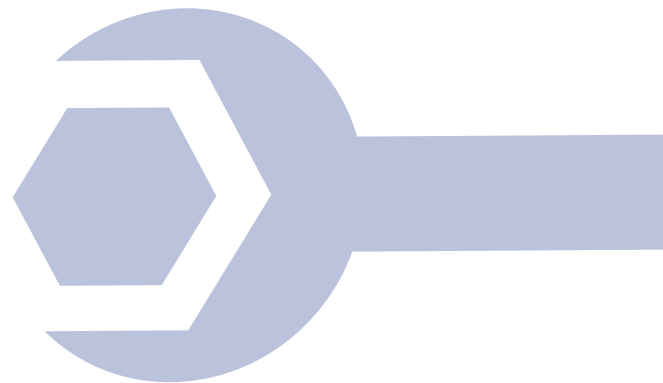


How to design and implement gender-sensitive social protection programmes



Rebecca Holmes and Nicola Jones
October 2010

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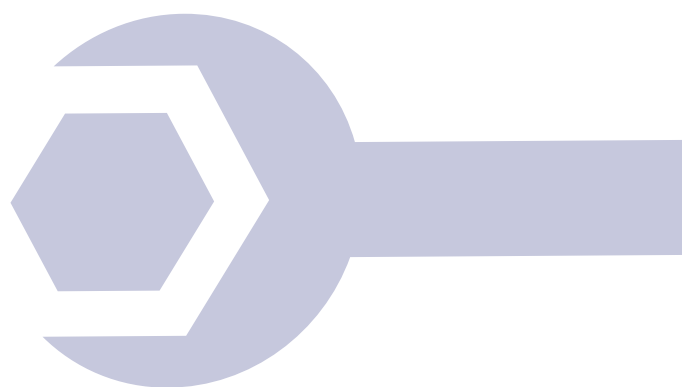
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How to design and implement gender-sensitive social protection programmes

A toolkit

Rebecca Holmes and Nicola Jones

October 2010



How to design and implement gender-sensitive social protection programmes

This toolkit is part of a research project funded by the UK Department for International Development (DFID) (2008-2010) and the Australian Government, AusAID (under the Australian Development Research Awards 2008) (2008-2011), looking at gender and social protection effectiveness in Latin America, sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia and Southeast Asia. DFID funded the primary research in Bangladesh, Ethiopia, Ghana, India, Mexico and Peru, as well as secondary research in Brazil, Chile, Columbia and Pakistan (with a focus on cash and asset transfer and public works programmes). AusAid funded research in Indonesia and Viet Nam (with a focus on subsidies). The research was carried out by the Overseas Development Institute (ODI) in partnership with the Department of Economics, Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia; the Indian Institute of Dalit Studies; SMERU Research Institute in Indonesia; the Vietnamese Academy of Social Sciences, Institute of Family and Gender Studies; the Department of Women and Gender Studies, University of Dhaka; the International Policy Centre for Inclusive Growth (IPCIG) in Brazil; and independent consultants in Ghana, Mexico, and Peru. For more information see:

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Working Papers and Background Notes

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Toolkit

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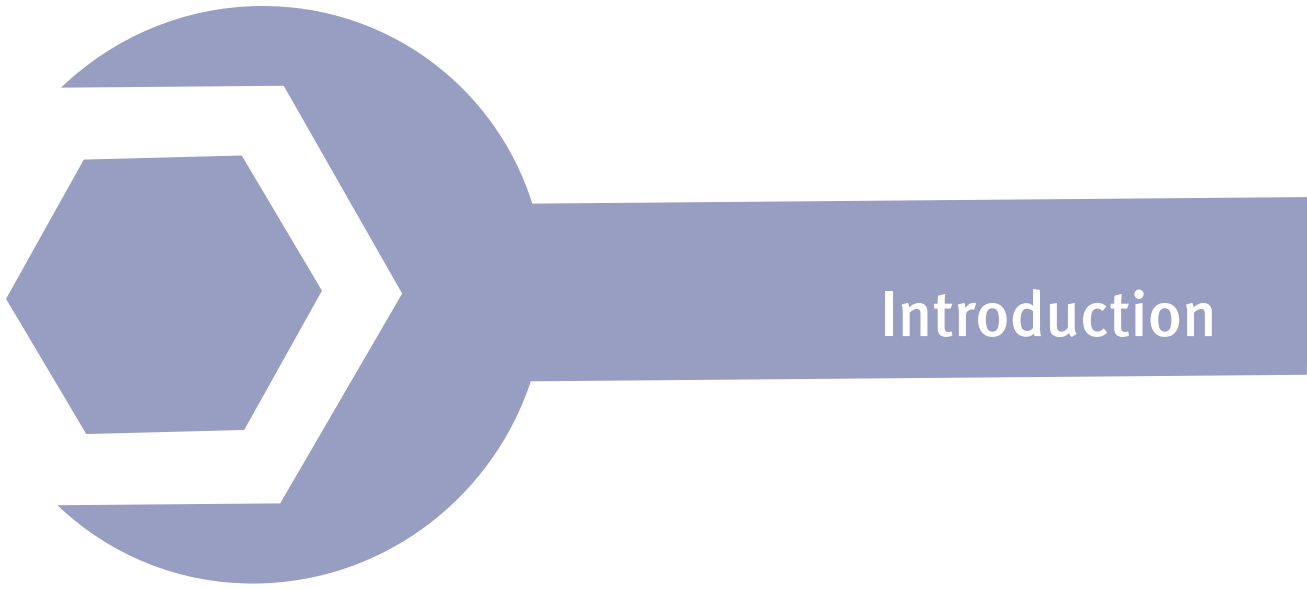
Acronyms

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AusAID	Australian Agency for International Development
BPFA	Beijing Platform for Action
BRAC	Building Resources Across Communities (Bangladesh)
CCT	Conditional Cash Transfer
CAFW	Committee for the Advancement of Women (Viet Nam)
DARD	Department of Agriculture and Rural Development (Viet Nam)
DFID	Department for International Development (UK)
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DOLISA	Department of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs (Viet Nam)
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GTZ	German Development Cooperation
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IDS	Institute of Development Studies
ILO	International Labour Organization
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MARD	Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (Viet Nam)
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MOET	Ministry of Education and Training (Viet Nam)
MOF	Ministry of Finance (Viet Nam)
MOH	Ministry of Health (Viet Nam)
MOLISA	Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs (Viet Nam)
MPI	Ministry of Planning and Investment (Viet Nam)
NA	National Assembly (Viet Nam)
NCAFW	National Committee for the Advancement of Women (Viet Nam)
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OFSP	Other Food Security Programme (Ethiopia)
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PSA	Food Subsidy Programme (Mozambique)
SAC	Social Affairs Committee (Viet Nam)
SIGI	Social Institutions and Gender Index (OECD)
STD	Sexually Transmitted Disease
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNDP	UN Development Programme
UNICEF	UN Children's Fund
UNIFEM	UN Development Fund for Women
WHO	World Health Organization



Case study social protection programmes

BISP	Benazir Bhutto Income Support Programme (Pakistan)
<i>Bolsa Família</i>	Family Grant (Brazil)
CFPR	Challenging the Frontiers of Poverty Reduction (Bangladesh)
<i>Chile Solidario</i>	Chile Solidarity (Chile)
<i>Estancias</i>	Programa Estancias Infantiles para Apoyar a Madres Trabajadoras (Child Care Programme to Support Working Mothers) (Mexico)
<i>Familias en Acción</i>	Families in Action (Colombia)
<i>Fome Zero</i>	Zero Hunger (Brazil)
<i>Juntos</i>	Red Juntos para la Superación de la Pobreza Extrema Social Protection (Network for Overcoming Extreme Poverty) (Colombia)
<i>Juntos</i>	Programa de Apoyo a los Más Pobres – Juntos (Programme of Support to the Poorest – Together) (Peru)
LEAP	Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (Ghana)
MGNREGA	Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (India)
NTPPR	National Targeted Programme for Poverty Reduction (Vietnam)
PSNP	Productive Safety Net Programme (Ethiopia)
<i>Puente</i>	Bridge (Chile)
<i>Raskin</i>	Beras untuk Rumah Tangga Miskin (Rice for the Poor) (Indonesia)





1. Introduction

This toolkit aims to support policy makers, programme designers, implementers and evaluators to apply a much-needed gender lens to social protection.

The past decade has seen a marked spike in policy momentum around the importance of social protection policies and programmes yet there has been very little attention to social protection's role in tackling gendered experiences of poverty and vulnerability.

Increasingly, social protection is recognised as a key policy tool to help achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs); as a policy approach underpinned by rigorous evaluation evidence (in middle-income countries); as a critical mechanism to cushion the poor and newly poor from the worst effects of the global recession; and as a core human right. At the same time, the 2000s have seen a renewed interest in the role that addressing gender inequalities can play in achieving broader development objectives, as highlighted by the World Bank's new mantra 'Gender Equality Makes Economic Sense'. Surprisingly, however, there has been a profound disconnect between these two agendas.

Toolkit objectives

This toolkit aims to improve the effectiveness of social protection interventions by integrating a gender lens to programme design and implementation to better support progress towards gender equality and women's empowerment, and ultimately, sustainably reduce poverty and vulnerability. It seeks to equip policy makers, programme designers and implementers at the international, national and sub-national levels with a set of practical tools designed to promote gender-sensitive social protection, with a particular focus on social assistance programmes (see Table 1 below for more details on different categories of social protection).

Tools presented

This toolkit provides conceptual, technical and practical guidance on how to integrate a gender perspective into social protection from the first steps of designing a programme to programme implementation, monitoring and evaluation. The toolkit provides examples of good practices in gender-sensitive social protection by drawing on real examples from empirical research from a range of social protection instruments across four regions (Latin America, Sub-Saharan Africa, south

Asia and south-East Asia). The main components of the toolkit include:

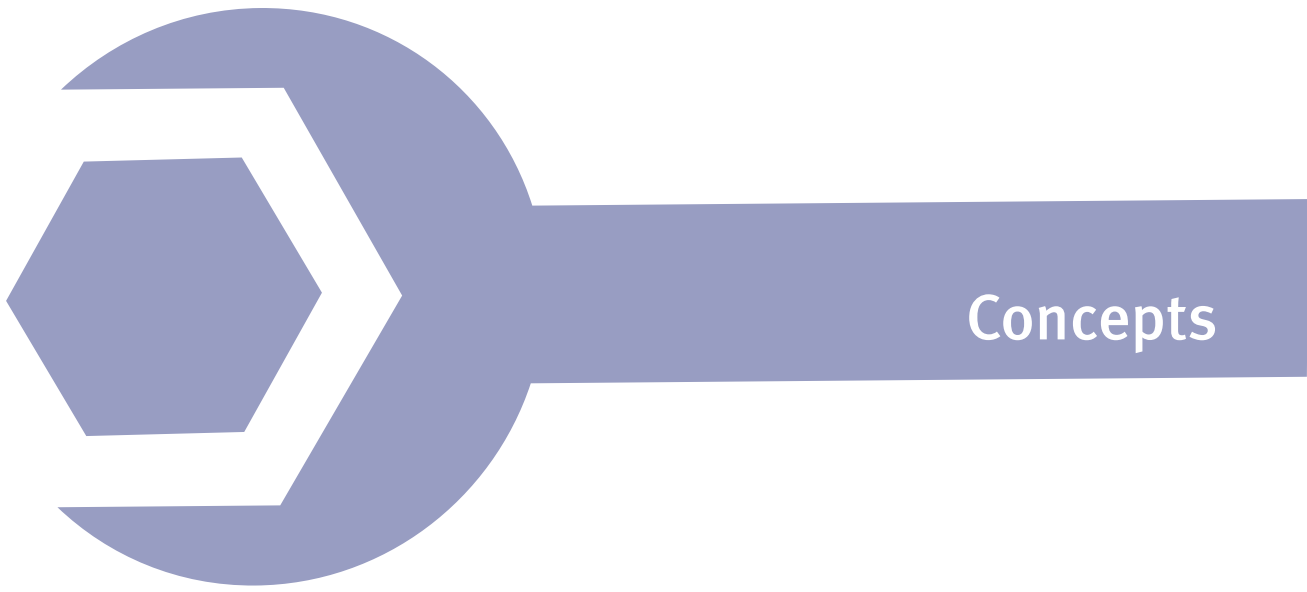
1. Guidance on how to carry out a gendered vulnerability analysis to inform the design of gender-sensitive social protection;
2. A menu of the key steps to consider when designing gender-sensitive cash and asset transfer programmes, public works, and food and service subsidies;
3. Practical guidance to effectively implement and monitor gender-sensitive design in practice, including indicators for sex-disaggregated M&E;
4. Conclusions and a checklist of key steps.

Roadmap

The toolkit is divided into six sections. The following section presents a gender and social protection conceptual framework (which guided the multi-country research and analysis informing the toolkit development). Next, the toolkit provides a "how to" to carry out a gendered vulnerability analysis. Sections four and five provide guidance on designing and implementing gender-sensitive programmes. The final section provides a summary, including a checklist and decision tree of the key issues covered. At the end of sections 3-5, there is a simple decision-tree synthesising the key steps for each of the three clusters of tools as to how to conduct gender-sensitive vulnerability assessments, programme design and implementation. For each cluster, the decision-tree outlines the following elements:

1. Data/ resources to be consulted;
2. Key steps for a gender-sensitive approach and outcomes;
3. Key questions to aid implementation of the tools;
4. Examples drawing on promising international practices in gender-sensitive social protection.

The complete decision tree can be found under figure 7 in the conclusions, and includes some caveats to bear in mind when using the tools.



2. Concepts: Social protection and gender

Before introducing the vulnerability analysis, design and implementation tools, this section covers the key concepts underpinning a gender-sensitive approach to social protection.

What do we mean by social protection?

Social protection refers to: ‘all interventions from public, private and voluntary organisations and informal networks which support communities, households and individuals in their efforts to prevent, manage and overcome risks and vulnerabilities’ (Shepherd et al., 2004). This approach recognises that poor people typically rely on a range of coping strategies, and that formal social protection interventions need to start by understanding what these are, how they evolve over time and the ways in which formal programmes can best complement them to tackle existing and new risks and vulnerabilities.

Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler’s (2004) transformative social protection conceptual framework highlights that in addition to being protective (providing relief); preventive (averting deprivation); and/or promotive (enhancing incomes and capabilities); social protection interventions may also be transformative (i.e. addressing concerns of social equity and exclusion which often underpin people’s experiences of chronic poverty and vulnerability) (see Table 1).

Importantly, the ‘political’ or ‘transformative’ view extends social protection to arenas such as equity, empowerment and economic, social and cultural rights, rather than confining its scope to economic risks, (which may translate into narrow responses based on targeted income and consumption transfers).

A critical feature of this conceptual framework therefore is the recognition of the intertwined nature of economic and social risks and the importance of placing social protection in a broader social equity framework to inform the design and implementation of social protection policies and programmes (see Figure 2).

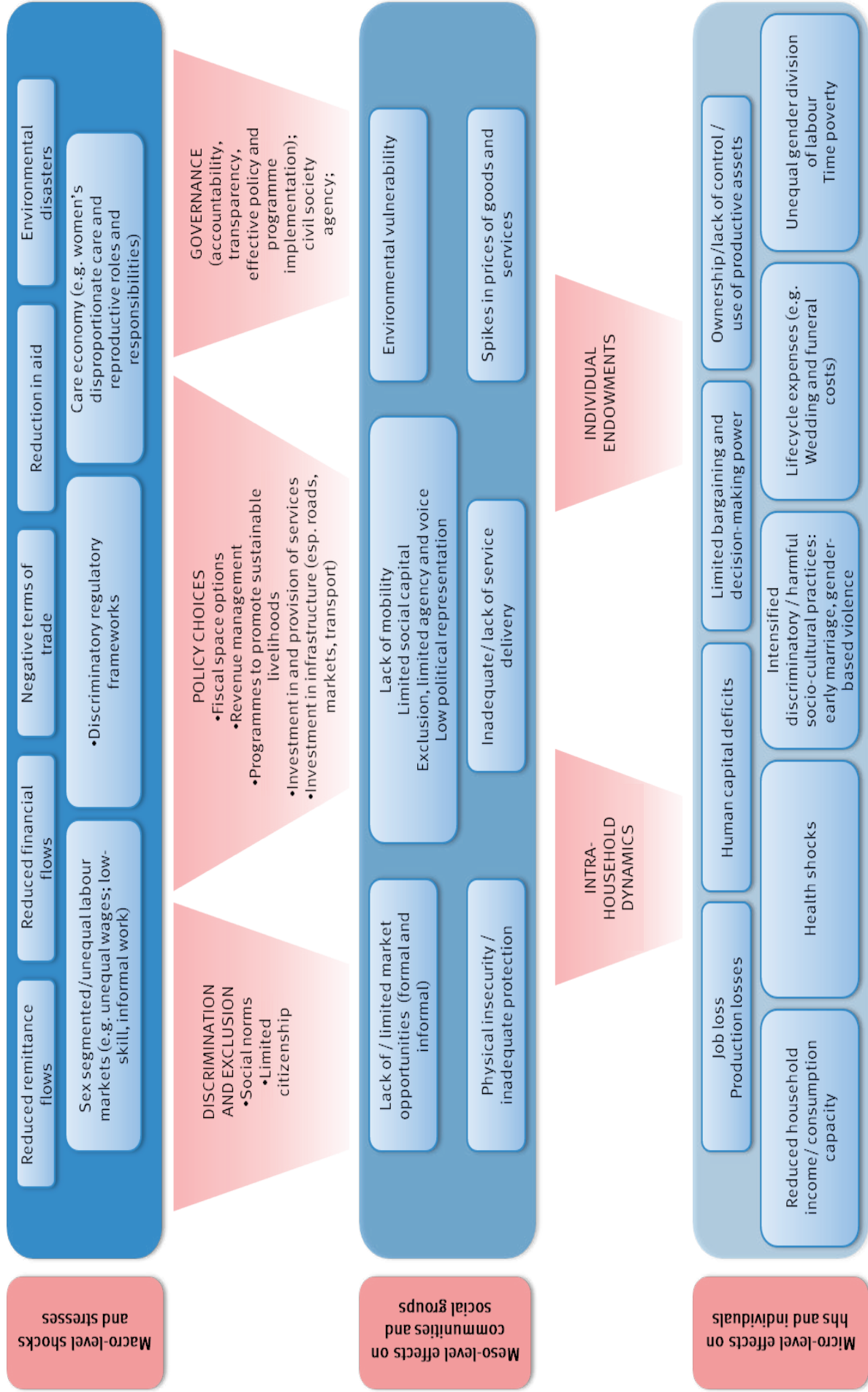
What do we mean by gender?

‘Gender’ refers to women’s and men’s roles and responsibilities that are socially constructed. Gender roles are highly variable, and are determined by social, economic, political and cultural factors. Most importantly, the concept of gender requires an understanding of power relations between men and women.

In the late 1970s Boserup’s seminal work made women’s role in development visible, not just as passive recipients of development in their capacity as mothers and carers, but also as proactive shapers of development by recognising women’s role in the productive sectors. The earlier focus on ‘women in development’ became one on ‘gender and development’ to reflect the importance of power relations between women and men. The Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA) in 1995 signified a turning point. It galvanised both national and international commitment and resources to mainstream gender within development approaches. It supported putting in place national and sub-national gender institutions such as dedicated ministries of women’s empowerment/gender equality, establishing gender focal points across ministries and departments. It also promoted implementing gender mainstreaming tools such as gender budgeting and the collection of gender-disaggregated data. In this way, the importance of gender equality was placed firmly on the agenda as a human right, and also in terms of making good economic sense. More recently, feminist economists have sought to challenge the invisibility of women’s unpaid reproductive work and its contribution to the



Figure 1: Gendered economic and social risks





economy. Estimates suggest that in some countries the monetary value of women’s domestic and care work accounts for approximately 41% of gross domestic product (GDP) (UNPAC 2006).

Why is gender important for social protection?

The evidence of men and women’s, and boys’ and girls’ differential experiences of poverty and vulnerability is well researched, as is the role that gender inequality plays in causing and perpetuating poverty. There is also increased understanding of the benefits of women and girls’ empowerment to improve household wellbeing and contribute to economic growth.

In order to promote sustainable development through poverty reduction approaches such as social protection, the importance of both economic and social risks must be recognised. Despite evidence that social risks (such as gender inequality, power imbalances in the household and limited citizenship) are often as or even more important in pushing households into poverty, these have typically not received as much policy attention as economic/income risks.

Figure 1 maps out the pathways through which macro level shocks and stresses impact on households and individuals, and the ways in which these transmission channels are influenced by policy processes, community dynamics and socio-cultural norms, all of which are gendered.

Opportunities to enhance gender equality at each level are highly context-specific. They depend on the balance between governmental, non-governmental and informal mechanisms within a country, as well as the profile of the government agencies responsible for the design and implementation of formal mechanisms (see Holmes and Jones, 2009).

Economic risks

At the macro level, sources of economic risks can include declines in national financial resources and/or aid flows, terms of trade shocks, price volatility, and environmental disasters. Stresses might include long-term national budget deficits and debt, lack of a regulatory framework and/or enforcement of health and safety standards at work and lack of an economically enabling environment.

At the meso level, shocks may include displacement, harvest failures or business failures. Stresses include:

lack of an enabling economic environment; segmented markets (e.g. differential wages and opportunities for men and women); institutional discrimination (e.g. absence of affirmative action to address historical discrimination of women); lack of service delivery to the poor and specifically to women (e.g. extension services, access to credit, fertiliser etc); and limited functioning markets.

At the intra-household, and individual level, shocks and stresses include job losses or limited employment opportunities, loss of or limited agricultural production, sudden expenditure (e.g. on health emergencies or funerals), debt and displacement; heightened vulnerability of children and adolescents to exploitative forms of work or even trafficking.

Social risks

At a macro level, social risks include social exclusion and discrimination, which often inform and/or are perpetuated by formal policies, legislation and institutions (e.g. low representation of women in senior positions).

Table 1: Types of social protection measures

Type of social protection	General household level measures
Social assistance	Cash transfers (conditional and unconditional), child grants, pensions, disability allowance, food aid, fee waivers, school subsidies, etc. Public works programmes such as food for work, cash for work, or a mix. Asset transfers such as agricultural inputs, fertiliser subsidies, asset transfers and microfinance
Social services	Distinct from basic services as people can be vulnerable regardless of poverty status – includes social welfare services focused on those needing protection from violence and neglect – e.g. orphans and vulnerable children, shelters for women, rehabilitation services, etc.
Social insurance	Health insurance, subsidised risk-pooling mechanisms – disaster insurance, unemployment insurance, etc.
Social equity measures	Equal rights/social justice legislation (including minimum labour standards), affirmative action policies, asset protection

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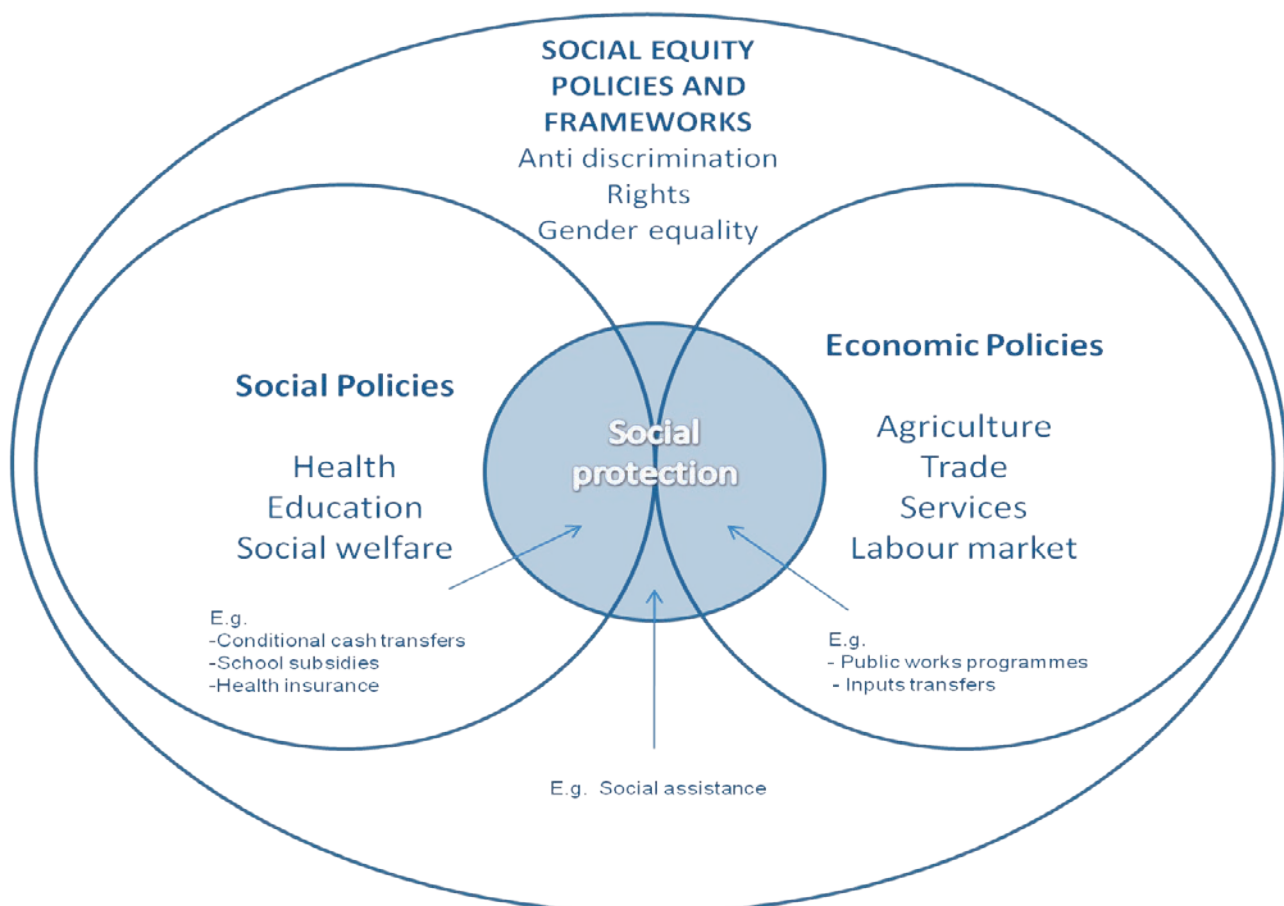
At the meso or community level, social risks can include an absence of voice in community dialogues and/or limited social capital.

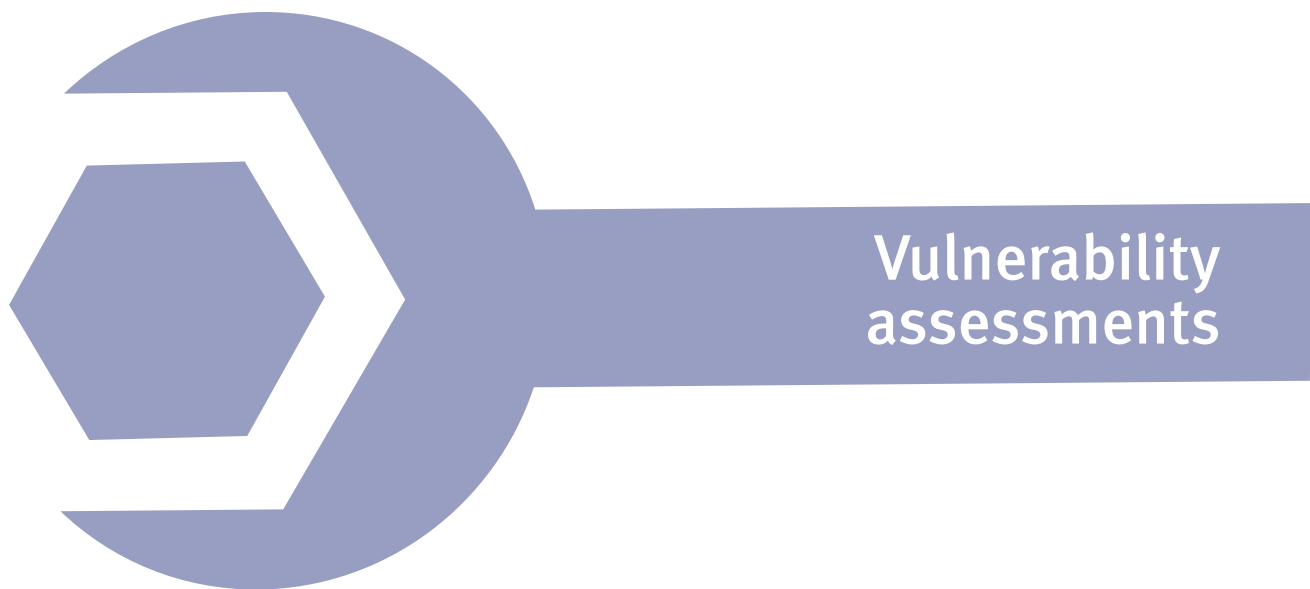
At the micro or intra-household level, a key source of social risk concerns a dearth of intra-household decision-making and bargaining power based on age and/or gender, and time poverty as a result of unpaid productive work responsibilities (such as involvement in family businesses or subsistence agriculture work) and/or unequal familial care work responsibilities (especially for children, the sick, the elderly). Weak intra-household agency may also leave children and especially girls, vulnerable to neglect, violence,

or abuse by family members or adults outside the household.

Vulnerabilities to economic and social risks are frequently intertwined, see figure 2. For instance, time poverty may preclude women from investing in the social networks often necessary for accessing income-generating opportunities. Or, unequal power relations in the household may prevent women from exercising their rights to productive assets. Understanding this intersection of social and economic risks is critical for poverty reduction programmes and the evidence base on gender, poverty and vulnerability needs to be reflected in vulnerability analyses of national development plans and poverty reduction strategies (see section 3).

Figure 2: Equity and social protection





Vulnerability
assessments



3. Why are gender-sensitive vulnerability assessments important?

Before designing any social protection strategy or programme, it is critical first to have a solid understanding of the key vulnerabilities – both economic and social – faced by people in a specific context. Vulnerability assessments are increasingly being undertaken to inform national development plans and social protection strategies. Too often, however, the gender dimensions of vulnerability are at best weakly reflected in programme design or at worst treated superficially or even overlooked altogether. This is problematic, because there is a strong body of evidence showing that the ways in which poor men, women, boys and girls experience poverty, and their capacities to deal with risks are distinct. Simple assumptions cannot be made about these differences, as the gendered patterning of poverty and vulnerability differs significantly across countries (see Box 1 for examples).

‘Girls are different. Boys play but girls help their mothers. Cooking, washing...boys are not the same’ (Married female, 30, Chanquil, Peru)

Men, women, boys and girls often experience economic and social risks differently. Due to gender norms and roles their vulnerability to the same risks can vary as can their exposure to different types of risks. When designing a social protection intervention it is important to consider how these experiences of different economic and social risks intersect at the individual, intra-household and community levels, and potentially reinforce one another, hindering the realisation of full human capabilities.

Economic risks can include the following:

- Gender-segmented labour markets, lower wages for women, and inadequate support for women (and often girls’) care responsibilities (for children, the sick, the elderly);
- Environment-related shocks (e.g. droughts, floods, deforestation and livestock fatalities) which play a major role in loss of assets and perpetuating economic vulnerability, including food insecurity to which women are particularly vulnerable, as well as exacerbating the time poverty of women and girls who are typically responsible for water and fuel wood collection;

- Expenses related to lifecycle events such as funerals and weddings;
- Costs of ill-health - sickness or death of a family member often emerges as one of the most important risks facing households. Moreover, the burden of ill-health often appears to be disproportionately shouldered by women on account of their caring roles, and the specific health risks they face in pregnancy and childbirth, and also because women’s assets are often the first to be sold in times of distress to meet healthcare expenses. Men and women may also have differential access to social health insurance (e.g. in Ghana, more men than women have registered for the National Health Insurance Scheme).

Social risks are often identified by women in particular as being as, or even more, important than economic sources of vulnerability. These include the following:

- Women and girls’ time poverty is frequently a significant concern: most women (and often in turn their daughters) are shouldering a double burden of productive and care work, with only minimal support from their male partners on domestic matters, because of traditional gender norms which dictate that household chores and child care are women’s responsibility;
- Women’s limited ownership of and access to productive assets and credit;
- Intra-household tensions, including physical violence, e.g. related to control over resources such as land and food, as well as decision-making (including about women’s and girl’s mobility outside the home);
- Limited opportunities for meaningful participation in formal and informal community institutions;
- Although not subject to the same intra-household stresses as women in male-headed households, single women often face multiple and heightened economic (owing to household labour constraints) and social vulnerabilities (including stigma and disproportionate care burdens).

Table 2 provides a more detailed overview of different types of gendered risks and vulnerabilities, with empirical examples. Many social protection

How to design and implement gender-sensitive social protection programmes

programmes are designed to have multiple objectives, tackling different gender-related risks.

Key elements of a gender-sensitive vulnerability assessment

In order to undertake a gender-sensitive vulnerability assessment the following steps should be undertaken.

First decide on the research tools to be used for the vulnerability assessment and ensure that the objectives and questions used adequately integrate gender considerations. Research tools could include:

- Household surveys;
- Key informant interviews with government officers, existing social protection staff, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) staff and donors;
- Focus group discussions (FGDs) with communities, both mixed sex and separate in order to ensure that women's and girls' voices are heard;
- Life histories with men, women, boys and girls at different points in the lifecycle;
- Community score cards;
- Secondary data analysis (including, for example use, of the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), the Multiple-Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICs), the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI), the UN Development Programme (UNDP) human development datasets as well as the poverty reduction strategy papers (PRSPs) and national development plans, although the extent to which sex-disaggregated and gender-sensitive indicators are available will vary considerably across countries.

Key gender-related themes to be considered include the following:

- **Employment and labour market risks**, such as unequal wages, employment insecurity, labour market segmentation and discrimination, unequal access to markets (especially in the context of mobility constraints), and lack of child care facilities;

- **Environmental risks** and the implications these have for livelihood opportunities, coping strategies and household roles and responsibilities of men, women, boys and girls;
- **Lifecycle-related stresses**, such as expenses related to marriages, births, or funerals;
- **Costs associated with ill-health**, and the ways these are distributed among men and women (e.g. do coping strategies have differential implications for assets owned by men compared with women?);
- **Time use patterns** between men, women, girls and boys, and how these are distributed between paid and unpaid work within and outside the household, as well as leisure time;
- **Intra-household balance of power and decision-**

Box 1: Poverty and vulnerability as a gendered experience

The gendered patterning of poverty and vulnerability across different countries is highly varied and much more complex than is often first assumed as these statistics illustrate:

- Chile: According to the Feminisation Index of Indigence and Poverty (Indice de feminidad de la indigencia y de pobreza) 123.9 women for every 100 men are living in poverty; and 132.2 when using the extreme poverty line (Veras and Silva 2010).
- Ethiopia: Data from the early 2000's suggest that whereas male households have greater consumption expenditure capacity, in terms of per capita food energy consumption, female-headed households score more highly (Lampietty, J. and Stalker, L. 2000).
- Ghana: Female-headed households, which represent 30% of the population, have significantly lower levels of poverty (19.2% vs 31.4%) (IFAD 1999).
- India: Women in India receive up to 30% lower wages than men in casual labour - and 2% lower for the same task (World Bank, 2009).
- Kenya: Although women's rural unemployment is lower than men's, women's urban unemployment rate is 37.6% vs. 13% for men (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics 2009).

Table 2: Types of gender-specific vulnerabilities

Type of vulnerability	Indicators	Gender-specific manifestations	Empirical examples
Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Income (low returns to labour, unemployment, low and irregular salaries, no access to credit) Intra-household inequality in access to land, rights and duties related to social standing, gender discrimination (access to productive assets) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Disproportionate numbers of women working in the informal sector In some contexts in the case of economic crises, women are the first to lose their jobs; in other cases, men may face higher unemployment as women are more likely to ‘accept’ lower salaries because women work ‘just to complement’ men’s income Lower income in household can result in malnutrition and women and girls eating less, and reduction in use of health care services and children’s education; Negative and corrosive coping strategies (limited positive opportunities especially because of lack of ownership and control over productive assets) such as trafficking and sexual exploitation (especially women and girls), child labour (especially boys) Domestic responsibilities increase for girls in response to mothers’ increased paid work responsibilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There are major gender biases in terms of access to agricultural extension services and inputs in Ethiopia. Having one of the highest ratios of agricultural extension staff to farmers globally, female access to extension services is relatively low: 28% of women reported weekly visits by development agents, whereas one-third had never been visited, compared with 50% and 11% of men, respectively. The Other Food Security Programme (OFSP) – an initiative that focuses on the provision of credit and subsidies for agricultural inputs – found that expenditure on men was up to three times as high as that on women in some regions. At a national level, women in India are less than half as likely as men to be employed: women represent only 19.3% of the total workforce. They are also less likely than men to receive cash wages or to receive any earnings at all. When they do receive wages, they are unequal: the wage differential between men and women for casual labour is 30% lower for women than for men – and 20% lower for the same task. In the case of poor households in Mexico, the monetary income of female household heads is only 57% of that of male-headed households In Pakistan, although the female labour force participation rate is 19.6%, men’s labour force participation rate stood at 69.5%. Pakistani women earned, on average, approximately \$1,050 per year, as against the \$3,082 per year earned by Pakistani men. In the agriculture sector, Pakistani women earn 59% of men’s wages.
Natural/Environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Natural disasters/human-generated environmental degradation (e.g. pollution, deforestation) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Women’s increased responsibilities and burdens in the face of environmental degradation and resource management Women at heightened risk owing to more insecure or inexistent property rights Women and children more vulnerable owing to physical and psychological features, and also possible spill-over economic vulnerabilities, as natural disasters may destroy family livelihoods Women often carry greater responsibility for food production and for compensating for reduced availability in times of crisis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In Bangladesh, where women are more calorie deficient than men, women have more problems recovering from the negative effects that flooding has on their health. An increase in the number of female-headed households (because of male out-migration) also amplifies women’s responsibilities and vulnerabilities during natural disasters. In Bangladesh, widowed and abandoned women are often particularly disadvantaged because of women’s vulnerable legal status and inability to protect legal entitlements to property and alimony; less than 10% of all women and less than 3% of younger women have their names on marital property papers (like rental agreements or titles to land or a homestead). Women in Indonesia are at particular risk of greater food insecurity – reducing their intake of food when food is scarce – as a result of their inferior social status and unequal allocation of resources within the household. During the drought and financial crisis of 1997/98, mothers of poor families responded by reducing their own dietary energy intake in order to feed their children better, resulting in increased maternal under-nutrition.

Type of vulnerability	Indicators	Gender-specific manifestations	Empirical examples
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Age-dependent requirements for care and support (infancy through to old age) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> When natural disasters render people homeless, women and children face increased threats on their physical security 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In Viet Nam, women lack equal access to land tenure (holding just 19% of Land Tenure Certificates) and equal access to agricultural credit and technologies.
Lifecycle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Family composition (high dependency, intra-household inequality, household break-up, family violence, family break-up) Extra-family violence, social upheaval, social exclusion and discrimination Gender discrimination (unequal access to productive assets, access to information, capacity-building opportunities) Social capital (access to networks both within one's community and beyond [bonding and bridging social capital], access to community support and inclusion) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Specific nutritional requirements (especially lactating women) Loss of employment owing to pregnancy and/or domestic and care responsibilities Widowhood affected by customary laws and assets transferred to other family members 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Bangladesh maternal mortality rate remains one of the highest in the world: an estimated 14% of maternal deaths are caused by violence against women, and 12,000 to 15,000 women die every year from maternal health complications. Bangladesh also has the highest rate of early marriage in Asia, and ranks among the highest worldwide: 48% of all girls between 15 and 19 years of age are married, divorced or widowed. In 2007, 42% of adolescents in the lowest wealth quintile had begun childbearing. In Pakistan, pregnant women receive 87% of recommended calories and lactating women receive 74%. The level of anaemia is high, with 26% of pregnant or lactating mothers suffering from iron deficiency.
Social and political	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender-based family and school/community violence Greater responsibility for care work discrimination Unequal allocation of food within the household along gender and generational lines Lack of access to income and control over productive assets; limited decision making at household, community and national level Fewer opportunities to access education and other capacity-building opportunities in some contexts Social norms which restrict mobility and in turn access to employment and social networking opportunities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Violence against women and girls in Ethiopia is widespread, including rape, abduction (often to avoid dowry payments), early marriage (which limits girls' educational opportunities and negotiating power within the household), familial violence, female genital mutilation (FGM) and trafficking. A World Health Organization (WHO) multi-country study showed that Ethiopia had the highest percentage of physical assaults of all 22 countries surveyed across the world, with 49% of women having experienced physical assaults by an intimate male partner. In some communities in Ghana, girls are raised by their paternal aunts, but in reality this often translates into their deployment as domestic workers. In many parts of India, purdah (the practice of separating women from men) limits women's mobility, access to health services and engagement in market activities. Only just under half of married women are allowed to go the market on their own and 40% are allowed to go with someone else. 15% are not allowed to go at all. In Mexico, 67 out of every 100 women 15 years or older have been victims of at least one type of violence. Violence is higher in urban areas against women with lower levels of schooling. In Peru between January 2004 and July 2007, at least 403 women were killed by their partner or ex-partner (an average of nine women a month), and 44% of murders occurred in the victim's house. The UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) also estimates that 6 of every 10 pregnancies in girls between 11 and 14 years old result from incest or rape. According to the Truth and Reconciliation Commission, 98% of victims of sexual violence during the internal conflict were women. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Violence against women and girls in Ethiopia is widespread, including rape, abduction (often to avoid dowry payments), early marriage (which limits girls' educational opportunities and negotiating power within the household), familial violence, female genital mutilation (FGM) and trafficking. A World Health Organization (WHO) multi-country study showed that Ethiopia had the highest percentage of physical assaults of all 22 countries surveyed across the world, with 49% of women having experienced physical assaults by an intimate male partner. In some communities in Ghana, girls are raised by their paternal aunts, but in reality this often translates into their deployment as domestic workers. In many parts of India, purdah (the practice of separating women from men) limits women's mobility, access to health services and engagement in market activities. Only just under half of married women are allowed to go the market on their own and 40% are allowed to go with someone else. 15% are not allowed to go at all. In Mexico, 67 out of every 100 women 15 years or older have been victims of at least one type of violence. Violence is higher in urban areas against women with lower levels of schooling. In Peru between January 2004 and July 2007, at least 403 women were killed by their partner or ex-partner (an average of nine women a month), and 44% of murders occurred in the victim's house. The UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) also estimates that 6 of every 10 pregnancies in girls between 11 and 14 years old result from incest or rape. According to the Truth and Reconciliation Commission, 98% of victims of sexual violence during the internal conflict were women.

Type of vulnerability	Indicators	Gender-specific manifestations	Empirical examples
<p>Health</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education/ information/ literacy • Political conflict, including forced displacement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender-based violence in the context of political conflict or war; single parenthood or widowhood as men join fighting forces or are killed in fighting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • According to the Truth and Reconciliation Commission, sexual violence (including rape, sexual slavery, enforced prostitution, forced nudity and forced abortions) was a common tool of war during Peru's 1980-2000 internal conflict. • Women in Viet Nam spend a disproportionate amount of time on household work compared with their male counterparts (an average of 7.5 hours compared with 30 minutes in rural areas, and 6 hours compared with 90 minutes in urban areas). Up to one-fifth of young women from ethnic minorities have never attended school. They also lag 10 percentage points behind their Kinh (majority ethnic group) and Chinese counterparts in secondary school enrolment.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Age-specific health vulnerabilities (e.g. infancy, early childhood, adolescence, childbearing, old age), illness and disability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Under three years especially vulnerable, access to immunisation, malnutrition, adolescence and child bearing • Pregnant and lactating women have specific nutritional requirements • Women face high mortality risks • Women are biologically more susceptible to some illnesses, such as sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) and HIV, and malaria while pregnant 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High fertility levels in Ethiopia (the total current fertility rate is 5.3%) is an important contributor to women's poor health status, with the number of women receiving skilled attendants at birth at just 6% and the adjusted 2005 maternal mortality ratio at 720 per 100,000 live births. • Increasing feminisation of migration in Ghana: women work as kayayei (porters) in urban centres like Accra as a strategy to overcome poverty, often living on the streets with little access to health care or sanitation facilities, facing harassment from male colleagues and security guards. They are particularly vulnerable to health risks like rape and HIV/AIDS. • Girl migrants to urban centres, like many of the kayayei girl porters, are especially at risk of engaging in commercial sex as a means of survival. • Mortality rates among children in India are highest among Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe households, and in rural areas girls have higher mortality rates than boys, increasing with age up to five. Part of the reason behind girls' higher mortality rates is the continued sex discrimination against girls. Women's low status and a preference for sons are a driving force for the unequal sex ratio and fuel female infanticide and girl child mortality rates • In Pakistan, the maternal mortality rate of 350-500 per 100,000 females has remained almost static for more than a decade. Female mortality rates of one to four year olds are 66% higher for girls compared with boys. One study finds that, even after controlling for household economic status and other factors, girls continue to be significantly less likely to receive measles and BCG vaccinations, even though these are supposed to be provided free of charge along with other childhood vaccinations. • The proportion of teenage pregnancies in Peru is five times higher in the poorest quintile in rural areas as compared with the richest quintile (48.3% vs. 10.8%). This raises by 30 percentage points the probability of girls neither studying nor working because of occupation in child care activities.

How to design and implement gender-sensitive social protection programmes

making, use of labour, and ownership and use of resources and assets, including productive assets;

- **Gender-based violence** at the intra-household and community-level, including the absence of safe spaces for women;
- **Gendered risks to the realisation of full human capacities** to health, nutrition, education and literacy (this would include an analysis of infant, child and maternal mortality and morbidity, stunting, educational attainment, literacy rates by gender);
- **Informal safety nets and coping strategies**, such as support from neighbours and friends, funeral societies, savings clubs, religious institutions, distress sale of assets, migration, and remittances sent by family members, access of loans;
- **Opportunities for participation** in social networks, local politics, and decision-making mechanisms related to social programmes;
- **Exclusion on the basis of a lack of civic documentation**;
- Similarities and differences on all of the above depending on **household composition** – whether it is a male-headed nuclear family, an extended

family, a female-headed family, a polygamous family etc.

Second, analyse and synthesise the findings from

In Ethiopia, men earn almost 3 times more than women in rural labour markets (Jones et al., 2010)

In India, women constitute two-thirds of the agricultural workforce, yet they own less than one-tenth of agricultural land (NAWO, 2008)

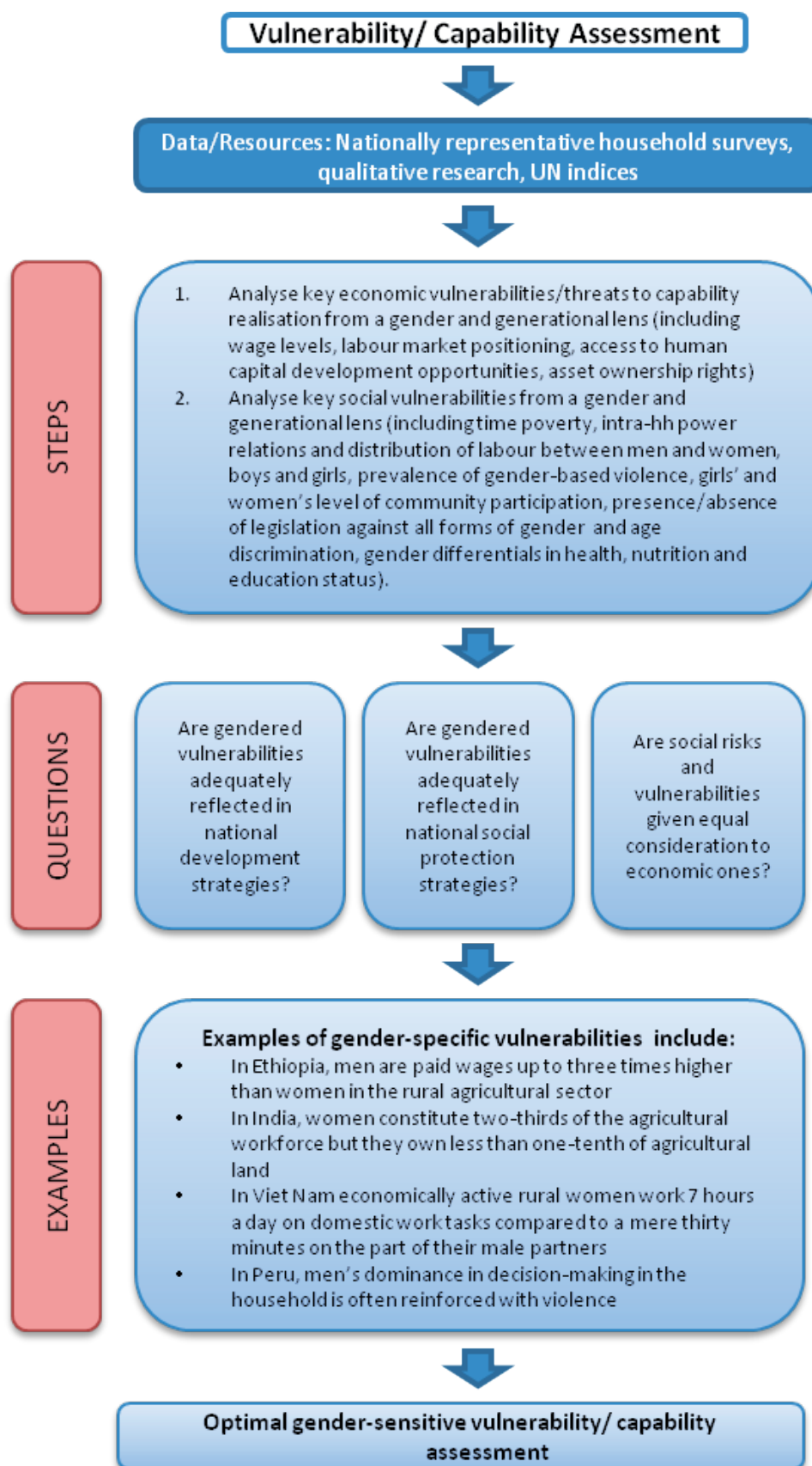
the vulnerability assessment so that gender-specific vulnerability profiles can be used to inform the design of social protection policies and programmes (see next section). These profiles can also be employed as a baseline against which to measure gendered impacts of social protection interventions over time (see Section 4 and especially Box 2 on M&E).

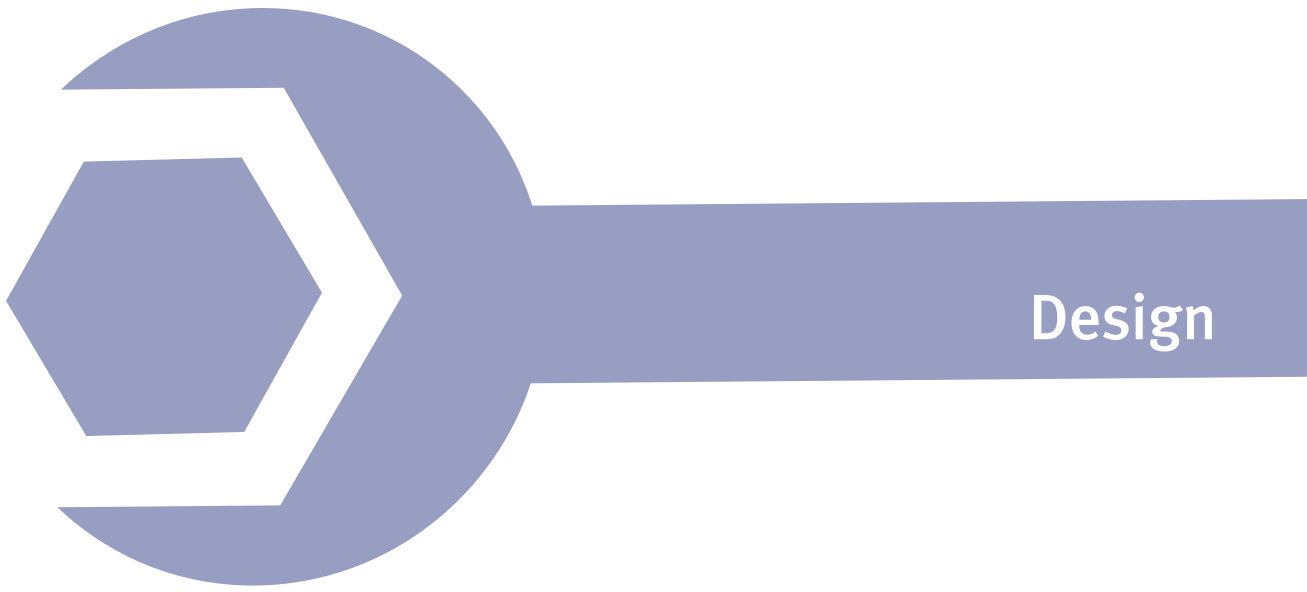
Figure 3 provides a simple decision-tree which synthesises the key steps for conducting a vulnerability assessment. See figure 7 for some caveats to bear in mind when using the decision tree tool.





Figure 3: Vulnerability assessment decision tree





4. What are the key elements of gender-sensitive social protection design?

The emergence of social protection has developed from diverse starting points in different countries and this has influenced the type of programme goals and the choice of instruments used in various contexts (discussed in section 5 on institutional priorities).

At the same time, despite substantial evidence on the gendered effects of shocks and stresses from the macro through to the micro level, as well as both national and international commitments to promoting gender equality, the design of social protection policies and programmes has rarely been informed systematically by such data and gender analysis.

Engendering the design of social protection, is important for a number of reasons. Without a gender lens, you risk the following:

- Making the assumption that, men and women, boys and girls experience the impacts of shocks and stresses in the same way and face similar types of risks;



- Failing to leverage national commitments and laws on gender equality;
- Undermining the potential for economic growth and progressive development outcomes that investing in gender equality and women's empowerment can bring about;
- Reinforcing women's traditional care and domestic roles and responsibilities in the household and/or limiting women's economic skills and participation in sectors with low growth and remuneration potential.

This section provides a set of tools to help design gender-sensitive social protection programmes which go beyond simply targeting women. Targeting women as recipients is an important first step. However, it is insufficient to increase women's social status within and outside the household (for instance by improving their bargaining or decision-making power, contributing to more equitable intra-household relations and improving women's self esteem). Relatively simple design features can be embedded in social protection programmes to harness more sustainable and effective progress in poverty reduction by transforming unequal gender relations, and supporting women's empowerment and improving the effectiveness of social protection. This section looks at three subsets of social protection instruments: cash and asset transfers, public works programmes, and subsidies. It provides guidance to think through gender gaps by answering five key questions in policy and programme design features. M&E and budget issues are discussed in Section 5 (Box 2 and Box 3).

1. Are gender inequalities addressed in programme objectives?
2. Does the choice of transfers, transfer modality, registration methodology and transfer delivery mechanisms consider gender constraints?
3. If there are programme conditions, are these gender-sensitive?
4. Are linkages to complementary programmes and services adequately institutionalised and gender-sensitive?
5. Is women's quality participation in programme monitoring and governance promoted?

Cash and asset transfer programmes

Social transfers, particularly cash transfers, are an increasingly popular response to poverty and vulnerability in low and middle income countries. Transferring cash directly to the poorest households not only supports income, consumption and human capital development but also has wider empowerment benefits as recipients are able to choose and prioritise their own expenditure. Other types of transfer programmes include asset or input transfers and in-kind transfers, such as food.

Most cash transfers target women, and in some cases this is intended to compensate mothers in their traditional role, to ensure that programme co-responsibilities are met and in recognition of the fact that they are most likely to ensure that increased household income benefits children. Transferring cash to women is also seen as a way to promote their control over household resources and to increase their bargaining power at home, although in many cases this has been an unintended and secondary effect of the programme. However, some authors have disputed the ‘gendered empowerment effect’ of the conditional cash transfer (CCT), arguing that the main limitation of CCTs is that they reinforce a utilitarian approach to women’s traditional role within the household. Women are ‘empowered’ only as guardians of children and as channels for child-centred policies, rather than being the focus of interventions to ensure wellbeing across the lifecycle (Jenson, 2009). There also tends to be a general assumption that economic independence will have positive spill-over effects on other dimensions of social exclusion, rather than thinking through and addressing causal pathways more systematically.

The following guidance on gender-sensitive design draws from three broad categories of transfers: unconditional cash transfer; conditional (or quasi-conditional) cash transfer schemes (drawing on example from Latin America and Ghana); and asset transfers (drawing on a programme in Bangladesh which mainly transfers livestock to the extreme poor in rural areas).

Ensure gender inequalities are addressed in programme objectives

- When designing cash and asset transfer programmes, ensure that the programme objectives include tackling key gender-specific vulnerabilities identified in the vulnerability assessment (see Section 3 above) and that the formulation of gender-

sensitive objectives is informed by a clear model of change:

- ~ Bangladesh’s Challenging the Frontiers of Poverty Reduction (CFPR), for instance helps tackle women’s particular vulnerability to extreme poverty, including a shortage of assets;
- ~ Colombia’s *Familia en Accion* includes women’s empowerment as one of its primary objectives.

Consider gender constraints in the choice of transfers and transfer delivery mechanisms

- Balance the trade-offs between ensuring that the collection of cash does not exacerbate women’s time poverty on the one hand and promoting increased mobility of women to collect cash from collection points on the other.
- Recognise that children may be brought up by different guardians according to some cultural traditions, and that cash transfers designed to support children’s human capital development, especially that of girls, may need to be ear-marked clearly to ensure that they benefit. For instance, in the Ghanaian context:
 - ~ In some communities in northern Ghana, girls are raised by their paternal aunts but in reality this often translates into their deployment as domestic workers. Cash transfers given to adult caregivers therefore risk not reaching them unless awareness raising efforts are undertaken to highlight the importance of all children’s right to an education.
- When transfers are targeted towards carers of orphans it is important that there is also awareness raising efforts about the importance of these children also having an opportunity to attend school.
- For asset transfer programmes, tailor the menu of assets offered to household needs and labour availability:
 - ~ Carry out detailed assessments of household and individual labour capacity in each household to carefully select the most appropriate asset for women to manage (e.g. Bangladesh);
 - ~ Support women to manage the care and profits from these assets over time, including their capacity to market their goods and to access income directly from their assets and income-generating activities;
 - ~ Recognise that socio-cultural barriers, such as a lack of decision-making power for adolescent girls and women on healthcare expenditures,



restrictions on female mobility, and cultural attitudes that reinforce power relations and perpetuate harmful traditional practices, need to be overcome to support access to basic social services (income alone will not be sufficient). See also below on complementary programmes and services.

- Sensitise recipients and household members about programme aims and objectives, including gender-related provisions, to avoid creating intra-household tensions:
 - ~ In Bangladesh, for example, programme officers discuss women's participation with male members of the family to build support for women taking part in the programme, their interaction with male staff members and increased mobility to attend meetings;
 - ~ In Lesotho's cash transfer programme, programme sensitisation ensured that both men and women understood how the household entitlement was calculated, and, in the few cases where men demand a share of the cash, they are only able to receive the allocation for one person (Slater and Mphale, 2008).

Design programme conditions / co-responsibilities which are gender-sensitive

- Where conditionalities are considered appropriate in a particular context, identify and design programme conditions to redress gender inequality and promote equality. This may be in terms of human capital development or even encouraging civic documentation:
 - ~ CCTs, for instance, provide financial incentives to send girls to school;
 - ~ Conditions may include preventing child protection vulnerabilities to which girls are especially vulnerable (e.g. worst forms of child labour, including hired domestic work, trafficking) (e.g. Ghana's Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme);
 - ~ Require households to obtain civic documentation (e.g. as in Peru's *Juntos* and Pakistan's Benazir Bhutto Income Support Programme (BISP)), which is positive for women and their offspring who may have struggled to gain access to services and public programmes owing to a lack of identity papers.
- Increase women's skills and knowledge:
 - ~ Bangladesh's CFPR does this directly, increasing

women's economic skills through intensive training and supervision given to the recipients to support their new livelihood activities.

- Ensure that caregivers' compliance with service access for children does not have detrimental time implications for women, by raising awareness of men's roles and responsibility in domestic and care duties, and monitoring caregivers' time spent on meeting conditional requirements (see Box 2 on M&E).

Institutionalise linkages to complementary programmes and services

- Establish a single registry database system to enable recipients of one programme to be linked to other social and economic programmes and services (e.g. as in Brazil's *Bolsa Família* single registry, which links across other ministries and departments) which meet their specific needs. Examples of single registry programme linkages include the integration of households into programmes for food security, housing, banking and credit services, judicial services, agricultural inputs and skills training programmes:
 - ~ In Peru, for instance, recipients must attend weekly training sessions. These also cover basic literacy skills: as a result, women can now sign their names and recognise their civic identification number and name on the register of the *Juntos* programme. These new abilities are highly valued by programme participants and diminish their sense of exclusion.
- Promote and institutionalise links to non-governmental programmes and services which provide, for example, legal advice and awareness-raising activities on women's rights.
- Utilise the interface between community and programme officers to raise awareness in the community about social development issues, gendered social risks and the importance of changing gender relations and gender discriminatory attitudes:
 - ~ Examples include awareness raising to strengthen women's decision-making, on gender-based violence and reproductive health (Peru), early marriage, the importance of a more egalitarian distribution of domestic and care work responsibilities, girls' school completion (Bangladesh) and breaking down barriers around perceptions of 'traditional' work (Ghana).

- Promote synergies with investments in additional infrastructure and services to maximise the benefits of transfers:
 - ~ An example is the creation of safe spaces for women in markets such as by constructing and/or improving common public facilities in ‘growth centre markets’ and including an exclusive area for women vendors in markets (World Bank, 2009);
 - ~ Strengthen the provision of basic quality services, such as health and education services and child protection services by, for example: addressing women’s mobility constraints through mobile clinics with female personnel; challenging discriminatory cultural attitudes through campaigns to discredit nutritional taboos during pregnancy; and promoting women’s right to quality reproductive health services.

Promote women’s quality participation in programme governance

- Promote innovative mechanisms to increase women’s social capital:
 - ~ In Bangladesh, for instance, women participate in the specially created Village Poverty Reduction

Committees, which include local village elites and staff of Building Resources Across Communities (BRAC).

- Invest in women’s leadership:
 - ~ The *Juntos* programmes in Peru and Colombia, for example, promote and strengthen women’s participation and leadership at the community level through the election of women as community facilitators, serving as a link between programme staff and recipients .
- Promote women’s quality participation in programme governance:
 - ~ Ensure meetings are held at a time when women are able to attend and in venues where they feel comfortable;
 - ~ Consider holding separate meetings with women to ensure their contribution;
 - ~ Set quotas for women’s participation and enforce them;
 - ~ Recognise women’s lower literacy rates and confidence, and support women’s active engagement in programme meetings through capacity building initiatives and/or mentoring.



Public works programmes

Public works programmes are public labour-intensive infrastructure development initiatives which provide cash, food, or input-based payments. Such programmes have a number of technical and political benefits. They provide income transfers to the poor and are often designed to smooth income during 'slack' or 'hungry' periods of the year and address shortages in infrastructure (rural roads, irrigation, water harvesting facilities, tree plantation, school and health clinic facilities). Public works programmes are typically self-targeting owing to the low benefit levels and heavy physical labour requirements (Subbaro, 2003). Additional benefits are found especially in programmes which integrate community involvement in the selection of projects undertaken with public works labour (such as infrastructure that is most needed by the community). This promotes a sense of community ownership of the asset as well as a greater likelihood of maintenance of that asset (World Bank, 2009).

As such, public works programmes have become a popular social protection response and increasingly reach a significant proportion of the poor. In India, the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA), is the largest rights-based public works programme in the world (it was legally

enshrined in the Indian Constitution in 2005 and now reaches almost 45 million households. Ethiopia's PSNP is another example of a large scale public works programme: put in place in 2004, it now reaches more than 8 million individuals.

The extent to which public works programmes have recognised women's role in the rural economy however, has been variable. As discussed in Section 3, some of the key gendered risks in the rural sector include lower participation rates of women in employment; unequal wages and payment in-kind (rather than in cash); limited access to rural finance and credit services as well as limited access to extension services; limited ownership of productive assets; less labour availability especially for female-headed households; greater time poverty because of unequal division of labour in the household resulting in women's time spent on domestic and care roles; unequal intra-household relations and limited bargaining power. Many of these risks are intertwined.

The following examples demonstrate ways in which public works programmes can be designed to overcome some of these risks and to support women's quality participation in rural labour-based social protection programmes.



“[Women’s entrepreneurship] can only be achieved if their ability to make decisions in the household is increased, if they are more able to move and communicate in the public domain and have increased knowledge and skills to reduce their vulnerability” (BRAC, 2009:4)

Ensure gender inequalities are addressed in programme objectives and targeting

Ways to ensure that public works programmes objectives address gender inequalities in the rural sector include:

- Ensure women’s participation in public works is promoted through quotas and appropriate targeting criteria at the individual or household level:
 - ~ In India quotas are set to ensure women represent one-third of all participants;
 - ~ In Ethiopia where female-headed households are among the poorest, quotas aim to ensure that they represent 50% of programme recipients at the village level.
- Incorporate innovative methods when developing targeting criteria which reflect the diversity of households. Households are typically targeted using national survey definitions (e.g. household members share a kitchen). Other targeting modalities should be explored to ensure that single women in extended households are entitled to employment, or that, in polygamous households, female-headed sub-units can independently participate in the programme.
- Pay equal wages:
 - ~ Reduce inequality in wages by avoiding payment based on male productivity norms – equal wages should be provided to both men and women, for example on the basis of hours worked. In addition, appropriate work should be assigned that is in accordance with an individual’s skills set and/or physical capabilities.
- Create assets which benefit both men and women:
 - ~ Give special consideration to creating community assets which reduce women’s time poverty, such as building fuel wood and water collection sources in closer proximity to the village (as is the case in Ethiopia);

- ~ Compensate for the labour shortage which is characteristic of female-headed households by utilising public works labour to support agricultural work on privately owned female-headed households’ land;
- ~ Incorporate broader definitions of community assets - other than infrastructure - which contribute to rural productivity. In the next phase of the PSNP in Ethiopia for example, community assets will include health extension work, adult literacy and HIV/AIDS awareness promotion.

Consider gender constraints in the choice of transfers and transfer delivery mechanisms

- Ensure women can access wages:
 - ~ Promote women’s access to financial services (e.g. opening bank accounts in women’s names or joint names [ensuring women’s access])

Design programme conditions / co-responsibilities which are gender-sensitive

- Support women to balance reproductive and productive activities:
 - ~ Provide safe community-based childcare facilities, ensuring that women feel confident leaving their children in these services;
 - ~ Give preference to women, especially single women, to work close to their residence (5km) so as to minimise threats of gender-based assault and violence, reduce transport costs and time burdens and facilitate care work responsibilities;
 - ~ Offer flexible working hours to accommodate domestic and care responsibilities.
- Pay attention to life-cycle vulnerabilities:
 - ~ Provide alternative employment or direct support (cash transfers with no work requirement) for women in the late stages of pregnancy and nursing.

Institutionalise linkages to complementary programmes and services

- Ensure complementary programmes and services are accessible by men and women which help address their gender-specific vulnerabilities:
 - ~ A centralised database or single registry system can support beneficiaries’ access to other programmes and services;
 - ~ Given that female-headed households are often more risk averse and may not take up credit packages, other types of programme linkages, for example social insurance (human and animal

health), may be more appropriate for some households;

- ~ Remove barriers which prevent women's access to productive inputs, credit and markets, such as hiring female extension workers, establishing savings clubs, and scheduling training sessions at times that women can manage and in venues where they feel comfortable.
- Institutionalise linkages to complementary services and programmes to promote gender equality:
 - ~ In Ethiopia, for instance, the Women's Development Package provision of Community Conversations discusses issues including early marriage, reproductive health risks (including teenage pregnancies and risk of HIV/AIDS) and gender-based violence;
 - ~ In India, civil society organisations provide essential services to promote awareness of participants' rights and entitlements within the programme.



Promote women's quality participation in programme governance

- Provide women with the opportunity to take on programme supervisory roles and support them with capacity development opportunities and/or mentoring, but carefully consider additional time burdens on women resulting from voluntary work.
- Promote women's quality and meaningful participation in programme governance:
 - ~ Ensure meetings are held at a time when women are able to attend;
 - ~ Set quotas for women's participation and enforce them;
 - ~ Consider holding separate meetings with women to ensure their contribution;
 - ~ Recognise women's lower literacy rates, language barriers and issues regarding confidence in relation to speaking in public arenas, and support women's active engagement in programme meetings through ongoing capacity development initiatives.

Targeted subsidies

The final set of social protection interventions is subsidised food and services. Subsidised goods and services are a sub-set of social protection interventions and include a wide range of objectives, such as goals to improve the real purchasing power of consumers, to address calorie and nutrient deficiencies and to assure social and political stability.

Food subsidy programmes usually offer staple food at a subsidised rate, often on a monthly basis, specifically targeted to poor households. Food subsidies have been a popular food security policy to address ongoing levels of food insecurity and malnutrition in many countries, for example in India and Pakistan, as well as a response to macro-level shocks to protect the poor from sharply increased food prices, as in Indonesia in the 1997/8 Asian financial crisis and more recently in the Philippines as a result of the 2008 food price crisis. Food subsidies can have important direct and indirect effects on household well being: given that the majority of total income in poor households is spent on food, the availability of subsidised food not only supports consumption but also can release household income for other expenditure, such as health and education expenses. Although the potential benefits from food subsidies are important, various studies have highlighted the challenges associated with the policy and the implementation of subsidies, including

Women's associations that meet regularly can improve women's empowerment and increase women's social capital, thereby leading to improvements in health, nutritional and educational outcomes for children, legal literacy and greater intra-household decision making. At the community level, such groups, where they are linked to awareness-raising initiatives, may also serve as a basis for wider political participation (Jones et al., 2007)

high rates of corruption, dilution of benefits among recipients because of targeting errors and leakages, late and unpredictable delivery and poor quality food (Pasha et al., 2000; Saxena, 2001; Hastuti et al., 2008). More recently, there have also been calls for reforming such food subsidies into cash transfers or other alternatives on the basis that subsidies are often entrenched in vested interests of particular groups and are a costly and inefficient mechanism to promote food security (see, for example, Cook, 2009; Farrington et al., 2004).

Targeted social services include subsidised access to social services such as education and vocational training, health, housing, agricultural extension, food security, childcare, and microfinance for the poor. Like food subsidies, subsidised access to services has a number of benefits, both technical and political. Key advantages include their pro-poor orientation and their focus on preventing the intergenerational transmission of poverty by facilitating poor households to access the critical basic services necessary for human capital development. Politically, targeted social services fit well in political cultures that have a strong emphasis on equity and endorsement of the state's role as guarantor of access to a minimum standard of living for all irrespective of wealth. This entitlement approach to basic services for all is often strongly supported by non-governmental actors and some international agencies (DFID et al., 2009). However, in other contexts, the non-conditional nature of fee exemptions and the costs involved in public service provision mean that such initiatives may meet with considerable resistance (e.g. Behrman, 2007).

Ensure gender inequalities are addressed in programme objectives

- A gendered vulnerability analysis should be carried out to help inform programme goals and objectives from a gender perspective:

- ~ Some food subsidy programmes specifically target women to address life-cycle vulnerabilities or to respond to labour market inequalities;
- ~ In Mozambique, for instance, the Food Subsidy Programme (PSA) specifically includes malnourished pregnant women in the eligibility criteria (Taimo and Waterhouse, 2007);
- ~ In Bangladesh, innovative responses to the food price crisis in 2008 included the recognition of women's disadvantages in the urban labour market and a price subsidy on cereal grains for women garment and tea workers as part of the government's larger response to rising food prices (Köhler et al., 2009);
- ~ Targeted social services generally do not have a direct gender focus, but typically have important gendered spill-over effects for example, subsidies can support girls education either directly or indirectly (e.g. through scholarships or freeing up income to be spent on education and other services). Estancias, in Mexico, for instance, does this indirectly by providing subsidies to mothers - often young single women - who want to continue studying;
- ~ Viet Nam's National Targeted Programme for Poverty Reduction (NTPPR) includes female-headed households as one of the targeted beneficiary groups.

Consider gender constraints in the choice of transfers and transfer delivery mechanisms

- Programme design should recognise the gender-specific barriers which may hinder uptake of social and productive services by women (and girls):
 - ~ For example, ensure that language barriers and social discrimination that ethnic minority girls and women in particular may face do not prevent them from accessing human capital and income generation opportunities;
 - ~ Recognise that socio-cultural barriers, such as a lack of decision-making power for adolescent girls and women on health care expenditures, restrictions on female mobility, and cultural attitudes that reinforce power relations and perpetuate harmful traditional practices, need to be overcome to support access to basic social services (income alone will not be sufficient);
 - ~ In the case of agricultural extension services, it is necessary to ensure that women are able to access such services through, for example, training and hiring female extension agents to facilitate home visits in societies where there is strict gender separation, and to ensure that



meeting places and times take into account women's domestic and care work responsibilities or mobility restrictions;

- ~ Where female-headed households may be more risk averse, alternative ways to support access to rural finances include promoting savings groups and investing in women's associations.
- Programme design should recognise that intra-household dynamics influence the allocation and distribution of resources, including food, within the household:
 - ~ Additional policy measures can be taken to promote a more equal distribution of resources within the household, for example targeting women and increasing women's empowerment, status and decision-making in the household.

“Poor women at meetings rarely express their ideas as they are afraid of being wrong and think that others will expect too much” (Female focus group, Soc Triet, Viet Nam, 2009)”

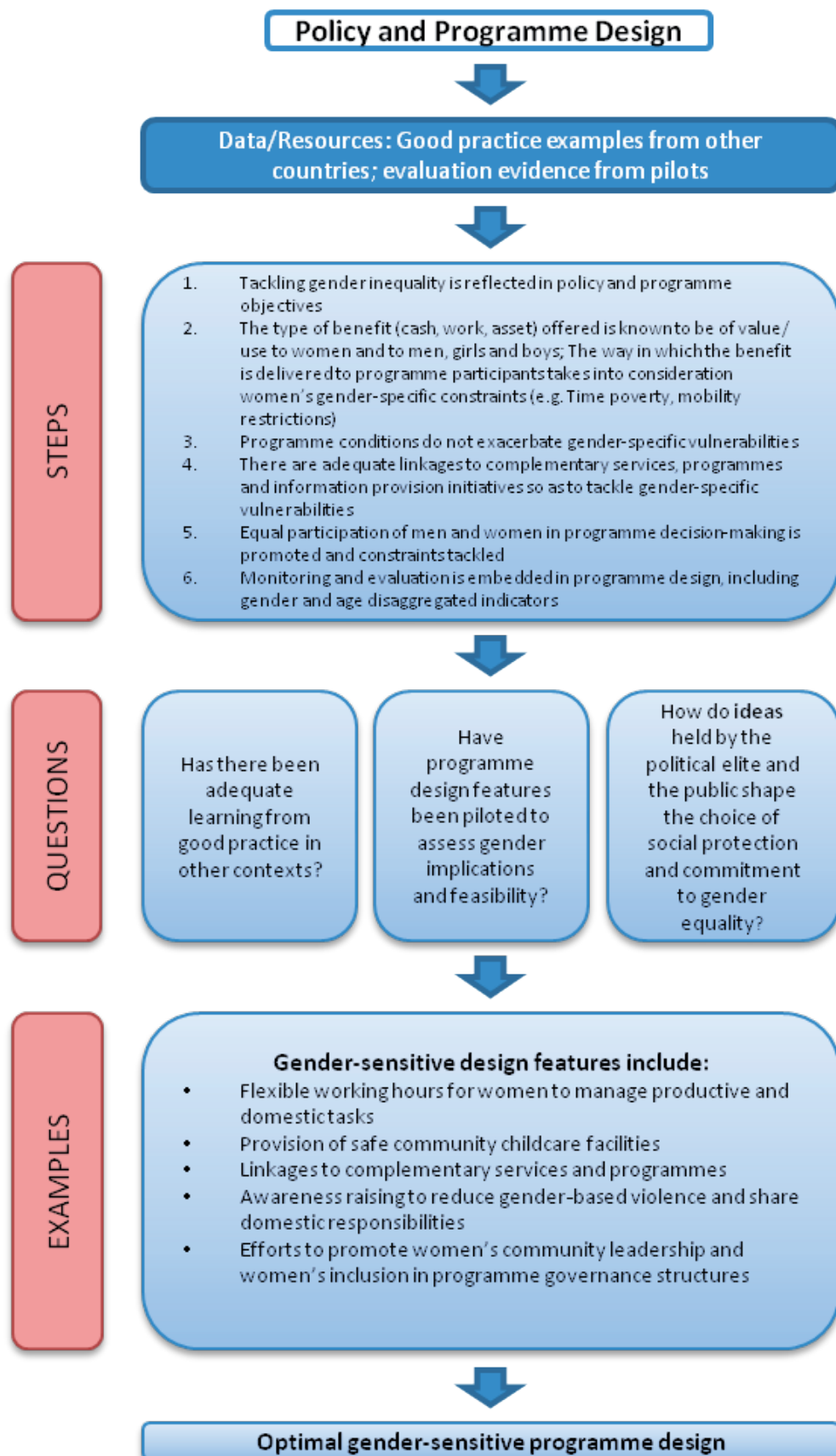
- In documentation and registration procedures for subsidised services, programmes should promote women's right to register in their own names.

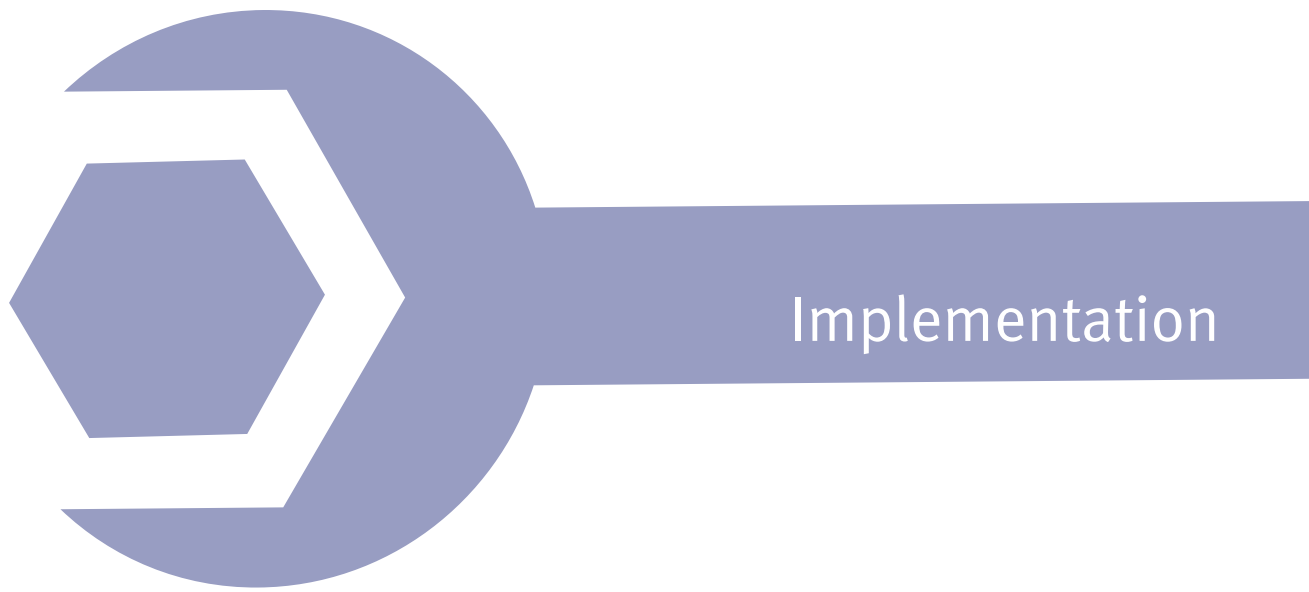
Promote women's quality participation in programme governance

- Promoting women's quality participation in programme governance can enhance the effectiveness and relevance of subsidised programmes for poor households:
 - ~ Ensure meetings are held at a time when women are able to attend;
 - ~ Set quotas for women's participation and enforce them;
 - ~ Consider holiday separate meetings with women to ensure their contribution;
 - ~ Recognise women's lower literacy rates, language barriers and issues regarding confidence, and support women's active engagement in programme meetings. For example, programme information needs to be disseminated in accessible ways, such as through local radios in community markets.

Figure 4, provides a simple decision tree which synthesises the key steps for designing gender-sensitive social protection. See figure 7 for some caveats to bear in mind when using the decision tree tool.

Figure 4: Gender-sensitive design decision tree





5. How can gender-sensitive design be translated effectively into practice?

Gender-sensitive programme design requires innovative thinking and a close dialogue between evidence on the gendered patterning of poverty and vulnerability and the choice of programme features. Implementing even well-designed programmes, however, necessitates grappling with what is often a very complex mix of politics, institutional mandates and ways of working, actor interests, socio-cultural attitudes and fiscal constraints. This section of the toolkit provides a set of tools designed to help programme implementers navigate this messy reality so as to be able to maximise progressive gender impacts at the individual, intra-household and community levels.

A useful framework for thinking about implementation challenges comes from the field of political economy and involves the so-called ‘3 Is’: Ideas, Institutions and Interests.

Ideas refer to those held by elites and the general public regarding poverty and its causes, the social contract between the state and its citizens (an agreement between citizens and state authorities about what goods and services the state should provide citizens in return for respect of the states sovereignty), and the merits of particular forms of state support.

Institutions include both formal and informal rules of the game (e.g. elections, political party systems, informal politics such as patron-client relations, M&E systems) and the opportunities or constraints they present for social protection policy and programme development.

Interests relate to the priorities of key actors, including political elites, bureaucratic agencies, donors and civil society champions, and the relative balance of power between them.

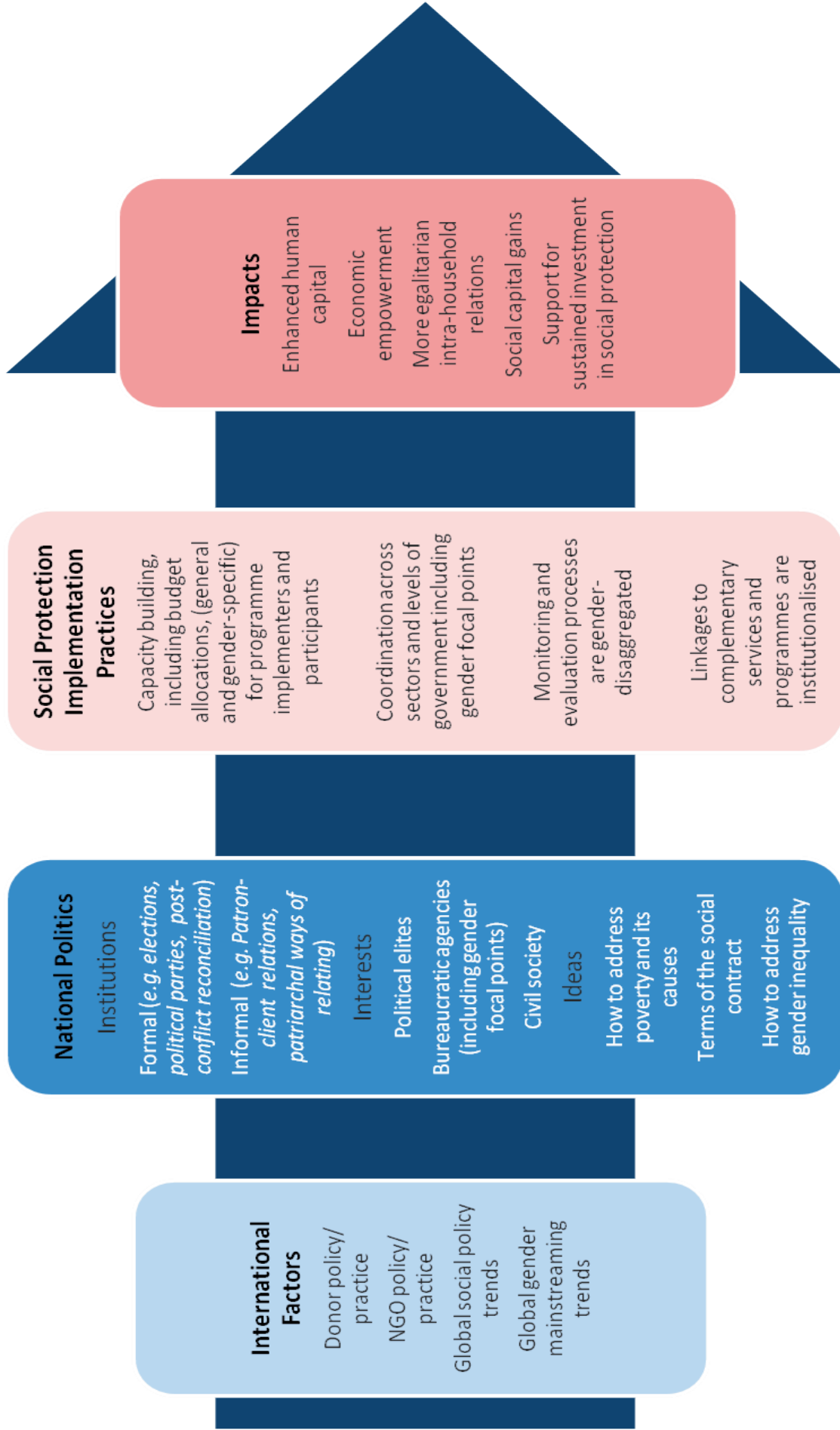
To date, the role of gender in shaping these ideas, institutions and interests has been largely overlooked by mainstream development actors. Accordingly, we use the following model (see Figure 3) to map the different levels of the policy context that need to be considered when implementing a social protection programme. Each of these dimensions – international factors, national politics, social protection implementation practices and programme impacts – is discussed below.

Ideas matter

Political economy analysts emphasise the centrality of ideas in shaping policy and programme outcomes. This is certainly the case with social protection whereby national social protection systems in different countries and geographical regions reflect a very wide range of ideas about poverty and its causes, the purpose of social protection and the role of the state in tackling gender inequalities. In Ethiopia and India, for example, large-scale public works schemes have been informed by public distrust of social protection interventions ‘that create dependence’ and public backing for the right of all citizens, including female-headed households, which are often believed to be especially vulnerable, to have access to work to support their families. Similarly, Ghana’s cash transfer programme, LEAP, and Mexico’s subsidised crèche scheme, *Estancias*, have been framed in terms of harnessing the productive capacities of all citizens, including women, to contribute to broader national economic development goals. Generally, however, support for a more comprehensive approach to tackling gender-specific vulnerabilities has been less common. Gender relations are often seen as the purview of individual families and/or cultural/religious



Figure 5: Mapping the policy context of social protection implications





groups and are therefore not an area in which the state should actively intervene.

“We talk, sometimes we take turns to do things. And women go out to attend several training sessions...We prepare children to go to school, help in the kitchen, look after livestock. (Did you perform this kind of activities before?) Some men, but mainly mothers did” (FGD Men Chanquil, Peru)

As discussed in the section above on programme design, public attitudes are often favourable towards programmes that help support women in their role as family care-givers (such as making sure children are educated, have a nutritious diet and are healthy). They are less well disposed towards programmes that seek to support women to demand and act on their rights as equal citizens, such as making decisions on an equal footing about household use of assets and resources, moving freely about the community without male permission, having access to training so that they are better informed and able to participate more



effectively in community decision-making forums and leaving children at public childcare facilities in order to generate their own income. Ideas about what sorts of work are appropriate for men and women, boys and girls, are often also deeply entrenched, and not easily amended through formal programme provisions. Similarly, notions about the fairness of affirmative action measures for women and especially female-headed households (e.g. being eligible for programme participation through quotas) tend to be highly contested. Examples include the fact that women are the primary targets of cash transfers, and that in public works programmes they receive direct support during maternity or are allowed flexible working hours so as to balance domestic responsibilities, as in the case of Ethiopia’s PSNP. As a result, the extent to which these measures are put into practice at the grassroots level is frequently very uneven.

What practical actions can be taken to work with, or reshape existing ideas?

Socio-cultural attitudes are never easy to change, but relying on formal programme prescriptions alone is unlikely to be adequate. As such, key steps that need to be undertaken are as follows:

1. Undertake an analysis of the specific cultural understandings of poverty, its causes and likely solutions; the relationship between citizens and the state, including the balance of rights and responsibilities on the part of both parties; and gender inequalities, their causes and the need (or not) for intervention:
 - ~ Data sources can include policy documents on social protection and gender equality, secondary research materials, media coverage of social protection issues and key informant interviews;
 - ~ Key questions to ask include: What are the main ideas? Who are the key actors who hold them? How widely shared are these ideas? What opportunities do they provide for advancing gender-sensitive social protection? What challenges do they present?
2. Synthesise findings from this analysis so that this can serve as an attitudinal baseline which can be referred back to as the programme is rolled out and scaled up. Findings should also be used for the capacity-strengthening and awareness-raising steps outlined below.
3. Develop a tailored capacity-strengthening kit about the gender dimensions of the social protection

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programme in question for programme implementing staff. Ensure that the kit provides questions and answers about gender-specific sources and manifestations of poverty and vulnerability, the rationale behind design features aimed at tackling gendered vulnerabilities, and ways in which progress on reducing these vulnerabilities can be monitored and assessed:

- ~ Ensure that there is adequate budget provision for developing the awareness-raising kit and for providing training to programme implementers using the kit materials;
 - ~ Include compliance with monitoring progress with regard to these programme gender provisions as part of implementing staff's regular performance assessment.
4. Develop awareness-raising materials targeted at communities and programme participants on the gender dimensions of the programme. These can include posters to be distributed at key community forums and meeting venues and oral modules which programme implementing staff can present to community members during programme-related group discussions. Short and simple messages using clear language is critical:
- ~ Ensure that there is adequate budget provision for developing and disseminating these materials;
 - ~ Include compliance with distributing these materials and sharing the information with community members as part of implementing staff's regular performance assessment;
 - ~ Pay particular attention to targeting men in the design of the materials, including through the strategic use of examples, and also ensure that adequate numbers of men are present when the programme's gender-related provisions are explained and discussed.

Institutional priorities?

Institutional factors play a key role in shaping how social protection strategies and programmes evolve in different country and local contexts. A wide range of institutional motivations have shaped social protection approaches in different countries. These include:

- Harnessing public works labour to promote environmental rehabilitation in Ethiopia's combined public works/social transfer (PSNP);
- Demonstrating a commitment to poverty reduction

in the run up to elections in the case of Ghana's (LEAP) cash transfer programme; and

- Responding to macroeconomic crises in Indonesia's *Raskin* rice subsidy programme;
- Establishing a cash transfer programme as part of Benazir Bhutto's legacy, in order to shore up political support among the rural poor in the case of Pakistan's Benazir Bhutto Income Support Programme (BISP);
- Redressing a legacy of political violence among impoverished communities in the case of Peru's CCT programme *Juntos*.

However, in only two cases does tackling inequalities feature as a primary programme objective: Bangladesh's (CFPR) programme, which aims to promote women's economic empowerment and in turn decision-making power within the household, and Mexico's subsidised crèche scheme, *Estancias*, which aims to increase women's participation in the paid workforce by supporting their care work responsibilities.

Other social protection initiatives frequently relegate gender-related goals to a secondary status. This is the case, for example, with cash transfer programmes that target women so that they can play a greater role in supporting their children's human capital development, and with public works programmes that promote women's participation but base the type of work undertaken on male norms of work. Alternatively, programmes neglect to tackle the gendered dimensions of poverty and vulnerability altogether. The latter is the case, for instance, with both Viet Nam's flagship integrated poverty reduction programme, (NTPPR) and Indonesia's *Raskin* rice subsidy programme, which fails to tackle the gender dynamics of food insecurity.

There are some common problems that help to explain this low prioritisation of gender inequalities. First, there is an institutional disconnection between the growing body of evidence on the gendered nature of poverty and vulnerability and policy and programme design. This owes in part to the weak linkages between governmental gender focal points and policy and programme designers; and to a largely technocratic approach to gender mainstreaming which does not support tailored and operational approaches to the systematic integration of gender. Second, these weaknesses are in turn exacerbated by an underinvestment in capacity building for programme



implementers, especially regarding the gendered rationale for programme provisions; and the general absence of gender-sensitive indicators in programme M&E and learning systems.

In addition to formal institutions, political economy frameworks also emphasise the important role of informal institutions and the need to pay attention for instance to patterns of patron-client relations. Although some social protection programmes have been established specifically to correct historical tendencies towards clientelism in the social sector and to establish more transparent and accountable modalities of social protection programming (as was the case with the establishment of *Juntos* in Peru), implementation practices often continue to be shaped significantly by informal politics. In Indonesia, targeting of the *Raskin* rice subsidy programme has been uneven as village heads have faced and often succumbed to pressures from villagers to provide subsidised rice to a much broader section of the population. Additional challenges typically emerge when attempting to implement programmes with gender-related goals, as clientelistic ways of working are often combined with patriarchal practices, such as making decisions that favour so-called old boys networks and/or exclude women because it is assumed that their appropriate role is in the home rather than in community management. For example, in India's public works schemes single women have sometimes been turned down from labour opportunities as local authorities have deemed that they either 'look too weak' or lack a male partner to

'Decision making is very challenging as government officials are predominately male. Getting women's perspectives heard in political struggles is a continuous struggle... There is lots of mischief by men - deliberately excluding women from committees' (Director of the Women's Association [a quasi-NGO], Mekele, Tigray, Ethiopia, 2009).

carry out the requisite labour tasks. Some local officials have also advised men not to open bank accounts in their wife's names even though this is encouraged by the MGNREGA programme.

What steps are needed to engage effectively with formal and informal institutions?

In order to minimise institutional resistance towards gender-sensitive programme provisions and to maximise institutional opportunities to cement commitment (in terms of both rhetoric and resources) to gender-related programme aims, it is essential to begin with a simple institutional mapping exercise. This involves the following steps:

1. Undertake an analysis of the main formal and informal institutions and events shaping high-level decisions about national development and the role of social protection:
 - ~ Data sources can include political party and



Box 2: M&E Indicators for gender-aware social protection

Sex-disaggregated data on programme participation and impacts are generally very weak in social protection M&E processes. Addressing this weakness is critical in order to determine whether or not social protection is effectively reaching poor and vulnerable men, women, boys and girls, and addressing the critical constraints they face in securing a sustainable livelihood and general well being. The list below provides examples of possible gender-sensitive indicators at the individual, intra-household, programme governance and community levels.

Programme participation

- What percentage of programme participants are men? Women? Boys? Girls? If there are gender and age differences, what explains this?
- If programmes are targeted towards households, what percentage of beneficiary households are female-headed? Male-headed?
- Are there provisions for women living in other types of households, such as polygamous households, extended family households?

Receipt and use of programme benefits

- How many men, women, boys and girls access subsidised goods and services? If there are gender differences, what are the key reasons? Domestic/care work responsibilities? Time poverty? Socio-cultural attitudes? Lack of interest? Lack of confidence?
- In the case of cash transfers, do women get to control the use of the income?
- In the case of asset transfers, can women sell the assets and produce and keep the profits?
- To what extent has involvement in the programme helped women meet their household food provision responsibilities? (not at all, somewhat, significantly) Healthcare uptake? Carework responsibilities?
- Have gains in children's human capital development (school enrolment and achievement, nutritional status, health status, birth registration) been equal among boys and girls or have there been gender differences? If so, were these differences intended as part of programme affirmative action (e.g. increased transfers to promote girls' secondary education) or unintended?

Intra-household impacts

- How has programme participation changed gender relations, if at all? More respectful relationships? More egalitarian division of labour? More egalitarian control of assets? More egalitarian control of income? More joint decision-making about and care for children? More or less intra-household tensions? Physical violence?
- Have men's and boy's attitudes about gender division of labour changed? In what ways? What about their practice?
- How many hours do men, women, boys and girls spend - before and after programme participation - on domestic and care work tasks, productive tasks, community meetings?
- If there has been an increase or decrease what explains this? Greater decision-making power within the household owing to economic independence? Awareness-raising programme component?

Community-level impacts

- Has programme participation resulted in greater participation of women in community meetings (e.g. to discuss the choice of community assets to be invested in) and do their voices influence decision making?
- Has programme participation resulted in greater interaction by women with local authorities as part of increased citizenship?
- Has programme participation resulted in an increase in collective action by women? If so, what?



Programme management

- What percentage of programme implementers are male? Female?
- What level of gender-sensitive training have they had? None? Short-course? Regular training?

Programme governance

- How many men and how many women participate in community discussions about programme governance? What types of contributions do men make? Who is more influential and why?
- If fewer men or women participate, what are the reasons? Time poverty? Time of the day when meetings are held clashes with other responsibilities? Lack of interest? Lack of confidence?
- How many men and how many women access the appeals process? Do the outcomes differ by gender in any way? What explains why men do or do not access the appeals process? And women?

Complementary services and programmes

- Have men, women, girls or boys accessed complementary services or programmes, in addition to receiving the benefits of the core programme?
- What sorts of programmes? Violence prevention? Skills training? Awareness raising about gender and citizenship rights? Micro-credit? Agricultural extension? Legal aid? Birth registration? Health insurance?
- Were these programmes run by NGOs or government agencies?
- Through what mechanisms were these linkages to complementary services and programmes made? Single registry system? Community notice-board? Awareness raising by programme implementers during community discussions?
- Have women's income generating skills been enhanced? Agricultural productivity levels?
- Have women gained increased knowledge about their rights and options to address violations of these rights as appropriate?
- Have men gained increased knowledge about gender equality issues through awareness raising initiatives?

Budget provisions

- Are there budget provisions for gender-sensitive programme provisions – such as childcare facilities, direct cash support for maternity?
- Are there budget provisions for capacity training of all programme implementers on gender-related programme dimensions?
- Are there budget provisions for community awareness raising programmes about gender provisions?

Specific questions on public works

- In public works programmes, do men and women undertake the same type of work?
- Are there equal wages for men and women?
- Which household members are working on public works schemes? How many days per month? Doing which activities? Do these individuals get paid directly? Get a say over how the income or transfer is used?
- What benefits do men, women, boys and girls derive from community assets built by public work labour? How are these benefits distributed?
- Is there an investment in developing assets which reduce women and girls' time poverty such as water and fuelwood collection points?
- Are childcare services provided as part of public works programmes adequate and accepted by parents as a suitable care option for their children?
- What impact do public works programmes have on men and women?

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policy documents on social protection and gender equality, secondary research materials, media coverage of social protection issues and key informant interviews (especially in the case of mapping informal institutions).

~ Key questions to ask include:

- * Are elections forthcoming and is social protection on the agenda? If so, how is it being framed? Is social protection part of the ruling party or opposition party's political platform? How is the motivation for social protection couched?
- * Is there any recent evidence on poverty and vulnerability that is likely to propel a response from the government that could include social protection (e.g. the latest living standards survey or PRSP mid-term evaluation or unemployment statistics in the context of a macro-economic crisis)?
- * Are there likely to be tensions between formal programme aims and informal institutional rules and practices (e.g. clientelism, pre-existing social tensions in a post-conflict setting)?
- * Given this broader institutional environment, are there any likely points of resistance in implementing gender-related programme provisions (e.g. fiscal constraints, negative public attitudes towards international agencies which may be seen as supporting social protection initiatives, resistance by local authorities or traditional and religious leaders in supporting national level policy prescriptions)?
- * And what about opportunities (e.g. is there a forthcoming international event that the country is hosting where it would be opportune for the country to be seen to be advancing gender equality)?

2. Synthesise findings from this simple mapping exercise so that they can inform the development of a feasible and strategic implementation action plan with regard to gender-related programme provisions, one which takes account of institutional priorities.

3. Develop an implementation action plan which includes a set of gender-sensitive progress M&E indicators. The gender-sensitive design features are unlikely to be implemented fully in the immediate term, so it is important to establish a number of progress milestones. One possibility would be to select a number of pilot districts in which to

concentrate implementation efforts, and gradually expand coverage over a period of months or years.

4. A list of possible gender-sensitive indicators designed to measure progress over time, starting with a baseline study, with regard to individual-, intra-household- and community-level impacts is provided in Box 2 and should be tailored to the specific programme context and design before finalising.
5. In order to track and monitor the level of resources allocated to the implementation of gender-related programme provisions, simple gender-sensitive budget monitoring tools could also be usefully applied (see Box 3).
6. Particular attention should be paid to not just the quantity but also the quality of men's and women's participation in programme governance structures as community voice and agency are key to holding institutional elites accountable for delivering on stated social protection goals to tackle poverty and vulnerability.
7. Given that many countries suffer from a weak evidence-based institutional culture, it is also critical to advocate for the investment of adequate financial and staff resources so as to develop and bed down a robust M&E and learning system. At the national level, evaluation findings disaggregated by gender could be posted on the lead ministry's website (as is the case with Mexico's Ministry of Social Development and Labour).

Stakeholder interests regarding social protection differ

The range of stakeholders' involved in social protection is diverse, including:

- *Political, social and economic elites* which play a key role in setting the terms of the agenda;
- *Government agencies* with responsibility for delivering social protection objectives (typically spanning a range of ministries, including social welfare, women and children's affairs, labour, health, food security bureaus and rural development);
- *Civil society organisations* working with or acting on behalf of the poor – both international (e.g. International NGOs such as Action Aid, HelpAge, Save the Children, Oxfam) and national; and
- *Bilateral donors* (e.g. the UK Department for



International Development [DFID], the Australian Government [AusAID], German Development Cooperation [GTZ], and *multilateral agencies* (especially the World Bank and UN agencies such as the International Labour Organisation [ILO], UNDP, UNICEF, the UN Development Fund for Women [UNIFEM]).

Despite there being more and more good practice examples of cross-agency cooperation¹, not surprisingly these actors have a range of different interests in promoting social protection, and differing degrees of influence and capacities in particular contexts. A careful mapping of this complex landscape, including a recognition that these different actors are themselves not homogeneous and may have varying interests, is critical for assessing the opportunities for and potential obstacles to the integration of gender into the social protection agenda.

- First, political elites often initiate social protection programmes to further their own institutional aims. This can include demonstrating a commitment to a strengthened social contract between the state and

the citizenry (as is the case with India's (MGNREGA), which represents the state's commitment to fulfilling the right of all citizens to earn a liveable wage) and promoting social cohesion, especially in times of political flux (as is the case with Peru's *Juntos* cash transfer programme which was motivated in part by a desire to promote national reconciliation following decades of political violence). The impacts of social protection programmes are also often hampered by political elites to support their own goals (see Box 4).

- Second, the interests of government agencies also influence social protection trajectories to a significant extent. The lead agency for social protection strategies often plays a key role in shaping the relative priorities accorded to different social protection goals. Where ministries of social welfare, women and children lead, there is generally more scope for attention to gender inequalities, although the ability to operationalise this can be limited by the capacity constraints that these agencies typically face in coordinating with other more powerful government agencies. Where ministries of rural development are the lead agency, gender dynamics tend to be a lower order priority and this is typically exacerbated by the limited integration of a gender perspective into their ways of working, weak linkages to gender focal points and a general lack of funding for capacity building for programme implementers around these issues. How government agencies interact with other

1 This is evidenced for instance, by the *OECD-DAC Policy Statement on Social Protection and Gender*, the *Joint Statement on Advancing Child-Sensitive Social Protection* (DFID et al., 2009) and the *Social Protection in Africa: Where Next? A Joint Statement* (IDS et al., 2010)



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Box 3: How to do gender budget analysis?

The aim of gender budget analysis is to understand the level of budget allocations and expenditure on gender-specific policies and programmes. To do this, the following five step approach is suggested:

1. Analysing the situation of men, women, boys and girls;
2. Assessing the gender responsiveness of policies;
3. Assessing budget allocations;
4. Monitoring spending and service delivery;
5. Assessing outcomes.

Following the recommendations of the gender-sensitive analysis of social protection detailed in this toolkit, steps 1 and 2 would already be undertaken. Gender-sensitive budget analysis would therefore start in step 3 analysing gender-responsive budget allocations, it is important first to identify the gender-responsive policies and programmes towards which resources should be allocated, as well as identifying the gaps in policy responses which have not addressed the different needs of men, women, boys and girls. Once these are identified, it is then necessary to assess whether budget resources have been allocated to implement such policies and programmes. This can be challenging, given that often the necessary data are simply not available. Nevertheless, although some countries' budgets may tell very little, even the simplest tables sometimes expose serious imbalances. The documents that accompany the budget figures can also be revealing.

Assessing budget allocations

Once the background of the gender-responsive situation and policy analyses has been undertaken, the focus shifts to the budget itself. The main aim is to see whether budget allocations are adequate to implement the gender-responsive policy identified. If the policy analysis reveals that policy is gender insensitive, or may even exacerbate gender inequality, budget analysis can be used to reveal the extent to which funds are being misallocated. The main source for this information is the budget document itself, which has different formats in each country but is always developed on an annual basis. The budget may be structured in different ways, for example by function, accounting category and programme. Tabulations by programme are the most useful for gender budget analysis, especially if they contain information about objectives and indicators. In addition, governments often table documents that discuss the performance of ministries over the past year and plans for the coming year. These, together with the budget speech, assist in analysis of the budget figures.

Monitoring spending and service delivery

The types of data needed for gender budget analysis can be divided into three broad categories:

- i. Inputs measure what is put into the process (e.g. the amount of money budgeted or the staff allocated for a particular programme or project).
- ii. Outputs measure direct products of a particular programme or project (e.g. the number of recipients receiving medical services or the number of clinics built).
- iii. Outcomes measure the results of the policy or programme (e.g. increased health, educational levels and availability of time).

It may be useful to collect and analyse data in terms of crosscutting indicators of gender responsiveness of budgets. Some examples of gender budgeting indicators might include:

- The share of total expenditure targeted to gender equality programmes;
- The share of expenditure devoted to women's priority needs from public services;
- The share of expenditure devoted to gender units within each ministry, and/or to the ministry in charge of women's affairs;
- The share of expenditure on income transfers devoted to women's priorities (e.g. child support grants to caregivers of young children in poor households);
- The share of expenditure on income transfers devoted to women's priorities (e.g. child support grants to caregivers of young children in poor households);
- Gender balance in business support, such as subsidies, training or credit provided by ministries of agriculture and trade and industry;
- Gender balance in government training programmes.

Source: Budlender and Hewitt (2003)

Box 4: Diverse elite motivations for supporting social protection

In Ethiopia, the ruling party has been able to consolidate popularity among the rural poor as a result of the highly visible PSNP (Jones et al., 2010). While Brazil's successful Bolsa Familia programme has helped the Workers' Party-led government to cement its role as an emerging global power by providing an effective platform from which to lead an initiative on South-South learning. Furthermore, in many cases, even though gender equality concerns are secondary to overall programme aims, governments have often been happy to claim responsibility for progressive gender outcomes, whether it be the increased participation of women in Ethiopia and India as a result of public works programmes, enhanced capacities of female caregivers to support their children's development in Latin American cash transfer programmes, or supporting women's role in ensuring adequate food consumption in the case of Indonesia's *Raskin* programme.

political players, such as the legislature, may also matter, especially in cases where social protection policies become enshrined in law (as has been the case with India's MGNREGA).

- The third key group of actors to consider is civil society. In the African and Asian contexts,

international NGOs have played an important role in influencing social protection discourse. The focus on gender equality has not been as strong as could be expected, however, in large part because of the primary focus on age-based (Save the Children, HelpAge) and spatial (e.g. Oxfam's work on pastoral communities) exclusion and vulnerability. In Latin America and South Asia, domestic civil society organisations have been relatively more influential, especially in Bangladesh, where BRAC has undertaken path-breaking work in social protection programming aimed at supporting women's productive and social capital. Yet although some gender equality champions (e.g. in Bangladesh, India and Peru) have played a part in ensuring, for instance, equal wages for women, sensitivity to women's time poverty, and an emphasis on forging linkages with complementary programmes that tackle socio-cultural forms of gender discrimination, gender equality activists have been much less prominent than in other areas of public debate, such as on political participation, or human and labour rights (see Box 5).

- Finally, donors, especially in the sub-Saharan African context, have become critical actors in the social protection field. Although the focus has largely been on social protection as a tool to help the poor and



Matrix 1: Stakeholders power and assets in poverty reduction and gender in Viet Nam

Stakeholders	Tangible assets	Intangible assets	Power
Poor women and men			Low
Local authority	Infrastructure, implementation machinery Access to information, policy guidance	Age and seniority	High
Department of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs / Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs	Access to information, policy guidance	Legitimacy and authority in policy process (design and decision making on programming)	High
Ministry of Finance	Access to information, policy guidance	Legitimacy and authority in policy process (on financial resources)	High
Ministry of Planning and Investment	Access to information, policy guidance	Legitimacy and authority in policy process (on overall design of the programmes)	High
Extension agents / Department of Agriculture and Rural Development / Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development	Large number, Formal organisation	Ability to withhold services or ignore directives	High
School / teachers / Ministry of Education and Training	Large number, Formal organisation	Ability to withhold services or ignore directives	Medium
Health care / workers / Ministry of Health	Large number, Formal organisation	Ability to withhold services or ignore directives	Medium
Social Policy Bank	Financial	Ability to withhold services or ignore directives	High
Women's Union	Large number; Formal organisation	Access to evidence and ability to say yes or no in terms of preferential credit	Low
Committee for the advancement of Women / National Committee for the Advancement of Women	Access to information	Access to decision makers	Low
Social Affairs Committee of the National Assembly	Access to information	Being decision making body	
Farmers' Association	Large number, Formal organisation	Access to evidence and ability to say yes or no in terms of preferential credit	Low
International and local NGOs	Expertise	Access to evidence	Low
Donors	Financial	Access to decision makers Lobbying capacity	High

...

Box 5: Women's limited influence in social protection debates

By and large, women's movements have not been sufficiently adept at moving away from their more traditional policy strongholds (e.g. women's economic empowerment, gender-based violence, political representation) and strategically influencing new programme areas, such as social protection. Possible reasons include a general tendency for gender equality movements to pay relatively less attention to issues affecting the poorest; the narrow income and consumption focus of many social protection programmes which sidelines key social risks and vulnerabilities (such as women's time poverty stemming from disproportionate care work burdens and gender-based violence); the tendency for women's organisations to initiate and implement their own protection programmes; and capacity deficits intensified by funding pressures which have served to keep women's NGOs in narrow silos rather than facilitating their ability to engage effectively with cross-sectoral issues such as social protection.

vulnerable harness the benefits of economic growth (e.g. DFID, GTZ, ILO, World Bank), UNICEF and UNIFEM have sought to highlight the importance of equity, social inclusion and citizenship rights. However, with the exception of UNIFEM, which remains a very small player in the field, gender dynamics have received limited attention to date among donor agencies working on social protection. This reflects a

general weakness in gender mainstreaming outside a few key sectors in the donor community. Although this situation is gradually changing, especially with regard to exploring the potential of social protection instruments to enhance girls' educational achievement and girls' and women's reproductive health in the context of the broader MDG agenda, gender considerations have yet to receive adequate resources, hindering a more systematic approach to tackling gender inequalities.

How can stakeholder interests best be assessed and managed?

In order to maximise synergies across like-minded actors and to effectively manage tensions between actors with divergent interests, it is again important to undertake a mapping exercise. In this case the aim is to map the key actors involved in social protection debates and programming, their relative influence and capacities and the source of their influence.

1. Undertake an analysis of the main social protection stakeholders from the four clusters of actors outlined above: political elites, government agencies, civil society and donors/ international agencies. Fill out the matrix below (following the example from Viet Nam presented in Matrix 1). In contexts where there is a high degree of decentralisation, a separate matrix at the sub-national level may also be useful:



How to design and implement gender-sensitive social protection programmes

- ~ Data sources can include policy documents on social protection and gender equality, secondary research materials, and key informant interviews;
 - ~ Key questions to ask include: Who are the main actors involved in social protection strategy development and implementation? What are their main interests with regard to social protection, and in particular social protection as a tool to tackle gender-specific vulnerabilities and risks? How influential are they? What is the source of their influence? Tangible assets such as budget resources, membership base, access to information? Or intangible assets such as legitimacy, socio-cultural authority, historical legacy?
2. Next assess to what extent the interests of the actors identified in the stakeholder mapping exercise align with yours. Use an alignment-interest-influence matrix which has two axes – degree of alignment on gender-sensitive social protection aims (high to low) and level of relative power in the policy process (high to low). Refer to Matrix 2.
 3. Synthesise findings from this stakeholder mapping exercise so that they can inform strategies for partnership development, joint advocacy and policy-influencing related to gender-sensitive social protection. This synthesis should also address the following questions:
 - a. What types of coordination mechanisms exist across sectoral line ministries involved in social protection strategy and programme implementation?
 - b. What types of coordination mechanisms exist between governmental gender focal points and line ministry staff responsible for social protection?
 - c. What types of dialogue opportunities are there for governmental and non-governmental actors involved in social protection initiatives to exchange views and programme experiences/promising practices? To what extent do these spaces include gender equality champions?
 - d. What types of spaces are there for communities to engage in dialogues about social protection needs, programming experiences and local-specific challenges (e.g. particular community tensions of which programmers should be aware) with programme designers and local authorities?
 - e. How can powerful, yet uninterested stakeholders be persuaded? And, how can stakeholders with low power and high interest be leveraged and used to advocate with high power stakeholders?
 4. If these coordination mechanisms and dialogue opportunities are absent, then a useful next step would involve brainstorming about possibilities to create such mechanisms, and potential allies who could assist with this. Given the multi-dimensional aims of social protection and the fact that its implementation typically necessitates the involvement of a range of sectors and actors, addressing coordination deficits is of critical importance.
 5. Finally, in order to monitor the commitment of different stakeholders involved in the rollout of social protection interventions, simple gender budgeting tools could also be employed to evaluate the relative level of resources devoted to gender-related dimensions of a given programme. This could include, for example, tracking resources devoted to affirmative action measures for women and girls, to capacity development for programme implementers so that they can gain an understanding of the rationale and importance of gender-specific programme provisions, and to awareness-raising initiatives about gender equality and related programme aims for communities and programme participants.

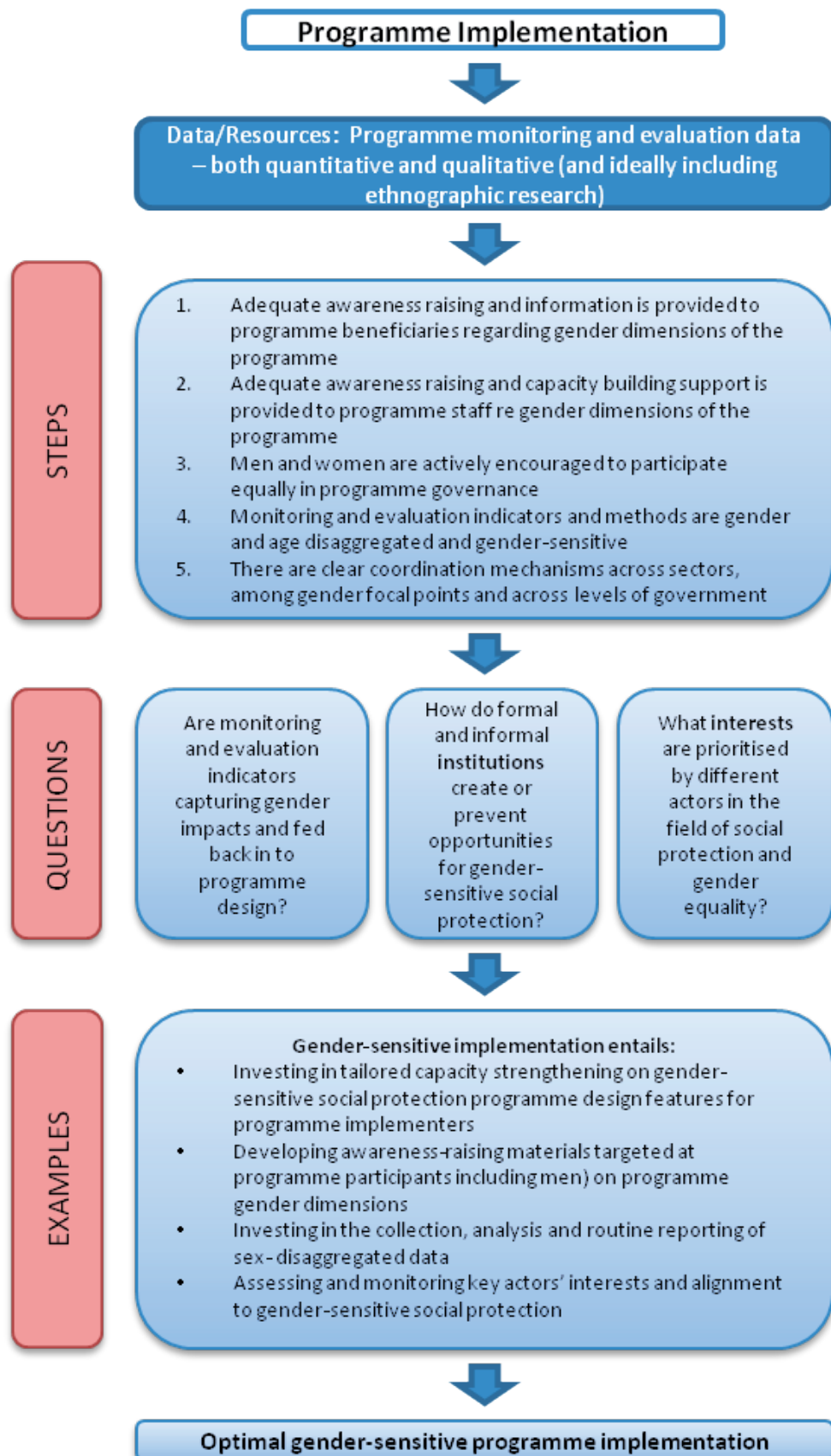
Figure 6, provides a simple decision-tree which synthesises the key steps for translating gender-sensitive design effectively into practice. See figure 7 for some caveats to bear in mind when using the decision tree tool.

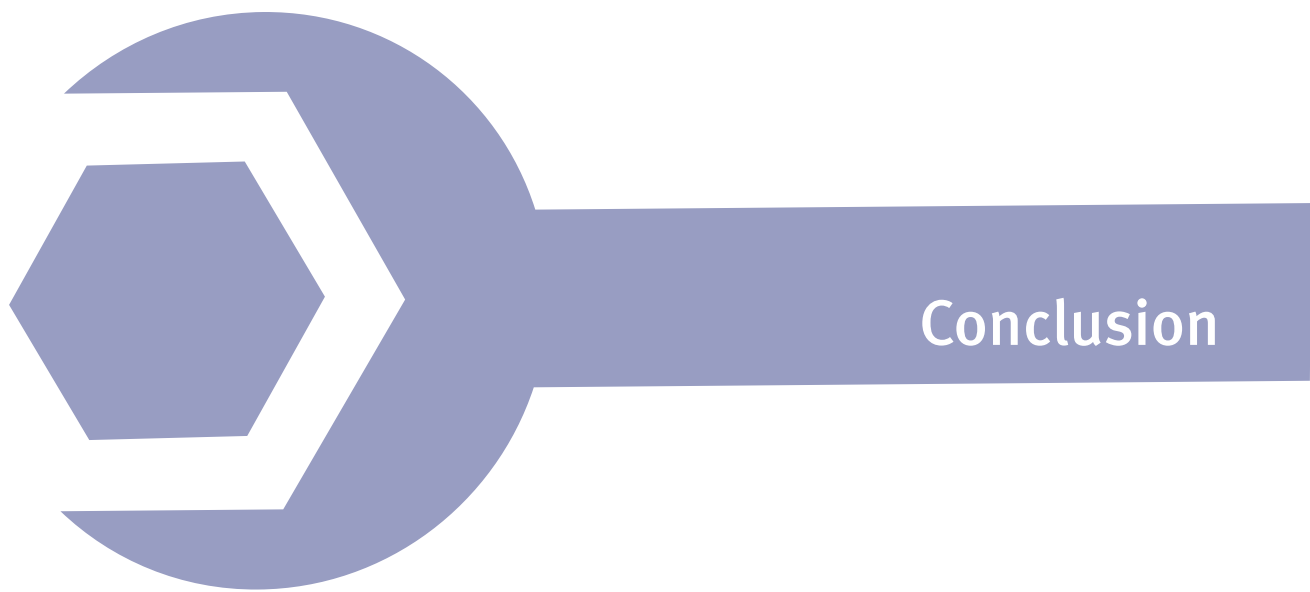


Matrix 2: Alignment interest and influence on gender in Viet Nam

Alignment on gender	Social Affairs Committee of the National Assembly National Committee for the Advancement of Women Local Women’s NGOs International and local NGOs	International donors Ministry of Planning and Investment Local Authorities
	Ministry of Labour, Invalid and Social Affairs Ministry of Health Youth associations; Farmers associations	Ministry of Education and Training Ministry of finance Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development
		Relative power

Figure 6: Gender-sensitive implementation decision tree





6. Conclusions

The starting point of this toolkit has been that gender-sensitive policy and programme design and implementation are essential to maximise the effectiveness of social protection. Understanding the way in which gender dynamics across the lifecycle shape policy and programme impacts – both intended and unintended – is a complex endeavour. However, by applying these tools there is greater potential for social protection to contribute to transforming gender relations at the individual, intra-household and community levels. Addressing existing shortcomings in social protection outcomes through using a gender lens is urgently needed to strengthen programme impacts.

This toolkit has aimed to equip policy makers and practitioners with the tools to:

1. Carry out a gender-sensitive vulnerability/ capability assessment;
2. Use this knowledge to inform the choice and design of social protection instrument;
3. Draw on international experience to develop context-appropriate gender-sensitive design features that



aim to tackle gender inequalities and promote gender empowerment;

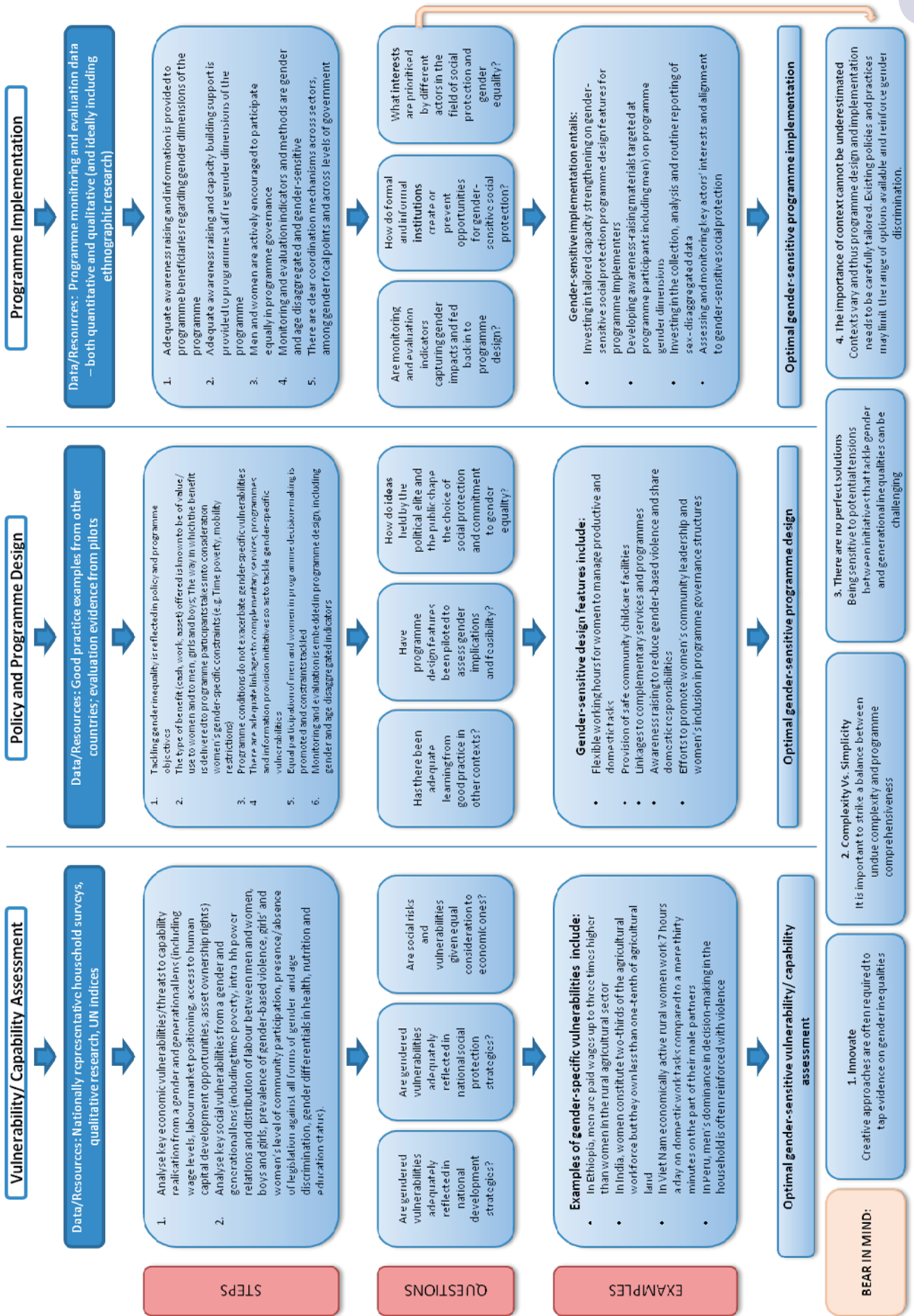
4. Put in place and carry out a tailored implementation plan that ensures gender-sensitive design is translated into practice by understanding the political economy of gender-sensitive social protection and establishing strategic alliances with like-minded and influential stakeholders’;
5. Establish, analyse and routinely report on the findings of a gender-sensitive M&E and learning system.

A simple decision-tree synthesises the key steps from each of the three clusters of tools for conducting gender-sensitive vulnerability assessments, programme design and implementation. For each cluster, the decision-tree outlines the following elements:

1. Data/ resources to be consulted;
2. Key steps for a gender-sensitive approach and outcomes;
3. Key questions to aid implementation of the tools;
4. Examples drawing on promising international practices in gender-sensitive social protection;
5. Some caveats to bear in mind when using the tools.

Further recommended reading can be found under Appendix 2.

Figure 7: Gender-sensitive decision tree

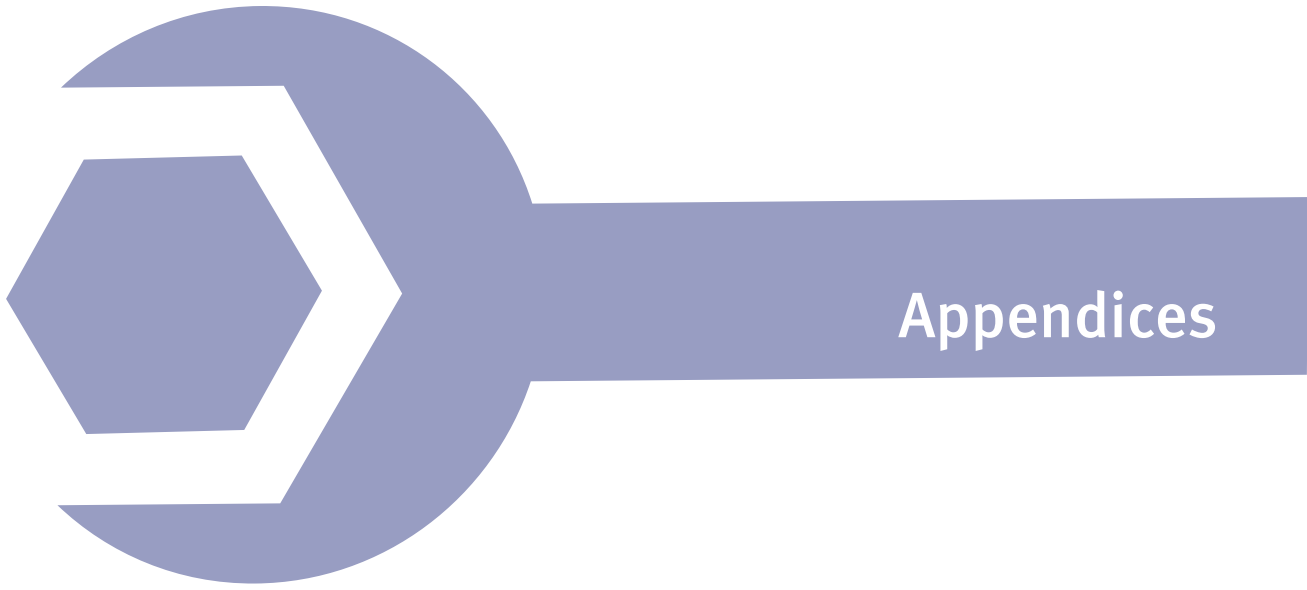




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- Veras Soares, F. and Silva, E. (2010) 'Conditional Cash Transfer Programmes and Gender Vulnerabilities: Case Studies of Brazil, Chile and Colombia.'





Appendix 1: Types of social protection programmes

Type of social assistance	Description	Example	Coverage
Cash transfers	Conditional and non-conditional regular cash payments to poor households, often caregivers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ghana’s LEAP quasi-conditional Cash transfer • Peru’s <i>Juntos</i> CCT 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 131,000hhs • 431,974 hhs
Asset transfers	Transfers of productive assets (e.g. small livestock) to support income generation activities of poor households	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bangladesh’s CFPR 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 272,000 women
Public works programmes	Provision of cash or food payments in return for labour to build community assets, typically physical infrastructure.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • India’s MGNREGA • Ethiopia’s PSNP 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 45 million hhs • Over 7 million individuals
Subsidies	Subsidised or free services (e.g. health, education, legal aid, agricultural extension) and/or food (e.g. rice rations)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vietnam’s NTPPR • Indonesia’s <i>Raskin</i> Rice Subsidy Programme • Mexico’s community child crèche system, <i>Estancias</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Up to 1.3 million hhs • 15.8 million hhs • 250,000 parents

Appendix 2: Useful resources and links

- Amuzu, C., Jones, N. and Perezniето, P. (2010) 'Gendered Risks, Poverty and Vulnerability in Ghana: To What Extent is the LEAP Cash Transfer Programme Making a Difference?'
- Arif, S., Syukri, M., Holmes, R. and Febriany, V. (2010) 'Gendered Risks and Social Protection Case Study of the Raskin Food Subsidy Programme in Indonesia.'
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- Khan, S. and Qutub, S. (2010) 'The Benazir Income Support Programme and the Zakat Programme: A Political Economy Analysis of Gender in Pakistan.'
- Manual for gender mainstreaming social inclusion and social protection policies. European Commission http://www.imag-gendermainstreaming.at/cms/imag/attachments/9/0/1/CH0133/CMS1181910131400/man_gma_si+spp.pdf
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Toolkit on mainstreaming gender equality in EC development cooperation <http://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/sp/gender-toolkit/index.htm>

Vargas Valente, R. (2010) 'Gender Risk, Poverty and Vulnerability in Peru: A Case Study of the Juntos Programme.'

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<http://www.odi.org.uk/work/projects/details.asp?id=1020&title=gender-vulnerability-social-protection>

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