the community level,
- **Equality and Empowerment Framework (Longwe)**: assessment of the contribution of interventions in all sectors to the empowerment of women,
- **Capacities and Vulnerabilities Framework (CVA)**: humanitarian and disaster preparedness issues,
- **People Oriented Framework (POP)**: refugee issues, based on an expanded approach to the Harvard Framework,
- **Social Relations Framework (SRF)**: sustainable development and institutional change.
HARVARD FRAMEWORK

The two frameworks that are used the most are Harvard and Moser frameworks, which have been particularly important in explaining the sexual division of labour, which is the central social structure that gender analysis seeks to reveal, and the differences between productive and socially reproductive work.

The Harvard framework

The Harvard framework was developed in the 1980s in the Harvard Institute for International Relations to facilitate the integration of women into project analysis. It aimed to make an economic case for allocating resources to women as well as men, and secondly, to assist planners to design more efficient projects.

This framework is considered as a useful tool for gathering data, understanding women's and men's roles in a society, and taking account of external forces which affect development planning. It is a flexible instrument which can be used at many different levels of planning and analysis, and can be expanded to disaggregate data according to cultural, ethnic and economic factors as well as sex and age.

The framework is adaptable and composed of three basic elements:

- an activity profile, based upon the gender division of labour, which lists the tasks of women and men, allowing for disaggregation by age, ethnicity or class, as well as where and when the tasks are performed. Activities are grouped under three headings: productive activities, reproductive or household activities and social/political/religious activities;
- an access and control profile, which lists the resources needed to carry out these tasks, and the benefits derived from them. The resources may be material or economic, political or social, and include time, access to these resources and benefits, and control over them is disaggregated by gender.
- the influencing factors which affect the division of labour and the access and control profile of the community.

Limits of the Harvard framework

The Harvard Analytical Framework has a perspective that is efficiency rather than equity oriented, focusing on allocating new resources in order to make a programme more efficient rather than addressing unequal gender relations. It tends to focus on material resources rather than on social relationships. The analysis can be carried out in a non-participative way without the involvement of women and men from a community.

ELEMENTS OFTEN ADDRESSED BY GENDER ANALYSIS

There are several frameworks for conducting gender analysis adapted to different needs and policy priorities. However, all these frameworks can be used only as a guide, and not a blueprint to the process, as they need to be adjusted to the specifics of the field we are analysing.

Based on analysis of all mentioned frameworks, Hunt in her *Introduction to gender analysis concepts and steps* (2004) came up with the list of 11 key steps that are often used in the gender analysis processes:

STEP 1: Collect sex disaggregated household, workplace, community and all other data that are relevant to the policy field or programme/project. This will allow you to identify gender differences and inequalities, to analyse the experiences of both women and men and to eventually address the potential difference.

For example, there is a better basis for developing agricultural policy and targeting extension programmes, if there is information that goes beyond the number of “farmers” and what they produce. Disaggregating this data by sex, and asking questions about who produces what, would not only provide information on the number of women and men farmers, but would also allow for assessments of whether there are differences and inequalities between women and men in the crops they produce and the work they do, the income they gain from it, etc.
STEP 2: Assess how the gender division of labour and patterns of decision-making affect the programme/project, and how the programme/project affects the gender division of labour and decision making.

In order to explore who does what type of work, we can use Mooser's framework distinguishing between productive, household and community roles:

- **productive work** produces goods and services for home consumption and sale. This includes employment and self-employment in both the formal and informal sectors. Both women and men can be involved in productive work, but their professions, activities and responsibilities often vary according to the gender division of labour. Women's productive work is often carried out alongside their domestic and childcare responsibilities (reproductive work) and tends to be less visible and less valued than men's productive work.

- **reproductive work** involves the tasks associated with domestic work, care and maintenance of the household and its members. Women tend to be most active in reproductive work, such as preparing food, bearing and caring for children, caring for other household members and maintaining the house. Men may be responsible for constructing the home, household security and decision-making. This work is usually unpaid. Although there has been increased recognition of the input of domestic and “caring” work in recent years, these activities are still often overlooked, unmeasured and undervalued.

- **community work** involves the activities for the management and wellbeing of the community that are voluntary and unpaid. Women’s community activities include provisioning and maintenance of resources which are used by everyone, such as water, healthcare, education. These activities are undertaken as an extension of their reproductive role and are normally unpaid and carried out in their free time. In contrast it is mainly men who are involved in politics at the community.

Women's labour is all too often invisible and women receive little or no recognition for their efforts with these activities not even officially classified as being labour.

**Activity Analysis** is a gender-based analytical tool capable of identifying the activities performed by men and women in their daily lives. It is based on the sexual division of labour and takes into account the frequency of the activity and the amount of time devoted to it.

**Activity Profile Tool (24-hour Day chart)** includes making the gender division of labour visible. It can be carried out by mapping all the activities of men and women (can include girls and boys) in the household over a twenty four hour period. It provides for disaggregation by sex, age, and other factors, and for recording the amount of time spent on activities, and the location of the activities.

STEP 3: Assess who has access to and control over resources, assets and benefits, including programme/project benefits. Having access to resources and control over them is fundamental to being a fully active and productive (socially, economically and politically) participant in society.

Resources and assets include national and productive resources, information, education, income, services, employment and benefits, finance/loans.

When analysing this dimension, particularly have in mind:

**Legal rights and entitlements**: How people of different genders are regarded and treated by the customary and formal legal codes and judicial systems, right to vote/have a vote, can enter into legal agreements and contracts, own property and make reproductive choices, e.g. rights and entitlements which often deny or inhibit their access to resources and benefits. Gender-based differences in legal rights and status affect girls, women and sexual minorities in particular. Among them, these involve:
• National and cultural policies around **asset ownership** (i.e., women’s ability to legally own assets without male permission, joint ownership, ability to make asset-related decisions).
• National and cultural policies around women’s **access to land and access to inputs**. National and cultural policies around **inheritance**.
• Entitlements to health care, representation, due process and family formation or recognition.

**Power:** The capacity to control resources and to make autonomous and independent decisions free of coercion. Gender norms influence the extent to which individuals can make and act on decisions about acquiring resources; beliefs; one’s own body; children; occupations; affairs of the household, community or state; voting; running for office; legislation; entering into legal contracts; and moving about and associating with others. Power is a part of each of the above domains, as well as a domain in its own right.

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**The Access and Control Profile ix**

In doing gender analysis, planners therefore need to obtain information about the gender-based patterns of access to and control over resources and benefits in the given community. The Access and Control Profile is a tool to help identify these gender-based patterns.

It identifies the resources individuals can command to carry out their activities and the benefits they derive from them (benefits can include outside income, training, etc.). By distinguishing between access to resources and benefits, and control over them it is possible to assess the relative power of members of a society, community or economy.

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**STEP 4: Understand women's/girls' and men's/boys' different needs, priorities and strengths.**

Gender analysis recognizes that women’s needs differ from men's needs, because of the triple role women play, as well as their subordinate position to men in society. When analysing needs of women and men, gender analysis (based on Mooser's framework) makes distinction between **practical gender needs/interests** and **strategic gender needs/interests:**

**Practical gender needs** present necessities such as adequate living conditions, water provision, health care and employment. These are the short-term, immediate needs/interests, which often need to be met regularly on a day-to-day basis. They are easily identified. They can be addressed through direct action such as installing water pumps and building schools or health facilities.

Practical needs often arise from the actual and immediate situation in which men and women find themselves, for example, after a disaster i.e. their consist of their need for shelter, health care and money. Practical needs relate to people’s basic, material needs for day-to-day survival. Projects working towards meeting these needs are often concerned with improving the conditions of women and men through more efficient resource use, and are not designed to challenge existing gender roles and divisions of labour.

**Meeting women’s practical gender needs is essential in order to improve living conditions, but in itself it will not change the prevailing disadvantaged (subordinate) position of women. It may in fact reinforce the gender division of labour.**

**Strategic gender needs** are engaged in addressing and overcoming the women's unequal status in the society. They relate to issues of power and control, sexual division of labour, restricted legal protection and rights and access to other resources such as education. They are not as easily identified by women themselves as their practical needs; therefore, they may need specific opportunities to do so.

Strategic needs are addressed through initiatives designed to challenge existing gender roles and relationships between women and men. In meeting strategic gender needs, a programme sets out to change the relative positions of women and men in order to promote empowerment and gender equity. Therefore, the strategic needs are linked to long term process of changing societal attitudes, including the attitudes of women and men themselves, or legal and policy changes. Meeting strategic needs may include changes in the gender division of labour (women taking on work not traditionally seen as women’s work, engaging men in domestic responsibilities, child rearing, giving women equal legal rights, equal wages and securing women’s control over their own bodies).
The distinction between practical and strategic needs is not clear-cut however, and projects or programmes may address either or both, depending on the context. Practical and strategic gender interests/needs should not be seen as entirely distinct and separate, but rather as a continuum. By consulting women on their practical gender needs entry points to address gender inequalities in the longer term (strategic gender interests/needs) can be created.

The gender analysis and its tools can help us understand, which women's and men's practical and strategic needs are. It also helps us to answer the questions:

- Would it be more appropriate in the given circumstances to address women’s (and men’s) practical gender needs, or to take a more transformatory approach and address the underlying causes of their situation, hereby responding to their strategic interests, and why?
- How would these approaches impact upon likely project outcomes, and on men and women in the situation under review?
- How would they impact on the overall social context?

**STEP 5:** Understand the complexity of gender relations, beliefs, perceptions, knowledge and social norms of, and about women, men, girls and boys and how this constrains or provides opportunities for addressing gender inequality. This domain also includes beliefs and social norms about women’s and men’s acceptable behaviour, how they are differently valued in society, and what they are capable of.

**STEP 6:** Assess the barriers and constraints of women and men participating and benefiting equally from the programme/project.

This also includes mapping practical issues, such as questioning what constraints limit women’s full involvement in the field in question or project activities. This includes, analysing for example how women organize childcare, when participating (e.g. Will women watch each other’s children? Is an older child left behind? Can small children come to meetings/ trainings/ places of employment?), the level of women’s autonomy to be able to participate, her mobility and freedom of movement (i.e., How far are women able to travel for trainings, to deliver milk, etc.? Are they able to travel alone or do they need to be accompanied?).

**DATA GAINED THROUGH THE ANALYSIS ALLOWS US TO:**

**STEP 7:** Develop strategies and decide on the appropriate areas for intervention to address barriers and constraints, include these strategies in programme/project design and implementation, and ensure that they are adequately resourced. E.g. answering the question, what are appropriate areas for intervention, so that these constraints can be mitigated?

**STEP 8:** Assess counterparts/partners capacity for gender sensitive planning, implementation and monitoring, and develop strategies to strengthen capacity.

**STEP 9:** Assess the potential of the programme/project to empower women, address strategic gender interests and transform gender relations.

**STEP 10:** Develop gender-sensitive indicators to monitor participation, benefits, the effectiveness of gender equality strategies, and changes in gender relations.

**STEP 11:** Apply the above information and analysis throughout the program/project cycle.
ANALYSIS DATA: Benefits of the participatory approach and primary data collection

SECONDARY SOURCES

There are often various types of existing analyses and sources of information and data that can be collated, synthesized, and utilised in developing our gender analyses, these include:

- **Official national statistics**, such as household Income and Expenditure Surveys; Macroeconomic Policy Analyses (if gender disaggregated)
- **Gender analyses and studies by other donors and NGO partners, academics**, such as journal articles, national surveys on gender-based violence, gender-related policies in the project area, and their socio-economic analyses which address gender issues and provide sex disaggregated data.
- **United Nations reports and reports of other inter-governmental agencies**, such as Regional and country Millennium Development Goals Reports (Gender equality is MDG3), UNDP Human Development Reports;

Ideally, we combine the existing data with the primary data on gender norms and practices related to the project or study focus. Getting a primary data requires staff to interact with the source and extract information, including through focus groups and personal interviews, surveys, etc.

However, when doing a gender analysis, those responsible for carrying it out should begin with a critical assessment of themselves and their own cultural views. It is important not to bring your own “cultural baggage” with you when analysing a situation from a gender perspective.\(^{\text{xii}}\)

PARTICIPATORY APPROACH\(^{\text{iii}}\)

Since the aim of the gender analysis is to shape development and other interventions with the positive social impact, the ideal is to carry it out in a participatory and open manner, reaching out and directly involving potential beneficiary community or target group of the intervention. After all, they know the best what their needs and possibilities are!

In this regard, try to make a gender analysis as participatory as possible, including try to:

- conduct individual interviews with members of the community who best represent their peers;
- ensure that all individuals tagged as key for the intervention have been duly interviewed, or have otherwise played a direct role in securing the information or in utilising the analytical tools;
- verify the information through group discussions with the different parties involved;
- involve a sufficient number of participants to reflect the considerable variety of socio-economic situations and identities that exist within a given community (e.g. ensuring variety based on economic status, race, religion, etc.);
- conduct the consultation process with both single-sex groups (both men and women) and mixed groups, making sure that women’s voices are heard.

Be as broad as possible and try to involve all the relevant stakeholders (communities, the government, technical agencies, NGOs, the UN and other international agencies). However, always have in mind that women’s participation in decision-making is generally lower than that of men, thus specific strategies are generally required to ensure that women’s voices are heard.
Some members of the civil society argue that addressing gender inequality in programming is similar to “social engineering” and goes against cultural norms in different societies. People conducting gender analyses point out that what is considered to be the “cultural norm” may, in another sense, refer to the disguised strong desire by men to retain certain benefits. Women, on the other hand, may have a different perspective on issues as opposed to men when it comes to their own needs and rights.

If conducting participatory gender analysis and research have in mind some practical questions before beginning your gender analysis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have you chosen the location that is accessible to everyone?</td>
<td>Can you speak the local language? If not, who will translate for you? If not, who will translate for you? How much will you lose in the translation of language?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How can you schedule activities so that all the relevant people have time to participate?</td>
<td>How can you be assertive about what you want to do or find out without being over controlling?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How will you ensure that different groups have a chance to present their views? How will you overcome gatekeepers (those that do not allow you access to other people)?</td>
<td>How can you be knowledgeable, clear about what are you doing and ensure that you do not pre-empt the answers? How will you make sure you are not trying to prove a gender-related point, but genuinely try to find out about the gender roles and relations in the community?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How will you deal with dominant person that answers for everyone?</td>
<td>How do you plan to involve the quieter participants?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How good are you at listening – do you hear everything? Can you work out hidden meanings?</td>
<td>How can you remain observant during gender analysis, and what should you be observing? How do you know what to look for?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How would your identity and who you are influence the research and how can you overcome it? How would they perceive you i.e. rich and powerful? Are you viewed as an outsider/insider? Would people tell you what they think you want to hear so that they can get access to resources?</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
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Adopted from: International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, 2013

Methodologies for information gathering

The list below summarises a range of information-gathering methods. Every method has its own strengths and limitations with some methods being more participatory than others. Which information-gathering methods are the most appropriate will depend on the specific context and information needs.

PARTICIPATORY OR RAPID APPRAISAL METHODS
These refer to informal methods used to obtain detailed, practical information directly from project beneficiaries or target groups. They include methods such as Venn diagrams, seasonal calendars, resource picture cards, transect maps and benefit flow diagrams.

STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS
Use a pre-prepared list of set questions. The same questions can be asked of a number of individuals and their different answers compared. Remember that one-on-one interviews can yield irrelevant or inaccurate information. If the interviewee is poor (and/or of limited education) they might be tempted to say what they think the interviewer wants to hear. There is a risk that the interviewee perceives there to be a “correct” answer, which does not necessarily reflect their genuine belief.
SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS
Semi-structured interviews involve guided conversations in which only the broad topics are decided in advance. Interviewers are free to ask new questions as new insights arise in response to the answers that interviewees give. Questions tend to be “open ended” rather than providing yes/no answers.

KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEWS
This is a semi-structured or structured interview with carefully selected male and female interviewees who have detailed knowledge or relevant experience of the issue under discussion.

INFORMAL GROUP DISCUSSIONS
There is no list of pre-prepared questions for beneficiaries/target groups. The “outsider” listens and attempts to learn about the needs or issues that are relevant to the beneficiaries. These informal discussions can take place while another activity is going on, e.g. during a visit to monitor progress of another programme/activity.

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS
Focus group discussions are used as a way of determining the rationale behind existing activities and patterns of behaviour within a particular community/group. Focus group discussions also enable participants to articulate ideas of what should change from the community’s own perspective. Discussions also help identify factors that obstruct change and ways in which change might be facilitated.

BRAINSTORMING
When an issue or problem has been identified, everyone in a particular group is invited to give their ideas regarding possible solutions. All ideas are welcomed without criticism and recorded. Ideas are then combined and improved upon until a coherent and comprehensive list of suggestions on how to deal with the problem is drawn up.

QUESTIONNAIRES
Questionnaires are sent out or distributed to a range of individuals. Contrary to dealing with people face-to-face, this approach means a larger number of individuals can be reached. Questionnaires can also help produce statistical representations of opinions. The results of different answers can be correlated for each item i.e. age, sex, social position and so on. However, care needs to be taken in how questionnaires are designed (particularly how questions are worded) to avoid questions being misinterpreted.

DIRECT OBSERVATION
An interpretation of what is observed is made by project planners and cross-checked with other methods. For example, observations can be made about the type of dwellings in a given area, with criteria such as roof type used to determine levels of poverty. Researchers can observe activities at the market place to gauge economic activities, who is selling what produce and how frequently. Government sources can later be used to cross check the perceived numbers of informal workers and market products with formal statistics.

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