



Canadian International
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développement international



A PROJECT LEVEL HANDBOOK

THE WHY AND HOW OF GENDER - SENSITIVE INDICATORS

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***THE WHY AND HOW OF
GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS:***

A PROJECT LEVEL HANDBOOK

Produced by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA)

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INTRODUCTION

The Guide to Gender-Sensitive Indicators and the Project-Level Handbook are the final products of a 14-month research project completed with the Division for Women in Development and Gender Equity in CIDA's Policy Branch. Both the *Guide* and the *Handbook* were researched and compiled by Dr. Tony Beck of the Institute for Asian Studies at University of British Columbia, and Dr. Morton Stelcner of Concordia University's Department of Economics. The project was managed by Dr. Rajani Alexander, Senior Policy Analyst with the Women in Development and Gender Equity Division. The Division would be happy to receive any comments you have regarding these documents and their application in the field. I am very pleased to have been asked to write this Introduction as the former Director of the Division. I will continue to follow the use and adaptation of these tools with interest.

Marnie Girvan

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HOW TO USE THIS HANDBOOK

You can use this Handbook to:

review the main approaches to using gender-sensitive indicators, and

determine which types of indicators you could use.

This Handbook concentrates on gender integrated and WID-specific projects with an end-user/local stakeholder focus. The Handbook is a brief introduction to a complex subject. It should be used in tandem with its companion volume, the more comprehensive *Guide to Gender-Sensitive Indicators* (CIDA 1995), which contains fuller discussions of concepts, methods, and case-studies, and which is referred to in the following as the Guide.

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1. THE TASK AND THE TOOL: WHY GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS?

An indicator is a pointer. It is a number, a fact or a perception that measures changes in a specific condition or situation over time. Indicators can provide a close look at the results of initiatives and actions. For this reason, they are front-line instruments for monitoring and evaluating development work.

Gender-sensitive indicators have the special function of pointing out how far and in what ways development programs and projects have met their gender objectives and achieved results related to gender equity. Gender-sensitive indicators measure gender-related changes in society over time.

Gender-sensitive indicators are important for another reason. Mainstream indicators such as GNP have been used in a way that obscures or under-values women's contribution to society. A good example of this is the way in which, in many societies, areas of work customarily reserved for women, such as child-rearing and housework, are not included as work in national accounting systems. Gender specialists have challenged this obscuring of women's efforts, and promoted the use of quantitative and qualitative gender-sensitive indicators to illustrate women's and men's participation in different aspects of social life.

Like all evaluation tools, indicators have their limits. For example, an indicator will tell you how many people participated in a project, but it will give you little information about the nature, degree and effects of their participation. To understand these you will need to use *qualitative analysis*, which is described in chapter 2.

To be sensitive to the needs of all project stakeholders, indicators should wherever possible be developed in a participatory fashion. Input to the development of indicators should be sought from all participants, and particularly from those people that the project will most directly affect.

Keeping these general definitions and limitations in view, we have to choose indicators for each stage of the project cycle, *always setting them against project objectives*, i.e., the broad objectives of the project and the particular objectives of each stage.

In addition, we also have to take into account external factors affecting the project, such as political considerations and possible risks or enabling factors. A practical strategy for working with indicators would be to start with a workplan organized in the following order:



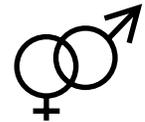
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INDICATOR WORKPLAN

1. Identify objectives
2. Identify external factors as potential risks/enabling features
3. Decide which types of indicators are appropriate and over what time-frame
4. Develop qualitative analysis

This work-plan is described in more detail in chapter 2.

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2. FOLLOWING THE INDICATOR WORKPLAN

POINT 1 – IDENTIFYING OBJECTIVES

Objectives must be clearly developed if indicators are to be used, and indicators should follow objectives closely. Setting objectives can be complex. A review of a variety of projects with an end-user focus has shown that two types of objectives are generally used, which we have typologised as follows:

Type 1: Objectives, of which the results are relatively easily quantifiable.

Type 2: Objectives, of which the results are less easily quantifiable, concern social processes, and will require greater emphasis on qualitative analysis to measure them.

When setting objectives, projects will often use a mix of Type 1 and 2, but will lean more towards one or the other. While your project objectives may not fit exactly into either type, thinking in terms of Type 1 and Type 2 objectives will help with the development of indicators.

An example of a Type 1 objective would be:

"Increase gross enrolment rates by 50% at the primary school level in the project area over a five year period, ensuring gender and socio-economic equality."

An example of a Type 2 objective would be:

"Empower poor rural dwellers in the project area so that they are able to make a contribution to decision-making in their villages."

It is relatively easy to measure changes in enrolment rates in a given area (see the Guide, Annex 5). But it is more difficult to determine whether poor people have been empowered and how they contribute more to decision-making. If your project objectives are closer to Type 1, you will probably be using standard quantitative indicators of education, employment or health, and will concentrate on outcome indicators. If they are closer to Type 2, you will probably concentrate more on indicators of empowerment or participation, and will focus more, at least initially, on process indicators. These types of indicators are described in chapters 3 and 4. Type 1 objectives also relate closely to changes in women's practical needs, and Type 2 objectives relate closely to changes in women's strategic interests. For a definition of women's practical needs and strategic interests, see CCIC (1991).



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Not all objectives will be immediately clear, nor do they necessarily have to be so. **Like indicators, objectives should be developed with input from all stakeholders in an iterative fashion, so that objectives may change as the project progresses.** However, at some point in the project cycle clear objectives should be set and at that point relevant indicators to be used for measurement can be decided upon.

Objective statements should specify adequately the results to be achieved in such a way that these results can be measured. For example a statement such as "Increase enrolment rates for poor children ensuring gender equity" does not tell us to what extent enrolment rates need to increase (is 20% sufficient for an adequate result to be achieved, or should it be 50%?), nor the time frame over which this will happen. In addition, the meaning of objectives should be easily understood and agreed upon by all stakeholders, and objectives should be set realistically.

Objectives should be determined in relation to base-line studies, against which results can be measured. For example, in an education project a base-line study would collect data on literacy and enrolment rates, disaggregated by sex, ethnic and socio-economic grouping.

POINT 2 – IDENTIFY EXTERNAL FACTORS AS POTENTIAL RISK/ENABLING FEATURES

Experience shows that at all stages of its cycle a project may be affected by a variety of risks or enabling features. By risk/enabling indicators we mean those factors external to a project that contribute to the project's success or failure.

Risk/enabling indicators include socio-economic and environmental factors, as well as the operation and functioning of institutions, the legal system, and socio-cultural practices. For example, in an income-generating project indicators of risk would be the attitude of local institutions or the local elite, or the potential for marketing of goods produced. **Like all indicators, they should be developed with stakeholder participation, as end-users in particular are likely to know most about potential project risks/enabling factors.**

It would be worthwhile to explore the possibilities of scoring risk/enabling factors at the project level to isolate CIDA's responsibility for success. For example, risk and enabling factors could be scored on a scale of 1-5. In an income generating project in a particular region, a major political or environmental disruption in that region that negated the effects of the project could be scored '5'. Less devastating disruptions, for example floods that made a road impassable for three months, could be scored '1' or '2'. Some experimentation would be needed at the project level before it was possible to see if such a system is feasible.

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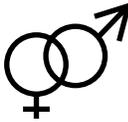


Related questions are to determine which results in the project area are caused by factors outside of the project's control, and what the effects of the project are on the area outside the project. For example, how can the intervention of another donor in a similar sector to the one in which CIDA is working be factored in to evaluation? This short Handbook cannot deal with these important questions, and the reader should turn to specialist advice related to them which can be found in Bamberger and Valadez (1994).

POINT 3 – IDENTIFY INDICATORS TO BE USED

Indicators are generally classified under the following types:

- a chain of indicators through the project cycle, and along a time spectrum:
 - input
 - process
 - output
 - outcome
- quantitative
- qualitative



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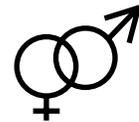
Working definitions of these types are:

DEFINITIONS OF INDICATORS	
Input indicators:	concern the resources devoted to the project.
Process indicators:	measure delivery activities of the resources devoted to a project. They are measures to monitor achievement during implementation, and serve primarily to track progress towards the intended results.
Output indicators:	measure intermediate results, for example at a point when donor involvement in the project is close to complete.
Outcome indicators:	relate directly to the longer-term results of the project, and after donor involvement is complete.
Quantitative indicators:	are numerical measurements of change, such as the number of women visiting a pre-natal counselling centre.
Qualitative indicators:	are people's perceptions, such as opinions regarding alterations in social relations, authority or status. They can be quantified. For example, the number of women in a project area who consider that their status has improved can be added up to provide a numerical measure of a qualitative indicator.

Methods for choosing indicators to fit your project are described in more detail in chapter 3.

- **The main focus in use of indicators through the project cycle should be on outcome indicators, because they best measure results.** As a rule of thumb in projects with an end-user focus, outputs can be determined near to completion of the project. Ideally, outcomes can be determined between project completion and 3-5 years after donor involvement with the project is complete. Allowing this length of time after the end of donor involvement will also provide a guide to the *sustainability* of the project, although it may not always be practical to review a project 3-5 years after donor involvement ends.
- **Another rule of thumb is that quantitative and qualitative indicators should be used together to cross-validate each other, in a process called triangulation.** Qualitative indicators are important because using them will promote participation through the project cycle, and tell you what end-users think about the project.

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There are various other ways in which indicators can be classified, for example using terms employed in the Logical Framework Analysis, such as input, output, outcome and impact. The terms themselves are less important than the way in which they are defined, that is they should be defined in a way that covers all stages of the project cycle. Proposed indicators must also meet the key tests of validity and reliability to be useful. The reader should turn to chapter 3 of the Guide for more details on these key tests and a discussion of how to select and use quantitative and qualitative indicators.

POINT 4 – USING QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

Quantitative and qualitative indicators are pointers; in themselves they can achieve only a certain level of analysis. When working with indicators there is usually a need for further qualitative analysis as to why a certain situation exists.

- **Qualitative analysis is used for an understanding of social processes, why and how a particular situation that indicators measure came into being, and how this situation can be changed in the future. It should be used at all stages of the project cycle.**
- **Quantitative and qualitative indicators will tell you how far your project has succeeded or failed. Qualitative analysis will tell you why this result took place, and whether the result was a good one or not.**

An example will clarify the indicators-analysis continuum:

EXAMPLE

Indicators of change in rural India

*An innovative study on the incidence of poverty in two Indian villages was carried out over twenty years by Jodha (1989), between 1964 and 1984. Jodha gathered **quantitative indicators** on household income and used these indicators to chart the fortunes of the different households; the findings from these quantitative indicators were that 38% of sample households had become poorer during this twenty year period.*

*Unusually, Jodha also collected **qualitative indicators** from farmers who were deemed to have become poorer. Poor farmers' qualitative indicators or perceptions of change over the twenty year period were phrased not in terms of declining income but in terms of: reduced reliance on patrons, reduced dependence on low-paid jobs, improved mobility and improved assets. Even though these farmers had become poorer in monetary terms, they considered their quality of life had improved.*



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*Jodha then uses **qualitative analysis** to examine why, because of social changes in their villages, poor people felt that they were better off, the main reasons being because they had greater independence, more mobility and were no longer at the mercy of the village elite. Jodha's is one of the best studies to show how quantitative and qualitative indicators can cross-validate each other, and why there might be differences between the two kinds of indicators.*

-
- **Qualitative analysis is usually required to isolate the reasons why results have been achieved whether the project includes Type 1 or Type 2 objectives.**
 - **Ideally, quantitative and qualitative indicators and quantitative analysis should be used together in project monitoring and evaluation.**

There are two useful Guides to qualitative analysis, Coady International Institute (1991), and CCIC et al (1991). These are widely available and the reader should turn to them for further information on this important subject.

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3. *THE RIGHT SIGN IN THE RIGHT PLACE: CHOOSING INDICATORS*

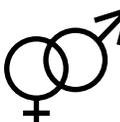
This chapter expands on point 3 in the workplan and explains how indicators can be chosen. Following the guide-lines in the box below, this chapter looks at how indicators can be chosen in an education project. Chapter 4 looks at choosing indicators in projects related to empowerment and participation, and the Appendix gives an example of such a project.

These generic examples cover two important areas that CIDA works in - basic human needs, and participation and empowerment. The education project is an example of a gender integrated project, and the empowerment project is an example of a WID-specific initiative. In practice, **gender-sensitive indicators can be used in all types of CIDA projects.**

Only a few indicators may need to be chosen at each stage of the project cycle. As a rule of thumb, up to six indicators can be chosen, although balance will need to be maintained between the cost and time involved in gathering and analysing indicators and the need for comprehensive evaluation of results.

Guide-lines for choosing indicators

- indicators should be developed in a participatory fashion, involving all stakeholders wherever possible
- indicators must fit with objectives
- indicators of risk/enabling factors should be included
- each stage of the project cycle needs an indicator
- both quantitative and qualitative indicators are needed
- all indicators should be sex-disaggregated



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EXAMPLE : an education project

Background

Consider a region in which agriculture is the principal source of livelihood, supplemented by home-based activities such as weaving and sewing, carried out mainly by women. Women's main production activities include growing vegetables, hoeing, weeding, harvesting, threshing, and small-animal husbandry (e.g. poultry, milking). Because of poverty, inequality and lack of gender-equity in the region, there is a bias in the local educational system towards the education of boys from wealthier households.

All primary and secondary education is provided in village-based public schools, and teachers are mainly educated local people, with 75% of the teachers being men. The number of teachers is insufficient for the potential number of students. Although the law requires compulsory primary schooling from age 6 to 13 years, there is only sporadic enforcement of this.

Enrolment rates show substantial differences across different socio-economic groupings and between women and men. Gender bias is found in the enrolment rate at the primary level (grades 1-6): 50% for girls compared to 80% for boys. Bias towards wealthier socio-economic groups is also found in the enrolment rate at primary level. When socio-economic groups are classified from 1 to 5 dependent on total income, group 1 (wealthiest) displays 90% enrolment rate and group 5, 15%.

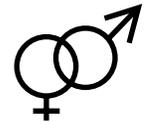
Project objective

Objective	Type of Objective
To ensure socio-economic and gender equality in access to primary education, - without reducing enrolment rates - within five years.	Type 1

Project components

- 1. A system of incentives aimed at parents and teachers. Parents from poorer socio-economic groupings will be given monthly in-kind or cash payments if their children satisfy pre-determined enrolment and attendance rates. Parents from all socio-economic groupings will be given monthly in-kind or cash payments if their daughters satisfy pre-determined enrolment and attendance rates. The second part of this component attempts to ensure "buy-in" from households from all socio-economic groups.*

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2. *To maximize community involvement village-based advisory schooling councils (ASCs) with equal representation of male and female parents and teachers, and equal representation from across socio-economic groups, will be formed. The size of the payments to parents will be determined in consultation with the ASC, which is also responsible and accountable for their distribution. This component attempts to facilitate community participation and ensure on-going community involvement and therefore sustainability.*
3. *Improvements in quality of school equipment: mid-day meals, and classroom equipment, such as desks, blackboards, and textbooks.*
4. *Improvements in the gender content of the curriculum.*

Base-line data should be collected on the number of students admitted by socio-economic grouping, sex, grade, age; public expenditure per student, e.g. teachers' salaries, meals, instructional material, equipment, etc.; number of teachers and school administrators, by sex; state of school equipment, e.g. textbook-student ratio; nature of the curriculum, e.g. time devoted to different subjects.

After collection of base-line data, the following are quantitative and qualitative indicators that can be used to measure the results of this project, using the risk and input-to-outcome typology. For further discussion of education, health, employment and water supply indicators, see Annexes 5 to 9 in the Guide.

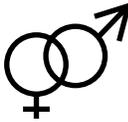
EXAMPLE

Risk/enabling indicators

- *Government support gauged by analysis of official attitudes.*
- *Popular community support gauged by attendance and analysis of comments at meetings.*
- *Elite support, gauged by focus group meetings and comments at meetings and interviews.*

Input indicators

- *Amount of project funding.*
- *Community perceptions of the feasibility of the project.*
- *Degree of community input to project planning, by socio-economic grouping and sex.*



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Process indicators

- *Receipt of cash or in-kind payments by socio-economic grouping of household.*
- *Regular monthly meetings of ASCs.*
- *Equal participation across socio-economic groups and by women and men in ASCs.*
- *Parental views of benefits of schooling.*
- *Net and gross enrolment rates by socio-economic grouping and sex.*
- *Drop-out rates by socio-economic grouping and sex.*

Output indicators

- *More equitable employment of women and men teachers.*
- *Equitable school enrolment rates by socio-economic grouping and sex at end of donor involvement.*
- *Equitable school completion rates by socio-economic grouping and sex at end of donor involvement.*
- *Equitable literacy rates by sex and across socio-economic grouping at end of primary level.*
- *Improved perceived gender content in the curriculum (e.g. improved representation of women).*

Outcome indicators

- *Equitable school enrolment rates by socio-economic grouping and sex three years after end of donor involvement.*
- *Equitable school completion rates by socio-economic grouping and sex three years after end of donor involvement.*
- *Improvements in status of boys and girls from poorer groups, in terms of health and employment.*
- *Changes in community and parental perceptions of the desirability of having children from poor households and girls educated.*

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Qualitative analysis

This would involve identifying and isolating the factors that caused specific indicators to be in place and why the project succeeded or failed. For example, it would involve analysing how, why and when members of the community participated, any constraints placed on the project by wealthier socio-economic groups and how these were overcome, and showing the links between increased education and higher status.

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4. INDICATORS OF PARTICIPATION AND EMPOWERMENT

4.1 PARTICIPATION

Memo:

- There is no agreed-upon method for the measurement of participation.
- Most work on indicators of participation has focussed on participation in groups.
- Little attention has been paid to qualitative indicators of participation.

Participation Indicators

Most participation development projects have involved the formation of groups. For this reason *most work on indicators of participation has focussed on group formation*. The indicators selected below are ones that have been commonly used and are relatively easy and inexpensive to collect. They can be adapted to measure gender-sensitivity for all types of development projects whether or not the focus of the project specifically promotes participation. **Ideally, indicators of participation should be gathered in a participatory fashion, but in practice, as with most other indicators, this is rarely done.** Time-frames should be made clear for each indicator.

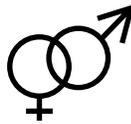
Examples of quantitative indicators of participation

Risk/enabling indicators

- Government support for local participation.
- Potential support of different sectors of the local population to participation (e.g. men, women, local elites).
- Project dominated by different sectors of the population.
- Degree of long-term commitment by donor.

Input indicators

- Levels of input of women/men at different levels (government departments, NGOs, local stakeholders) to identification and planning.



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- Numbers of identification and planning meetings held with local stakeholders.
- Attendance by local stakeholders at identification and planning meetings by sex, socio-economic grouping, age and ethnicity.
- Levels of contribution/participation by local stakeholders at identification and planning meetings.
- Levels of participation by local stakeholders to base-line study.

Input and process indicators (of sustainability)

- Audit of resources or funds held regularly and openly.
- Existence of a set of rules that were developed in a participatory fashion, and in which all members of the community were partly/fully involved.
- Reduced reliance on external funds.

Input and process indicators (of control)

- Frequency of attendance by women and men, by socio-economic grouping.
- Number of women and men in key decision-making positions, by socio-economic grouping.
- Rotation of people in leadership positions.

Input and process indicators (of activities)

- Project input take-up rates. These would be specific to the type of project and need to be monitored for gender sensitivity and socio-economic grouping e.g. amount of loan taken, level of school enrolment, number of visits to the clinic and their increase or decrease since group formation started.
- Levels of women's and men's inputs, by socio-economic grouping, in terms of labor, tools, money, etc.
- Maintenance of physical installations by women/men.

Process indicators (of scale and make-up)

- Number of local women's and men's groups established.

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- Membership of groups by socio-economic grouping and sex.
- Rate of growth or drop-out of membership by socio-economic grouping and sex.
- Socio-economic, age and ethnic make-up of women and men attending meetings.

Output indicators (of benefit and returns)

- Benefits going to men and women, by socio-economic grouping, ethnicity and age (e.g. increased employment, greater crop yields).
- Benefits to the community (e.g. community assets such as a school created to which all have access).

Outcome indicators (of evaluation)

- Use made of benefits to men and women, by socio-economic grouping, ethnicity and age (e.g. how extra income was spent and who controlled it).
- Uses made of community benefits, by sex, socio-economic grouping, ethnicity and age.
- Levels of participation by different stakeholders in evaluation.
- Degree to which lessons of evaluation are acted upon by different stakeholders.

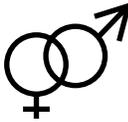
Examples of qualitative indicators of participation and qualitative analysis

Indicators for qualitative evaluations of participation have to be framed mainly in terms of interactions within relevant groups and organizations.

Memo:

Qualitative indicators and analysis of participation relate to three main areas:

- Organisational growth.
- Group behaviour.
- Group self-reliance



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Qualitative indicators and analysis of participation could focus on:

- Stakeholder perceptions of levels of participation of different groups through different stages of the project cycle. Stakeholders could be asked to pin-point levels of participation on a scale of 1-5, or techniques such as Participatory Rural Appraisal could be used (see Annex 4 of the Guide).
- The degree of solidarity and mutual support among the group and between women and men, to be measured through responses of stakeholders and qualitative analysis of changes in group behaviour.
- The ability of the group to prevent and resolve conflicts, to be measured through stakeholder responses and qualitative analysis.
- The participation of an adequate number of women and poorer people in important decision making (adequacy to be mutually agreed by all stakeholders), to be measured through stakeholder responses and by analysis of the impact of different decisions.

4.2 EMPOWERMENT

Memo:

- Like participation, empowerment is difficult to measure. There is no agreed-upon method for measuring empowerment.
- Empowerment needs to be clearly defined if indicators of empowerment are to be developed.
- Indicators of empowerment encompass both personal, and socio-economic and political change.

Most definitions stress two main areas of empowerment:

- i. A personal change in consciousness involving a movement towards control, self-confidence and the right to make decisions and determine choices.
- ii. Organisation aimed at social and political change.

The indicators chosen should fit these areas, but they will differ depending on whether the area of empowerment covered is personal growth, or socio-economic and political change, or both. They will also differ depending on the objective of empowerment being measured (e.g. greater self-respect, or access to the benefits of economic growth, or the creation of a just social and economic order). Because of these differences, when a project objective is the "empowerment of women" or "people's empowerment" it is important to specify:

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- the type of empowerment
- rough time-scales within which project objectives will be accomplished
- the numbers of people to be affected, and
- the degree to which they will be affected.

In short, choosing indicators of empowerment will depend on the way in which empowerment is defined.

While difficulties exist in the measurement of empowerment, a number of usable indicators to measure empowerment do exist. These are listed below, and a selection from the following indicators could be made for measuring the effectiveness of a range of empowerment projects. Many empowerment indicators are process indicators, because becoming empowered often involves a long process of change.

Examples of quantitative indicators of empowerment

Legal empowerment (changes should be noted over time)

- Enforcement of legislation related to the protection of human rights.
- Number of cases related to women's rights heard in local courts, and their results.
- Number of cases related to the legal rights of divorced and widowed women heard in local courts, and the results.
- The effect of the enforcement of legislation in terms of treatment of offenders.
- Increase/decrease in violence against women.
- Rate at which the number of local justices/ prosecutors/ lawyers who are women/men is increasing/decreasing.
- Rate at which the number of women/men in the local police force, by rank, is increasing or decreasing.

Political empowerment (changes should be noted over time)

- % of seats held by women in local councils/decision-making bodies.
- % of women in decision-making positions in local government.
- % of women in the local civil service.



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- % of women/men registered as voters/% of eligible women/men who vote.
- % of women in senior/junior decision making positions within unions.
- % of union members who are women/men.
- Number of women who participate in public protests and political campaigning, as compared to the number of men.

Economic empowerment (changes should be noted over time)

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

Social empowerment (changes should be noted over time)

- Numbers of women in local institutions (e.g. women's associations, consciousness raising or income generating groups, local churches, ethnic and kinship associations) relative to project area population, and numbers of women in positions of power in local institutions.
- Extent of training or networking among local women, as compared to men.
- Control of women over fertility decisions (e.g. number of children, number of abortions).
- Mobility of women within and outside their residential locality, as compared to men.

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Examples of qualitative indicators of empowerment

Qualitative indicators of empowerment are particularly hard to agree upon, in part at least because empowerment itself is a concept that has been defined in different ways. At the present stage of debate perceptions of empowerment are more likely to be elicited by indicator questions of the following types rather than by the indicators implicit in the questions. These questions have to be reinforced by others that relate to qualitative analysis.

Indicator questions to assess empowerment

- To what degree are women aware of local politics, and their legal rights? Are women more or less aware than men? Does this differ by socio-economic grouping, age or ethnicity? Is this changing over time?
- Do women and men perceive that women are becoming more empowered? Why?
- Do women perceive that they now have greater self-respect? Why? How does this relate to men's perceptions?
- Do women/men perceive that they now have greater economic autonomy? Why?
- Are changes taking place in the way in which decisions are made in the household, and what is the perceived impact of this?
- Do women make decisions independently of men in their household? What sort of decisions are made independently?

Key questions for qualitative analysis

- How have changes in national/local legislation empowered or disempowered women or men (e.g. concerning control over resources such as land)?
- What is the role of local institutions (including women's institutions) in empowering/disempowering women/men?
- Is the part women, as compared to men, are playing in major decisions in their locality/household increasing or decreasing?
- Is there more acknowledgement of the importance of tasks customarily carried out by women, e.g. child care?



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- How are women organising to increase their empowerment, for example against violence?
- If employment and education for women are increasing, is this leading to greater empowerment?

Further discussion of participation and empowerment can be found in chapter 5 of the Guide.

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5. *STOP. LOOK, GO: PROBLEMS AND TACTICS*

This chapter provides a summary of guide-lines and a check-list that can be used when developing gender-sensitive indicators.

Guide-lines

- Project level indicators should be developed in a participatory fashion, with input from stakeholders wherever possible, and in particular from end-users most affected by the project.
- Indicators should be developed at a level relevant to users, including local stakeholders.
- All data should, wherever possible, be disaggregated by sex, age, ethnicity and socio-economic grouping.
- Indicators used should be on a spectrum from input, through process and output, to outcome. The central focus in measuring for results should be on outcomes and outcome indicators.
- Qualitative and quantitative indicators should be used in combination wherever possible.
- Indicators raise important questions about project results. They do not necessarily provide answers to these questions. For this reason, indicator use should be supplemented by qualitative analysis.

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- **USE A CHECKLIST**

When developing indicators, it will be useful to check your work against a list such as the one below:

Check-list for indicators

- Are indicators related specifically to objectives?
- Has the type of objective been identified (1 or 2)?
- Have risks/enabling factors been identified?
- Are the indicators easy to use and understand?
- Have all stakeholders had input into indicator development?
- Have quantitative and qualitative indicators been used?
- Is the focus on indicators of outcome?
- Do the indicators measure trends over time?
- Has qualitative analysis been used to tell you why your project achieved its level of success?

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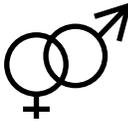


APPENDIX

Sample indicators and indicator questions for an empowerment/participation project

The following Table gives two examples of (constructed) projects on empowerment/participation. The examples illustrate how indicators can be used for Type 1 and 2 objective statements, and how indicators can be used through the project cycle. Base-line studies would need to be carried out for the two projects to examine the bench-marks (e.g. number of women political representatives at the start of the project) against which success could be measured.

Objective	Risk/enabling indicators	Input indicators	Process indicators	Output indicators	Outcome indicators
a. Improve the status of women in project area through greater access of women to political power, over a five year period (type 2 objective)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local population acceptance • Government acceptance • Women willing to stand for power • Women's political representation will lead to an improvement in the status of women 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership training for women of all socio-economic classes • Education programs for women of all socio-economic classes • Funds devoted to project 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of women trained • Number of women attending education programs • Women's views on training 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Short-term effects of training (women able to take greater role in decision-making locally, public speaking, increased number of women involved in politics) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase in political representation of women by 200% at end of 5 year period. • Improvement in women's status (literacy, employment and health) as a result of greater political participation of women (as a direct result of certain legislation being passed because of greater involvement of women in politics) • 50% less violence against women • Women's views on changes in status



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Objective	Risk/enabling indicators	Input indicators	Process indicators	Output indicators	Outcome indicators
b. Increase in political representation of women in 300 rural councils in project area by 200% over ten year period (type 1 objective)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Local population acceptance of women politicians Government acceptance Women willing to stand for power Stable political situation in country Political system will remain pluralist 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Local community views of feasibility of the project Funds devoted to project 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase in political representation of women by 100% over five year period Degrees of training, education, etc. provided for women Women and men's attitudes to training and change, by socio-economic group 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase in political representation of women by 200% at end of ten year period Views of women and men of likely effects of increase Number of key decision-making positions held by women and men 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase in political representation of women by 200%, maintained for one election after end of donor involvement in project Socio-economic background of women political representatives

In the first example, the objectives are relatively broad and the indicators have to 'interpret' what the objectives mean. Because the objectives are broad a large number of indicators could have been used to measure whether the objectives have been met, and those given in the Table are sample indicators.

In the case of the second example the objectives are relatively narrow and well defined and indicators are easy to set. However, the outcome indicators in this case will not tell us very much about empowerment of women. To learn about this we would need to look at factors such as:

- how many women were in decision-making positions and the effect of this, and
- the effect of women gaining political power on the status of women.

To do this it would be necessary to use qualitative analysis, which would examine the links between women's political representation and social and political change.