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TOWARD GENDER EQUALITY IN EUROPE AND EURASIA: A TOOLKIT FOR ANALYSIS



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This publication was produced for review by the United States Agency for International Development. It was prepared by Elisabeth Duban and JBS International, with substantial input from Catherine Cozzarelli (Gender Advisor for the E&E Bureau, USAID).

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Best Practices in Trafficking Prevention in Europe and Eurasia January 2009, Doc ID: PN-ADO-543, PN-ADO-765

Methods and Models for Mixing Services for Victims of Domestic Violence and Trafficking in Persons in Europe and Eurasia December 2008, Doc ID: PN-ADN-297

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TOWARD GENDER EQUALITY IN EUROPE AND EURASIA:

A TOOLKIT FOR ANALYSIS

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ADS	Automated Directives System
AIDS	acquired immunodeficiency syndrome
AWID	Association for Women's Rights in Development
CDCS	Country Development Cooperation Strategy
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
CSO	civil society organization
DFID	Department for International Development
DO	Development Objective
DPO	disabled persons organization
E&E	Europe and Eurasia
GAD	Gender and Development
GE/FE	Gender Equality and Female Empowerment
HIV	human immunodeficiency virus
IGWG	Interagency Gender Working Group
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
ILO	International Labour Organization
IR	Intermediate Result
MARP	most-at-risk population
MSM	men who have sex with men
NGO	nongovernmental organization
NRM	National Referral Mechanism
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OSCE	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
OP	Operational Plan
PAD	Project Appraisal Document
PPR	Performance Plan Reports
SME	small and medium enterprise
ST	Social Transition
TB	tuberculosis
TIP	trafficking in persons
TRM	Transnational Referral Mechanism
TVET	technical and vocational education and training
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNECE	UN Economic Commission for Europe
UNICEF	UN Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VoT	victim of trafficking
WEAI	Women's Empowerment in Agriculture
WID	Women in Development

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

With the release of the new Agency Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy (Policy on GE/FE), USAID reaffirmed that gender analysis is the key tool that must be utilized to integrate gender effectively across the programming cycle. The Policy on GE/FE notes that gender analysis can be used proactively to address gender constraints and gaps in the course of strategy and project design, identify new opportunities to promote women's leadership and participation, and identify potential adverse impacts and/or risks of gender-based exclusion that could result from planned activities.

At first glance, it may appear that significant inequalities between women and men do not exist in the Europe and Eurasia (E&E) region, and it is true that, by and large, there is limited overt gender-based discrimination in most E&E countries.¹ During the Soviet era, equality between men and women was official policy, and the majority of E&E countries now have sound legislative frameworks that support gender equality principles. E&E countries also exhibit near parity at most levels of education (especially basic education), and women are well represented in the labor market. Thus, there appear to be few formal barriers to women's advancement. However, more in-depth analysis reveals many barriers that prevent women in the region from achieving true equality with men. It is precisely this context—in which gender equality is a formal principle and gender differences are not obvious—that makes gender analysis imperative for designing projects that effectively address nuanced gender differences and empower women to participate actively and equally in their societies at all levels. In conducting gender analysis in E&E countries, one must look beyond formal statements and principles of equality to uncover the reality for women and men.

TOOLKIT PURPOSE

This Toolkit has been prepared to provide USAID Mission staff working in the E&E region with a resource for conducting gender analysis in the context of project design. The Toolkit builds upon and supplements earlier initiatives, and provides concrete guidance and recommendations to assist in meeting USAID gender integration

1. This Toolkit focuses on E&E countries where USAID maintains an active presence: Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, the Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Russia, Serbia, and Ukraine.

“ Gender equality and female empowerment are core development objectives, fundamental for the realization of human rights and key to effective and sustainable development outcomes. No society can develop successfully without providing equitable opportunities, resources, and life prospects for males and females so that they can shape their own lives and contribute to their families and communities.”

USAID GENDER EQUALITY AND FEMALE EMPOWERMENT POLICY, 2012, P. 1

“ Promoting gender equality and female empowerment is a shared Agency responsibility and depends on the contribution and collective commitment of all staff.”
USAID GENDER EQUALITY AND FEMALE EMPOWERMENT POLICY, 2012, P. 14

requirements. It is intended as a tool for USAID Mission and USAID/ Washington personnel, particularly Gender Advisors/points of contact and project design team members, to assist in implementing USAID policy on promoting gender equality and female empowerment.

The creation of this Toolkit was motivated by a desire to respond to a very real need observed among USAID Mission staff and USAID/ Washington personnel—the need for concrete tools and resources that can be used to translate Agency policy on gender integration into the nuts and bolts of day-to-day development work. While conducting country-level gender analyses in the context of USAID Mission strategic planning in 2010–12, the E&E Bureau’s Gender Advisor met with Mission staff in numerous Missions and identified a common concern. Although there is widespread awareness in the E&E region of gender analysis requirements and a willingness to carry them out, a great many staff members also expressed doubts that they had the necessary knowledge, skills, and capacity to conduct this analysis. The Toolkit was designed to fill this need.

This Toolkit is based on a review of USAID and other international development agencies’ materials and guidance on gender analysis. Information about gender issues in specific sectors was drawn from recent USAID gender analyses and other publications, the academic literature, statistical databases, and analytic reports produced by other organizations and agencies. The E&E Bureau Gender Advisor contributed extensively to the Toolkit, and a large number of sector experts within the E&E Bureau reviewed the sector guidance notes and made substantive contributions.

STRUCTURE OF THE TOOLKIT

The Toolkit provides an overview of the relevance of gender analysis to USAID development goals and uses the Six Domains Framework as a sample gender analysis methodology. This general introduction is followed by 16 guidance notes that provide detailed information about gender. Twelve provide information on a variety of sectors in the broad fields of democracy and governance, economic growth, social transition, health, energy, and the environment in the E&E region. Four guidance notes cover vulnerable groups such as children living outside of parental care, people with disabilities, and victims of human trafficking.

The Toolkit has a regional focus and as such, it reflects a synthesis of data and trends across the countries in the E&E region. When designing a project in a specific country, *Toolkit users* will need to carry out further research to articulate the more nuanced patterns of gender-related trends specific to that country.

The Toolkit is divided into four sections.

- **Section 1** presents a brief overview of gender issues in the E&E region and the purpose of the Toolkit.
- **Section 2** reviews USAID requirements on gender integration and gender analysis and discusses why gender analysis is relevant to USAID's development goals.
- **Section 3** explains the purposes of gender analysis and introduces a theoretical framework for conducting gender analysis.
- **Section 4** is the heart of the Toolkit and presents a practical approach and concrete tools for integrating gender at the project level. As described above, this section includes the guidance notes on how to conduct gender analysis in the areas that are currently most relevant to USAID activities in the E&E region. Each of the 16 guidance notes can also serve as a stand-alone resource.



INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this Toolkit is to provide USAID Mission staff working in the Europe and Eurasia (E&E) region with resources for conducting gender analysis in the context of project design. The Toolkit builds upon and supplements earlier resources that have been produced by the Social Transition (ST) Team in the E&E Bureau (e.g., online gender integration course, analytic guides to gender issues in the region) and other entities at USAID (including the Office of Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment, the Bureau for Global Health) and provides users with concrete tools to help in meeting USAID gender integration requirements. The Toolkit is intended to assist USAID Mission and USAID/Washington personnel, particularly Gender Advisors/points of contact and project design team members, to implement USAID policy on promoting gender equality and female empowerment effectively.

The Toolkit provides an overview of the relevance of gender analysis to USAID development goals and outlines the Six Domains Framework as a sample gender analysis methodology. This general introduction is followed by 16 guidance notes that provide detailed information about gender. Twelve provide information on a variety of sectors in the broad fields of democracy and governance, economic growth, social transition, health, energy, and the environment in the E&E region. Four guidance notes cover vulnerable groups such as children living outside of parental care, persons with disabilities, and victims of human trafficking. Each guidance note begins with an outline of the key gender issues for that sector/topic and provides a list of sample questions to use when conducting gender analysis while designing a project in that sector or addressing that crosscutting topic. These questions focus on basic statistical information about women and men, gender roles and responsibilities, the extent to which women and men have access to key assets and resources, and the extent to which men and women are represented in decision making positions. Links to further background and overview materials produced by USAID and other donor and international organizations are highlighted throughout the text, in the guidance notes, and in the references and appendixes.

I.1 WHY THIS TOOLKIT

With the release of the new Agency Policy on Gender Equality and Female Empowerment (Policy on GE/FE), USAID reaffirmed that gender analysis is the key tool that must be used to integrate gender

REMEMBER: Promoting gender equality and women's empowerment is a responsibility shared across the Agency; progress toward this goal depends on the contributions of all USAID staff, implementers, and partners.

“ Gender equality and female empowerment are core development objectives, fundamental for the realization of human rights and key to effective and sustainable development outcomes. No society can develop successfully without providing equitable opportunities, resources, and life prospects for males and females so that they can shape their own lives and contribute to their families and communities.”

USAID GENDER EQUALITY AND FEMALE EMPOWERMENT POLICY, 2012, P. I

effectively across the programming cycle. The Policy notes that gender analysis can be used proactively to address gender constraints and gaps in the course of project design, identify new opportunities to promote women’s leadership and participation, and identify potential adverse impacts and/or risks of gender-based exclusion that could result from planned activities.

The creation of this Toolkit was motivated by a desire to respond to a very real need observed among USAID Mission staff and USAID/ Washington personnel—the need for concrete tools and resources that can be used to translate Agency policy on gender integration into the nuts and bolts of day-to-day development work. While conducting country-level gender analyses in the context of USAID Mission strategic planning in 2010–12, the E&E Bureau’s Gender Advisor met with Mission staff in numerous Missions and identified a common concern. Although there is widespread awareness in the E&E region of the gender analysis requirements and a willingness to carry them out, a great many staff members also expressed doubts that they had the necessary knowledge, skills, and capacity to conduct this analysis. The Toolkit was designed to fill this need.

1.2 METHODOLOGY OF THIS TOOLKIT

This Toolkit is based on a review of USAID and other international development agencies’ materials and guidance on gender analysis. Information about gender issues in specific sectors was drawn from recent USAID gender analyses and other publications, the academic literature, statistical databases, and analytic reports produced by other organizations and agencies. The E&E Bureau Gender Advisor contributed extensively to the Toolkit, and a large number of sector experts within the E&E Bureau reviewed the sector guidance notes and made substantive contributions.

The Toolkit has a regional focus and as such, it reflects a synthesis of data and trends across the countries in the E&E region. When designing a project in a specific country, Toolkit users will need to carry out further research to articulate the more nuanced patterns of gender-related trends specific to that country.

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The Toolkit includes illustrations, charts, and tables; throughout the document, background and overview materials produced by USAID and other donor and international organizations are highlighted in One-Click Resources sections. These materials together constitute a resource library for conducting gender analysis. Links to general resources and background materials on gender issues in the E&E region are provided in Appendix 2 and in each guidance note.

I.3 TARGET AUDIENCE

Although this Toolkit was prepared with a primary focus on the E&E region, much of the material and information it includes may be relevant to other regions as well. In particular, the sample gender analysis questions should be broadly applicable across USAID regions and Bureaus. The Toolkit is aimed at a variety of USAID Mission and USAID/Washington personnel, with a specific focus on those who are involved in strategy development or project design, Contract and Agreement Officer Representatives (CORs/AORs) who monitor the technical performance of USAID implementers, Gender Advisors, and gender points of contact. It is hoped that this Toolkit will be a useful resource for this audience and for their colleagues and counterparts across other U.S. Government agencies, donors, and implementing partners.

I.4 PROGRESS TOWARD GENDER EQUALITY IN EUROPE AND EURASIA

At first glance, it may appear that significant inequalities between women and men do not exist in the E&E region, and it is true that, by and large, there is limited overt gender-based discrimination in most E&E countries.¹ During the communist era, equality between men and women was official policy, and the majority of E&E countries now have sound legislative frameworks that support gender equality principles. E&E countries also exhibit near parity at most levels of education (especially basic education), and women are well represented in the labor market. Thus, there appear to be few formal barriers to women's advancement. However, more in-depth analysis reveals many

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barriers that prevent women in the region from achieving true equality with men. It is precisely this context—in which gender equality is a formal principle and gender differences are not obvious—that makes gender analysis imperative for designing projects that effectively address nuanced gender differences and empower women to participate actively and equally in their societies at all levels.

In conducting gender analysis in E&E countries, one must look beyond formal statements and principles of equality to uncover the reality for women and men. The first step is to understand the gender inequalities that persist in E&E countries and why gender is still a critical issue for the region as a whole. The following brief orientation illustrates some of the major trends relevant to advancing gender equality in the region.

Gender Stereotypes

Gender stereotypes, while perhaps not always obvious, persist across the region. Women are seen as being primarily responsible for domestic matters and child care, and men for providing financially for the family. Although women now comprise a substantial proportion of the workforce in many countries, men have not assumed correspondingly greater responsibility for domestic work. Gender norms that depict men as leaders and women in supporting roles are deeply embedded across E&E countries. These gender norms influence the behavior of men and women in numerous ways, including by having an impact on whether women run for political office or men exercise their right to take paternity or child care leave.

Policymaking

Important initiatives have been undertaken in all E&E countries to address women's empowerment and gender equality, through law, national action plans, and strategies. Unfortunately, while providing an important underpinning for national-level efforts, such laws and policies remain largely declarative and have yet to be implemented in a comprehensive manner. National and local gender equality programs are for the most part underresourced, both in terms of personnel and funding. Gender equality principles are still largely understood as referring to assistance for women in social sectors, and thus gender considerations are rarely incorporated into policy discussions about such topics as economic development, post-crisis recovery, or conflict resolution. In addition, most people in the region do not understand that addressing gender issues also means closing gender gaps that negatively affect men.

Women's Economic Status

Women remain vulnerable to poverty in the region, especially specific groups of women such as single mothers, the elderly, ethnic minorities, and women with disabilities. Despite overall economic growth in Europe and Eurasia during the transition to a market economy,

specific gender gaps in women's access to employment and economic empowerment have remained stable for the last decade. Critically, women were disadvantaged in the transition period in terms of access to privatized resources, and they are therefore not well positioned to benefit from economic growth on equal terms with men. On the other hand, the economic crisis brought particular hardships for men in many E&E countries as industries that primarily employ men were often disproportionately affected by the crisis and many men lost their jobs.

Women in the region tend to have jobs in sectors that are financed through state budgets, such as health care, social services, and education. Men are overrepresented in many more profitable sectors such as construction, mining, communications, transport, and energy. They are also more likely to be injured or killed on the job because they are expected to work in dangerous environments.² Indeed, laws in most E&E countries prohibit women from holding certain types of jobs including those involving work with chemicals, or in mining, heavy industry, construction, and so forth.³

In private enterprise, women-owned and -operated businesses are generally smaller than those owned by men. Women are vastly underrepresented in top management positions throughout their working lives. Although maternity protections are strong in the region, women still must balance their careers with unpaid family obligations to an extent that is not required of men. With the dissolution of communist systems, a large number of preschool and child care facilities once linked to workplaces closed or were transferred to municipalities or private hands. For many women, preschools are not accessible because of insufficient facilities or the high cost of care. These and other factors contribute to a considerable gender pay gap that is observed in the region and present challenges to women who are returning to work after having a child, working full time, and advancing in their careers.

Access to Education

Overall, the E&E region has maintained very high male and female literacy rates and exhibits gender parity in enrollment at most educational levels, although there are differences between subregions and between urban and rural settings. It is notable that in a number of countries the enrollment rates for women in higher education are greater than they are for men. Enrollment rates in academic fields in higher education also show clear gender differences, with women

2. Jean Bonhomme, *The Gender Longevity Gap: Is It Really Biology?* *Journal of Men's Health*, 6 No. 3 (2009): 151–154.

3. Susan Somach, "The Other Side of the Gender Equation: Gender Issues for Men in the Europe and Eurasia Region" (Washington, D.C., USAID, JBS International Inc., 2011).

concentrated in such fields as health and teaching and men dominating technical areas of study. These differences are also reflected in occupational segregation of the labor market. Overall, women's higher educational achievement does not correlate with similar advances in the labor market and, "is not yet reflected in women's job quality and remuneration."⁴

Leadership

Women are missing from leadership roles and decision making positions at all levels and thus have limited access to power. Women represent less than 30 percent of the members of national parliaments in most countries in the region. They are similarly underrepresented in executive offices. Even, "where women are given more political responsibility, it tends to be in socio-cultural issues," which are seen as consistent with accepted women's roles and interests.⁵ Only a handful of countries have election quota laws in place, and women who wish to run for office face numerous gender-specific barriers.

Health

Women and men in the E&E region both experience serious health issues including exposure to tuberculosis, HIV/AIDS, and chronic diseases. Patterns of exposure and risk factors for these diseases vary by sex, and women face a variety of reproductive issues as well, including high rates of abortion, and contraception. One of the gender issues affecting men to receive attention in recent years is the wide gender gap in life expectancy, with women living much longer than men in many countries in the E&E region.⁶

Violence and Exploitation

Gender-based violence, particularly domestic violence, remains a critical issue for the region and has a profound impact on women, children, and families. Because gender-based discrimination leads to women's disempowerment, women are more at risk for gender-based violence than men. Domestic violence is a widespread problem for the region, but comprehensive statistics, data, and research are limited. In addition, discussing domestic violence publicly is still taboo in many countries, there is an acute shortage of services for victims of violence, many acts of violence go unreported because victims fear reprisals, and abusers are rarely prosecuted.

Gender norms also influence men's behavior and in some cases, may make it more likely that men resort to violence to deal with stressors

4. UNECE, *The MDGs in Europe and Central Asia: Achievements, Challenges and the Way Forward* (Geneva: UNECE, 2010).

5. UNECE, *The MDGs in Europe and Central Asia*.

6. Somach, *The Other Side of the Gender Equation*.

and interpersonal difficulties. Men's mortality levels from all types of intentional injuries is at least twice that for women, and men are more likely to die from self-inflicted injuries that become successful suicides.⁷

Trafficking in persons, for the purposes of sexual exploitation and in connection with labor migration, affects both females and males, but in significantly different ways. Considerable international attention has been devoted to better understanding and responding to TIP for the purposes of sexual exploitation, which primarily affects women and adolescent girls. Men are also vulnerable to trafficking, most often into situations involving labor exploitation, although people who are exploited for their labor are less likely to be identified as having been trafficked than those who are exploited for sex, and overall, services for male trafficking victims are lacking.

7. Somach, *The Other Side of the Gender Equation*.

USAID AND GENDER INTEGRATION

2.1 USAID COMMITMENT TO GENDER EQUALITY

Gender integration is not a new concept for USAID. Including women and girls in development efforts has been an integral part of the Agency's work since the Foreign Assistance Act was amended four decades ago, calling for the integration of women in development assistance programs and establishing USAID's Office for Women in Development (WID), which in 2011 was renamed the Office of Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment (Gen/Dev). USAID's commitment to gender equality was reaffirmed in early 2012 with the release of the USAID Policy on GE/FE.¹ In the Policy, increased equality and female empowerment are presented as core development objectives, fundamental for the realization of human rights and key to effective and sustainable development outcomes.

Other actions over the past few years also attest to the Agency's revitalized focus on gender. In 2009, USAID revised its Automated Directives System (ADS), and included requirements that the results of gender analysis must be integrated in strategic planning, project design and approval, procurement processes, and measurement and evaluation. In 2011, the Agency also introduced new definitions of gender subkey issues for budget attributions and reporting in Operational Plans (OPs) and Performance Plan Reports (PPRs), along with a set of seven common, standard indicators designed to assess progress toward increasing gender equality and female empowerment and decreasing gender-based violence. Several new staff positions were created with an exclusive focus on gender. Also, the Agency was a key partner in developing the U.S. Government's 2011 National Action Plan on Women, Peace, and Security, which focuses on empowering women as equal partners in preventing conflict and building peace and increasing the protection of women and girls in situations of conflict and insecurity.

The new Policy on GE/FE reaffirms that gender analysis is the key tool USAID will employ in order to integrate gender effectively across the programming cycle. The Policy articulates that gender analysis should be used proactively to address gender constraints and gaps in the course of project design, identify new opportunities to promote women's leadership and participation, and identify potential adverse impacts

“ We [USAID] know that long-term, sustainable development will only be possible when women and men enjoy equal opportunity to rise to their potential. But today, women and girls continue to face disadvantages in every sector in which we work, and—in other cases—boys are falling behind. With this policy, we can ensure our values and commitments are reflected in durable, meaningful results for all.”

**RAJIV SHAH, USAID ADMINISTRATOR,
USAID GENDER EQUALITY AND
FEMALE EMPOWERMENT POLICY,
2012, P. IV**

1. The Policy uses the term “female empowerment” rather than “women's empowerment” to emphasize its applicability to USAID's work with girls as well as women.

“ Gender equality and female empowerment are essential for achieving our development goals. Unless both women and men are able to attain their social, economic and political aspirations, and contribute to and shape decisions about the future, the global community will not successfully promote peace and prosperity. Realizing this policy in all of the countries in which we work will enable USAID to be a catalytic force for gender equality and women’s empowerment worldwide and bring to fruition the vision of a world in which all people are equally empowered to secure better lives for themselves, their families, and their communities.”

USAID GENDER EQUALITY AND FEMALE EMPOWERMENT POLICY 2012, P. 20

**ONE-CLICK RESOURCES:
USAID POLICY DOCUMENTS**

- [Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy](#) (2012)
- [Program Cycle Overview](#) (2011)
- [Project Design Guidance](#) (2011)

and/or risks of gender-based exclusion that could result from planned activities.

2.2 USAID POLICY ON GENDER EQUALITY AND FEMALE EMPOWERMENT

USAID policy on gender integration is set forth in the 2012 Policy on Gender Equality and Female Empowerment and the ADS. The goal of the Agency’s Policy on GE/FE is

to improve the lives of citizens around the world by advancing equality between females and males, and empowering women and girls to participate fully in and benefit from the development of their societies. It will be addressed through integration of gender equality and female empowerment throughout the Agency’s Program Cycle and related processes: in strategic planning, programming, project design and implementation, and monitoring and evaluation²

As stated above and in the first principle outlined in the Policy, USAID’s primary approach will involve integrating approaches and actions to advance gender equality and female empowerment. However, the Policy also clarified that when circumstances warrant, stand-alone activities devoted to empowering females or closing gender gaps may be implemented. Decisions about whether to support stand-alone projects and about how to best integrate gender across an Operating Unit’s portfolio are to be based on the findings of gender analysis. Box 4 in the Policy, reproduced here as box 2.1, also specifies that gender analysis should be used not only to identify opportunities to empower women but also to reveal potential unintended consequences of USAID programming. More specific guidance related to the implementation of the Policy (including templates, timelines, resource lists, examples of good practices, etc.) will be issued on a rolling basis.

2.3 IMPLEMENTING USAID POLICY

Conducting Gender Analysis

At the time this Toolkit was being drafted, several sections of the ADS had just been revised so as to harmonize them with new developments related to the development of Country Development Cooperation Strategies (CDCSs), project design, and the program cycle. The language pertaining to gender integration was also updated in this process. Although the fundamental requirements vis-à-vis gender did not change, some of the details did.³ For example, although the 2009

2. USAID, “Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy,” p. 1.

3. It is expected that the gender provisions in the ADS will again be updated in the latter part of 2012. Although some of the details in the requirements related to gender might change in this process, USAID’s general approach is not expected to change significantly and the broad overview of ADS gender requirements in this Toolkit should remain applicable.

BOX 2.1 GENDER ANALYSIS

The ADS requires staff to conduct a gender analysis in the design of country strategies and projects, which must in turn be reflected in associated project appraisal documents, Statements of Work (SOWs)/Program Descriptions and Requests for Applications (RFAs)/Requests for Proposals (RFPs). Gender analysis is a tool for examining the differences between the roles that women and men play in communities and societies, the different levels of power they hold, their differing needs, constraints and opportunities, and the impact of these differences on their lives.

At the strategy and project level, the gender analysis should identify root causes of existing gender

inequalities or obstacles to female empowerment in that context so that USAID can proactively address them in the project design and seek out opportunities to promote women's leadership and participation. The gender analysis should also identify potential adverse impacts and/or risks of gender-based exclusion that could result from planned activities, including: (a) Displacing women from access to resources or assets; (b) Increasing the unpaid work or caregiver burden of females relative to males; (c) Conditions that restrict the participation of women or men in project activities and benefits based on pregnancy, maternity/

paternity leave, or marital status; (d) Increasing the risk of gender-based violence, including sexual exploitation or human trafficking, sexually transmitted diseases, and HIV/AIDS, and (e) Marginalizing or excluding women in political and governance processes. Because males and females are not homogenous groups, gender analysis should also to the extent possible disaggregate by income, region, caste, race, ethnicity, disability, and other relevant social characteristics and explicitly recognize the specific needs of young girls and boys, adolescent girls and boys, adult women and men, and older women and men.

Source: USAID, "Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy," p. 12.

ADS revisions required that Operating Units conduct gender analysis at the project and activity level, the new *Project Design Guidance* focuses solely on design and approval at the project level, usually associated with an Intermediate Result (IR) under one of the CDCS Development Objectives (DOs). (The new *Project Design Guidance* also lists gender analysis as one of only three mandatory analyses to be carried out in the context of project design.) Accordingly, the revised ADS language on gender also focuses on the project, rather than the activity, level.

Although gender analysis is required for both strategies and projects, the scope of this analysis will differ depending on the level of focus. At the strategy (e.g., CDCS) or country level, attention is given to long-term planning and to consideration of how gender equality and female empowerment can be linked to the achievement of an Operating Unit's high-level goals. Gender analysis at this level should also focus on articulating ways in which the programming carried out under a CDCS can help achieve the three key outcomes laid out in the Policy on GE/FE. The results generated by country-level gender analysis can also be the starting point for project-level gender analysis, which should include attention to any relevant high-level barriers to gender

“ Promoting gender equality and female empowerment is a shared Agency responsibility and depends on the contribution and collective commitment of all staff.”

USAID GENDER EQUALITY AND FEMALE EMPOWERMENT POLICY 2012, p. 14

“ USAID uses gender analysis to identify, understand, and describe gender differences and the impact of gender inequalities on a sector or program at the country or project level.”

USAID GENDER INTEGRATION MATRIX, ADDITIONAL HELP FOR ADS CHAPTER 201, 2011, P. 5

**ONE-CLICK RESOURCES:
USAID GUIDANCE ON ADS REQUIREMENTS**

- [The ADS and Gender \(website\) USAID Office of Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment](#)
- [Guide to Gender Integration and Analysis: Additional Help for ADS Chapters 201 and 203, USAID \(2010\)](#)
- [Sample Scopes of Work for Gender-Related Analyses and Training Additional Help for ADS Chapter 201, USAID \(2011\)](#)
- [Tips for Conducting a Gender Analysis at the Activity or Project Level Additional Help for ADS Chapter 201, USAID \(2011\)](#)
- [USAID Gender Integration Matrix Additional Help for ADS Chapter 201, USAID \(2011\)](#)

equality and female empowerment that can be addressed by a proposed project. Gender analyses carried out at this more specific level should also dig deeper and identify the relevant differences in the roles and status of women and men in the context of the proposed project, any inequalities that could hinder the achievement of project goals, and any possible differential effects the project might have on men and women. At this level, gender analysis should influence the project design so as to ensure that it addresses any differences or inequalities that are revealed, and results in equal outcomes and benefits for males and females. Results of gender analysis at this level may also lead an Operating Unit to build in project components that specifically focus on empowering women and girls, if the analysis suggests that this is important for achieving development results.

Acting on the Gender Analysis in Project Design: Next Steps

The ADS requires that conclusions from the mandatory gender analysis be used to support the final project design and results framework and be reflected in the Project Appraisal Document (PAD). (Note that use of the term “Activity Approval Document” was discontinued under the new USAID *Project Design Guidance* issued in December 2011.) To ensure that the project is carried out by implementers with the capacity to address gender gaps and to empower women and girls, the ADS also requires that gender be integrated in the Statement of Work/program description and the evaluation criteria for procurement requests and solicitations (including requests for proposals, requests for task order proposals, annual program statements, etc.). Finally, the ADS requires project performance management systems to include gender-sensitive indicators and sex-disaggregated data so as to improve the overall impact of USAID programs and to ensure that women and men benefit equally.



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UNDERSTANDING GENDER ANALYSIS

Gender analysis is used by most, if not all, development organizations to increase the effectiveness of development assistance by ensuring that donor-funded programming reflects the needs and differing realities of both men and women, and can serve as a vehicle for female empowerment. Broadly speaking, gender analysis is an analytic tool in which a systematic method is used to identify, understand, and describe gender differences and the relevance of gender in a specific context. Such analysis typically involves examining differences in the status of women and men and in their access to assets, resources, and power; the influence of gender roles and norms on their lives and in their communities; constraints, opportunities, and entry points for narrowing gender gaps and empowering females; and potential differential impacts of development policies and programs on males and females, including unintended or negative consequences. This analysis process typically includes the collection of sex-disaggregated and gender-sensitive data.

3.1 HOW TO STRUCTURE THE ANALYSIS

There are a large number of frameworks that have been developed for conducting gender analysis (e.g., Harvard Analytical Framework, Moser Framework, Social Relations Approach Framework, Gender Analysis Matrix); a summary of some of these frameworks is included in Appendix 1, and more detailed



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BOX 3.1 BASIC CONCEPTS IN GENDER ANALYSIS

Sex. A biological construct that defines males and females according to physical characteristics and reproductive capabilities. USAID policy calls for the collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated data (male versus female) for individual-level indicators and targets. “Gender” and “sex” are not synonyms.

Gender. A social construct that refers to relations between and among the sexes, based on their relative roles. It encompasses the economic, political, and sociocultural attributes, constraints, and opportunities associated with being male or female. As a social construct, gender varies across cultures, and is dynamic and open to change over time. Because of the variation in gender across cultures and over time, gender roles should not be assumed, but investigated. “Gender” is not interchangeable with “women” or “sex.”

Gender roles. Roles based on the social definitions of what it means to be either male or female in a specific society. These roles are driven by culture, tradition, presumptions, and stereotypes and

are not related to biological or physical imperatives. Such gender roles can represent tremendous potential but also present serious challenges and barriers to development projects. A key aspect of gender analysis involves examining gender roles and the impact they could have on USAID activities.

Women in Development (WID) approach. A pioneering approach, adopted several decades ago, in which a concerted effort is made to address the “invisibility” of women in the development process and to respond to women’s needs across all sectors (reproductive health, income generation, agriculture, violence against women, women’s political representation, etc.).

Gender and Development (GAD) approach. A perspective that considers power relations between women and men and their interdependence, the dynamics of access to and control over resources, and specific cultural and economic contexts. This approach is not exclusively focused on problems unique to women but instead on the entrenched

barriers that lead to inequalities in society. A GAD approach often leads to interventions that target both women and men to address gender equality.

Female empowerment. This is achieved when women and girls acquire the power to act freely, exercise their rights, and fulfill their potential as full and equal members of society. While empowerment often comes from within, and individuals empower themselves, cultures, societies, and institutions create conditions that facilitate or undermine the possibilities for empowerment.

Gender integration. Involves identifying, and then addressing, gender inequalities during strategy and project design, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation. Since the roles and power relations between men and women affect how an activity is implemented, it is essential that project managers address these issues on an ongoing basis.

Sources: USAID, “Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy”; USAID, “Gender Terminology” (Washington, D.C.: USAID); and USAID, *Guide to Gender Integration and Analysis: Additional Help for ADS Chapters 201 and 203* (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2010).

descriptions are available in the One-Click Resources. Each framework tends to have a different focus, involves different tools, and is often best suited to specific contexts. There is no consistency in the choice of gender analysis methodologies or frameworks that are used in development work around the world by donor and other organizations. Becoming familiar with the various methodologies can be useful as a way of identifying common approaches to gender analysis and critical questions that should be asked. Many publications on gender analysis

frameworks also provide sample analytic tools and other concrete resources that can assist the user in mastering the nuts and bolts of carrying out the analysis.

USAID Missions and offices have utilized a wide variety of gender analysis tools and frameworks, since there is no one gender analysis methodology that has been adopted as the preferred USAID model. In order to familiarize readers with the kinds of questions that should be asked while conducting gender analysis, this Toolkit includes a detailed description of the **Six Domains of Gender Analysis Framework**.

This is the methodology that has been used in prior analytic reports and trainings on gender by the E&E Bureau.¹ It is adaptable to many contexts and regions and is one of the most comprehensive frameworks, as it helps to identify and organize information about gender differences in six major areas of inquiry. Nevertheless, the choice of whether to adopt this or another framework for gender analysis is up to the individual practitioner.

3.2 HOW TO APPLY THE SIX DOMAINS FRAMEWORK

The Six Domains Framework focuses analysis of gender issues in terms of

1. Access to assets;
2. Knowledge, beliefs, and perceptions;
3. Practices and participation;
4. Time and space;
5. Legal rights and status; and
6. Balance of power and decision making.

Table 3.1 summarizes the key issues to consider when conducting gender analysis using this framework; these issues are further detailed in the following subsections.

Access to Assets

Access to assets refers to the extent to which women and men are able to use the resources necessary to be fully active and productive participants (socially, economically, and politically) in society. Assets

1. The 6 Domains Gender Analysis Framework was originally developed by Deborah Caro and Deborah Rubin under projects funded by the USAID WID Office and the USAID Bureau for Global Health for USAID's Interagency Gender Working Group. The Domains Framework has benefited from additional ideas and revisions from multiple trainers in addition to the original developers. Variations on this framework are used by the E&E and Global Health Bureaus.

ONE-CLICK RESOURCES: GENDER ANALYSIS FRAMEWORKS

- [Gender Analysis, UNDP Learning and Information Pack](#), UNDP (2001)
- [Gender Analysis website](#), World Bank (n.d.)
- [A Guide to Gender Analysis Frameworks](#), March, C., Smyth, I., & Mukhopadhyay, M. (1999) Oxfam
- [Review of Gender Analysis Frameworks](#), DevTech Systems, Inc. (n.d.)

ONE-CLICK RESOURCES: USING THE SIX DOMAINS FRAMEWORK

- [Tips for Conducting a Gender Analysis at the Activity or Project Level: Additional Help for ADS Chapter](#), USAID (2011)
- For USAID Staff, Module Two of the E&E Gender Integration Training, available for USAID University, reviews the Six Domains and includes sample activities to test your understanding.

TABLE 3.1 THE SIX DOMAINS AND THEIR ASSOCIATED KEY ISSUES

DOMAIN	KEY ISSUE
Access to assets	Who has access to which particular assets? What constraints do they face?
Knowledge, beliefs, perceptions	Who knows what? What beliefs and perceptions shape gender identities and norms?
Practices and participation	Who does what? What are the gender roles and responsibilities that dictate the activities in which men and women participate? How do men and women engage in development activities?
Time and space	How do men and women spend their time, as well as where and when?
Legal rights and status	How are women and men regarded and treated by customary and formal legal codes?
Balance of power and decision making	Who has control over the power to make decisions about one's body, household, community, municipality, and state? Are such decisions made freely?

TIP: Be sure to analyze both who has access to particular assets as well as who has control over how such resources are used.

should be considered in the broadest possible sense—both tangible and intangible; they include the following, among others:²

- **Human assets**—for example, health services, education/training, knowledge, and skills
- **Natural assets**—for example, land, forests, waterways, labor
- **Social assets**—for example, social networks, economic markets, value chains
- **Physical assets**—for example, transport, communication technology, equipment, raw materials
- **Financial assets**—for example, capital/income, collateral, credit

ILLUSTRATION: ACCESS TO ASSETS

In several E&E countries, domestic property such as a house, apartment, car, or land is commonly registered in the name of the male head of the family. So although women have access to such property, they generally cannot make legal decisions about how it will be used, such as offering it as collateral for a loan or

selling it. In parts of Montenegro, women are often employed in the agricultural sector; however, they “are unlikely to own the land on which they work.”

Does your activity assume that beneficiaries will have access to certain assets, such as land to use as collateral for a loan? If so,

do women and men have equal access to and ability to use those assets during the activity?

Sources: Catherine Cozzarelli, *2010 Gender Assessment for USAID/Albania* (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2010); Elisabeth Duban, *Gender Assessment USAID/Armenia* (Washington, D.C.: USAID and DevTech Systems, Inc., 2010); Elisabeth Duban, *Gender Assessment USAID/Georgia* (Washington, D.C.: USAID and DevTech Systems, Inc., 2010); Catherine Cozzarelli, *2010 Gender Assessment for USAID/Montenegro* (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2010).

2. See also Helen Derbyshire, *Gender Manual: A Practical Guide for Development Policy Makers and Practitioners* (London: DFID, 2002).

Keep in mind that women may have access to certain resources, but they may not control them. It is a useful practice to first identify who has access to which assets and in turn question who has control over decisions regarding these particular assets.

KNOWLEDGE, BELIEFS, AND PERCEPTIONS

This domain involves understanding the beliefs that shape gender identity and behavior and the perceptions that guide how men and women interpret aspects of their lives differently depending on their gender identity. Men and women may also have different types of knowledge or beliefs, and some forms of knowledge may be accessible to one sex only. Among other considerations, those who are conducting gender analyses should closely examine whether any gender-based stereotypes could have an impact on a given project or its outcomes.

ILLUSTRATION: KNOWLEDGE, BELIEFS, AND PERCEPTIONS

In many E&E countries, strong gender stereotypes persist, including that men are leaders and should be solely responsible for providing for their families, and that women are inherently better suited to caregiving and social roles. In terms of employment, the belief that men are breadwinners often translates to a presumption that males are in greater need of a job than females and that male employees are entitled to higher salaries. In reality, single mothers head many households in E&E countries.

Looking at the political system, men are more often perceived as natural leaders, and negative stereotypes persist in many countries about how politics is “unsuitable” for women. Women themselves often adopt these beliefs and are thus uninterested in running for office.

Does your activity take into consideration societal perceptions about women and men that are based on stereotypes? Will such stereotypes function as a facilitator or barrier for

women and men participating in the activity? Could specific interventions be included to address dominant stereotypes?

Sources: Women's Consortium of Ukraine, *Alternative Report on the Implementation of the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination in Ukraine* (Kyiv, Ukraine: International Renaissance Foundation, Friedrich Ebert Stiftung, UNICEF, and UN Office in Ukraine, 2008); Petina Tonkachva, et al., *Shadow Report on the Implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination in the Republic of Belarus* (Belarus: Public Association Women's Independent Democratic Movement, 2010).

PRACTICES AND PARTICIPATION

This domain requires an examination of behaviors and actions in life—what people actually do—and how this is influenced or determined by gender. This should include exploring how various roles are divided according to gender, and how responsibilities and activities are socially allocated to men and women. While it may not be noticed in everyday life, all societies assign gender roles based on what is considered “appropriate” for men and women, and different roles are valued differently. Gender analysis at this stage requires identifying who does what—looking both at quantitative and qualitative information. Examining participation also includes looking at how men and women engage in development activities and the ways in which gender roles and norms affect their participation.

ILLUSTRATION: PRACTICES AND PARTICIPATION

A number of countries in the E&E region are beginning to allow fathers to take parental leave along with the mother of a child. In practice, the number of men who make use of such leave provisions is extremely small. In Serbia, for

example, it has been reported that annually fewer than 20 men take allowable paternity leave. This suggests that women continue to take on the major responsibilities for child care, even though they are also working outside the home.

How would you take women's reproductive role and associated domestic responsibilities into consideration in activity design?

Source: Elisabeth Duban, *From Cairo to Beijing and Beyond: The Unfinished Agenda on Gender Equality in Eastern Europe and Central Asia* (Istanbul: UNFPA, 2010).

Although not formally a part of the Six Domains Framework, it may be useful to consider further subdivisions of roles and responsibilities when conducting gender analysis. These subdivisions can include:³

- **Productive roles**—activities that produce goods or services and therefore economic resources, including paid work, self-employment, or subsistence farming
- **Reproductive roles**—activities that are usually unpaid and take place at the domestic level, including childbirth, child care, care for the elderly, domestic chores, and fuel and water collection
- **Community participation/managing roles**—voluntary work at the community level that contributes to the well-being of the community overall, including maintenance of collective resources and infrastructure, and provision of community services
- **Community politics**—representation of men and women in making decisions on behalf of their community as a whole. Such political and advocacy activities can be considered at various levels (local, national, and/or international)

Keep in mind that women's reproductive roles are often not visible to society or project planners. Women's unpaid reproductive work is connected to societal expectations about women's role generally, and the burden of such work can compromise their ability to take part in development activities.

TIME AND SPACE

Analyzing time and space means recognizing both the gender differences in the availability and allocation of time as well as the place in which time is spent. Consider the gender differences in the division of both productive and reproductive labor, and identify how and where time is spent during the day, week, month, or year and in different

TIP: Remember to think broadly—not only about what men and women do, but also where (the location of work; for example, household or migrant labor) and when (time of day and/or season).

3. See also Derbyshire, *Gender Manual: A Practical Guide for Development Policy Makers and Practitioners*.

ILLUSTRATION: TIME AND SPACE

High levels of labor migration in several countries in the E&E region mean that many men and women work for much of the year away from their homes. Labor migration has distinct gender-specific patterns and impacts on men, women, and families. For

example, female partners of male migrants often stay behind to care for the family, acting as head of the household in the husband's absence.

How would the presence and absence of men and women at

different times of the year in a community that is experiencing labor migration impact the implementation of a project? How might such time commitments affect the ability of both women and men to participate in projects?

seasons. This analysis will help determine how men and women contribute to the maintenance of the family, community, and society. A time use analysis will also reveal whether men and women have equal access to unallocated or leisure time.

An analysis of time and space should also explore the implications that different time commitments for women and men have on their availability to participate in development projects. Such analysis should also look at whether men and women's time is flexible, negotiable, or interchangeable.

LEGAL RIGHTS AND STATUS

Analysis under this domain involves assessing how men and women are regarded and treated by both the customary and formal legal codes and judicial systems. This includes: (1) how men and women access legal documentation such as identification cards, voter registration, and property titles; and (2) protection of their human and legal rights generally (e.g., the right to inheritance and to employment, the right to representation in legal processes, and to redress for violations of rights).

TIP: Think broadly about the types of legal or status issues relevant to the context of the planned project.

ILLUSTRATION: LEGAL RIGHTS AND STATUS

Several countries in the E&E region do not have a stand-alone law on domestic violence. Instead, the legal system treats domestic violence as a criminal act—causing physical injury—which could equally apply to violence committed by strangers. Because women are the majority of the victims of domestic violence, the lack of legal recognition of the relationship between the victim

and the abuser in such situations disadvantages women who are seeking justice in court. Some countries, such as Georgia, have adopted specific legal mechanisms that apply in situations of domestic violence. For example, the police and courts have the power to remove an abuser from the home temporarily, which gives the victim time to seek assistance. This legal provision is gender neutral but is

especially helpful to women, given the reported patterns of domestic violence.

Are there any gender-neutral laws or regulations that could have a negative impact on women in the context of the activity? Is there a need to adopt gender-specific legislation in order to empower women or promote gender equality?

“ Gender analysis is a tool to make sure that you have real information to base your activities on, not assumptions.”

ARJA VAINIO-MATTILA, NAVIGATING GENDER: A FRAMEWORK AND TOOL FOR PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT, 2001, P. 8

BALANCE OF POWER AND DECISION MAKING

This domain involves taking a close look at the ability of men and women to decide, influence, and exercise control. It refers to the broad capacity to make decisions freely and to exercise power over one’s body and within one’s household, community, municipality, and the state. It also includes the capacity to vote and to run for office at all levels of government.

It may be helpful to think about how power and decision making are shared by men and women in relation to various types of assets and resources, including those that are both tangible and intangible. For example, depending on the specific activity, an evaluation of decision making over resources could range from exploring who makes decisions in the household about how income will be spent to who holds political office and therefore determines national policy on energy consumption.

Research has shown that women are more likely to participate in development activities when they have some control over the benefits that will be generated.⁴ For this reason, when conducting gender analysis, it is also important to determine who has control over the benefits of a particular project; these benefits, again, can be tangible (such as income or crops) or intangible (such as health services or education).

ILLUSTRATION: BALANCE OF POWER AND DECISION MAKING

USAID carries out programming in several E&E countries designed to improve energy security. Despite the fact that women are major consumers of energy, especially at the household level, they are generally underrepresented in the energy sector across the region, both in terms of employment in

the sector as well as in leadership roles, such as ministerial positions. Male domination of the energy sector means that women’s priorities for development may not be taken into consideration.

If women are underrepresented in a specific sector, to what extent will they be able to

influence decision making in that field? What positive measures could be included in program design to ensure that women’s views and concerns are taken into consideration and that women can participate fully in development projects?

4. AusAID, *Gender and Development Guide* (Canberra, Australia: AusAid, 1998).

CONDUCTING GENDER ANALYSIS AT THE PROJECT LEVEL

This section of the Toolkit provides some tips and advice on how to conduct gender analysis during project design, and includes some concrete suggestions for carrying out the nuts and bolts of the analysis. This section is followed by 16 guidance notes that help frame the questions that will be asked during the gender analysis process for projects in many of the key areas in which E&E Missions work.

4.1 TIPS FOR CONDUCTING GENDER ANALYSIS

Choosing an Analytical Framework

The first step in conducting gender analysis at the project level is to choose a gender analysis framework or methodology that will guide the process. As noted in section 3, no specific methodology is required by USAID, and some may be more suited to gender analysis in specific sectors than others. Although there are numerous frameworks available for conducting gender analysis, a review of practices from the international development community shows that several critical areas of inquiry are common across all organizations, and are reflected in the Six Domains Framework as well. These common areas of inquiry are listed below, and at a minimum, any gender analysis should tackle these key issues:

- Gender roles and responsibilities (sometimes termed the gender division of labor)
- Access to assets
- Control over resources and benefits
- Patterns of decision making power

Keep these key areas in mind when reviewing data, conducting research, speaking with experts, and meeting with stakeholders.

TIP: In 2010–11, the majority of Missions in the E&E region undertook country-level gender analyses, and the results of this higher-level gender analysis are a good starting point for this task.



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TIP: Do not overlook issues of diversity. Be sure to include people of different ages, from different parts of the country or region, depending on the level of analysis, and minority groups in stakeholder meetings as they can provide a variety of views from the groups the project may affect..

**ONE-CLICK RESOURCES:
GENDER AND DIVERSITY**

- [European Roma Rights Centre](#)—research and other resources on Romani women
- [ILGA-Europe](#) (International Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Trans and Intersex Association)—research and country-specific information and assessments
- [International Disability Rights Monitor](#)—regional reports and country-specific news

Identifying Gender Issues and Sources of Information

The next step is to identify the broad gender issues that will be the focus of the analysis, and to locate key sources of quantitative and qualitative information that can inform this analysis. Keep in mind that many gender issues may not be readily apparent since gender roles are often accepted as “natural” and the impacts of socialization are often difficult to discern. Therefore, it will be important to dig beneath the surface and collect as much detailed information about gender as possible, using a wide array of sources.

Think broadly about where to find information on the roles and status of men and women relevant to the project being designed. Although sector-specific publications may not contain much information on gender issues, gender experts may be able to provide supplementary information regarding inequalities relevant to a particular field.

When conducting gender analysis and taking diversity into consideration, it is most useful to consult with local organizations that represent or work specifically with minority populations of men and women.

Gender analysis entails examining factual information about women and men, which generally means studying sex-disaggregated data. Statistics can point to clear inequalities and disparities (e.g., in the number of girls and boys enrolled in primary school or the number of newly diagnosed cases of HIV among males and females). Project design teams (and others carrying out gender analysis) should review basic statistical information, disaggregated by sex, about the relative status of men and women in the given sector and should also seek out data that are disaggregated by other factors that may affect the project, such as age, ethnicity, or disability. Most national governments in the E&E region regularly gather and publish compilations of statistics about men and women. Other organizations, such as United Nations

BOX 4.1 GENDER AND DIVERSITY

A core principle behind gender analysis is the examination of differences between men and women, boys and girls; however, it is equally important to keep in mind that none of these are homogenous groups. Gender analysis requires an inclusive perspective in which diversity is considered. In conducting gender

analysis, it is a good practice to consider other factors that might affect the relative status of females and males. Such factors can include age, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, location (whether in a rural or urban setting), household structure, disability status, refugee status, sexual orientation, and gender identity. Recognizing diversity

in this way is codified in one of the core operational principles of the Policy on GE/FE, “Pursue an inclusive approach to foster equality,” which acknowledges that gender issues may change across the lifespan and that closing gender gaps in adolescence is particularly important.

Source: USAID, “Gender Equality and Female Empowerment Policy.”

(UN) agencies and the World Bank, also compile statistics relevant to specific fields. Additional data sources are detailed in the guidance notes.

A review of quantitative data provides an overview of any general differences or inequalities. However, analysis should not stop at the level of data comparison, but entail a deeper examination of the “pattern and norms of what women and men, girls and boys do and experience in relation to the issues being examined and addressed.”¹

This step should also include a review of qualitative studies that shed light on the reasons behind any disparities that have been noted or that can help fill in the gaps that are left by missing or incomplete data. There are a great many sources of qualitative information available related to gender issues, some of which provide overviews of the status of women in a particular country and others that address a narrow issue or topic. Some useful overviews include periodic reports on the implementation of international human rights obligations submitted to UN treaty monitoring bodies. For example, the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women reviews national reports and issues recommendations for action. Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) may prepare alternative reports during the review process that offer another perspective on women’s rights. Other periodic reports that generally include information on gender equality or the status of women and girls include the Universal Periodic Review (by the Human Rights Council) and reports to the UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child.

UN entities (such as the United Nations Development Programme, the UN Population Fund, UN Women, and the Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women) and regional intergovernmental organizations (e.g., the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, the Council of Europe) publish reports on issues of particular concern to women as well as on progress toward gender equality. Other donors may have produced assessments or reports relevant to the country in general or a specific sector.

NGOs, including think tanks, research centers, and academic institutions, are generally good sources for topic-specific studies and assessments. If a project is a follow-on to a similar activity, implementers may have conducted needs assessments or surveys that could provide useful quantitative and qualitative information.

1. Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC), “Gender Analysis (sheet 3),” *Gender Tool Kit—Instruments for Gender Mainstreaming* (Berne, Switzerland: SDC, n.d.).

CHECKLIST: MATERIALS AND SOURCES OF INFORMATION

- Mission gender assessments
- Official national- and regional-level data and statistics
- Periodic reports to UN human rights committees, conclusions, and shadow reports
- Reports by UN and regional intergovernmental organizations
- Reports/assessments by other donors
- Reports by NGOs
- Materials prepared by implementers
- Research and reports produced by think tanks and research institutes worldwide, especially the E&E region, and countries that have graduated from USAID assistance.

CHECKLIST: POTENTIAL EXPERTS AND STAKEHOLDERS

- Representatives from national, local or community government
- Staff from international, donor and development organizations
- Local gender experts: NGOs, academics/researchers, journalists, etc.
- Implementers
- Potential beneficiaries

GOOD PRACTICE: USING A PARTICIPATORY PROCESS AND INVOLVING STAKEHOLDERS

It is a good practice when conducting gender analysis to involve women and men directly in the process. Participation can take several forms: discussions with experts, meetings with stakeholders, and seeking information from potential beneficiaries. This practice can be carried out in connection with identifying sources of information, since there is some overlap in the types of materials to review and the experts to meet.

Because gender differences can be quite nuanced and difficult to capture through statistics or surveys, discussions with experts can prove especially fruitful. Such experts may include staff of other donor or international

organizations, particularly gender experts. In many countries, there are government agencies or institutions dedicated to women's issues or gender equality. Relevant ministries may have gender focal points, and some national parliaments have specialized committees on gender equality. Local gender experts can also be found in NGOs, and among academics or media professionals. Implementers of similar projects may be able to provide valuable information based on their experiences.

Ideally, when designing a project, potential beneficiaries should be included in the gender analysis process in order to test assumptions about how men and

women will be able to participate in and benefit from the project.

The participatory process should allow both women and men to provide information. In some sectors where there are distinct gender imbalances, it may be necessary to take special measures to ensure that the views of both sexes are represented. In conducting meetings, round tables, or focus groups, bear in mind that women or men may feel constrained in expressing their opinions on certain subjects in a mixed group setting. It will be necessary to develop a data collection methodology that ensures that women and men can voice their views equally.

TIP: Remember that this stage of gender analysis need not be limited to assessing gender-based constraints. The unique gender roles of women and men could also offer useful opportunities for programming when properly recognized and considered.

4.2 CONDUCTING GENDER ANALYSIS BY SECTOR

The guidance notes on the following pages are designed to apply the above recommendations for carrying out gender analysis work in a variety of specific sectors. Each note is organized as follows:

- **Why consider gender?** This section provides a conceptual background on the relevance of gender to a particular sector and articulates why gender issues need to be taken into account to ensure that projects will be effective.
- **Gender issues in the region.** This section describes the most significant gender issues relevant to the sector in the E&E region and will help to narrow the area of inquiry for the gender analysis. The subsequent analysis will itself likely uncover additional issues and a more nuanced perspective, but this overview will serve as an orientation to the critical issues.
- **Key questions to guide gender analysis.** A series of questions are provided in each guidance note to help readers carry out the gender analysis. These questions can help frame the search for information and/or research, and they can be directed to experts and stakeholders.

During the analysis, additional and more focused questions will almost certainly arise, but the questions that are provided in this Toolkit are meant to serve as an illustrative starting point. The key questions are grouped into broad categories as follows; note that the last three sets of questions are the areas of inquiry common to all gender analysis frameworks:

- **Sex-disaggregated data and information.** These questions are a reminder of the basic types of data and statistics that should be located and consulted (where they exist).
- **Background and context.** These questions are aimed at helping to articulate the context that affects gender equality in the given sector. Unlike the questions posed under the Six Domains Framework and other gender analysis methodologies, which are inquiries about the status and roles of individual women and men, contextual questions help identify other factors, such as the existence of laws, policies, or stereotypes that would promote or hinder gender equality.
- **Gender roles and responsibilities.** These questions also aim to uncover information about gender norms and expectations.
- **Access to and control over assets and resources.**
- **Patterns of power and decision making.**
- **Resources.** Several types of sample resources are provided for further reference. These materials provide an overview of the accepted practices for addressing gender issues in a given field. Some provide qualitative and quantitative information relevant to a particular field and the E&E region. Other resources are policy guidelines on how to address the intersections of gender and sectoral issues. This information helps in the formulation of targeted questions during the analysis, and provides suggestions for program design that is responsive to gender differences.

ILLUSTRATION

Imagine an activity designed to build the capacity of political parties. A review of basic statistics would reveal the number of men and women in the country's political parties and in political office by party. The number of women in party leadership positions

could also be determined. Further analysis and expert opinions could then be considered to reveal some of the reasons why women hold specific positions in political parties or why they are largely absent.

CHECKLIST: MINIMUM KEY AREAS OF INQUIRY

- Why is gender relevant to this sector?
- What are the key gender issues?
- What affects gender equality in a given sector (e.g. laws, policies, or stereotypes)?
- What roles and responsibilities do women and men have?
 - Who does what?
 - What are the dominant gender norms and how is labor divided along gender lines?
- Who has access to which particular assets or resources?
- Who has control over which resources at various levels?
- Who holds power and makes decisions in particular contexts?

TIP: Remember that gender analysis should be conducted early in the activity planning process and alongside other project-level analysis. The results of the gender analysis can then be taken into consideration in the subsequent stages of project planning and synthesized into a final logical framework and project design.

Even though the guidance notes present information by individual sector, there is likely to be overlap across sectors. For example, women's NGOs provide critical services to victims of domestic violence, but constraints on civil society organizations may limit their effectiveness in this area. The media can play a role in perpetuating gender-based stereotypes about women's suitability for political office. To best capture this overlap, review guidance notes for sectors outside of the specific programming area, as well as the notes on crosscutting issues such as gender and disability.

GENDER & AGRICULTURE

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the "Resources" section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.

WHY CONSIDER GENDER?

Women make important contributions to agricultural production through paid employment on commercial farms and unpaid work on family farms, both for home and market consumption. In many countries and societies, women's specific role in agriculture is not recognized. Women have less access than men to important resources—such as land, fertilizers, seed varieties, livestock, and farming equipment—and services—including extension services, training in new technologies, and financial services.

Women are also underrepresented in decision making positions at the political level with regard to agricultural policy, and at the household level in terms of deciding how

income from farming is used for household purchases.

It is common for women to be extensively involved in agricultural production, yet lack ownership of the land they work. Women are less likely to have access to credit and lending schemes given their lower economic status generally, limited property ownership, and lack of collateral for loans. Women's work on family farms is an important contributor to food production and family budgets. However, because such work is often considered part of their domestic responsibilities, women are often not formally considered to be farmers or businesswomen in terms of their inclusion in agricultural development and entrepreneurship programs.

Increasing attention has been given to the gendered nature of value chains in agricultural production—specifically, where women and men are represented along value chains from production of agricultural goods to processing, marketing, delivery, and sale to consumers. Women are less likely to be involved in the production of high-value commodities.

GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

Women's participation in agriculture, as compared

to men's, varies across the E&E region, and patterns of engagement differ from those in other regions. In only two countries, Azerbaijan and Bosnia and Herzegovina, does the percentage of the economically active population in agriculture consist of over 50 percent women (54 percent and 59 percent, respectively). When looking at the total population engaged in agriculture, the share of women ranges from less than a quarter (Armenia, Belarus, Russia) to over two-thirds (Albania, Georgia, Montenegro, Serbia).¹

The historical context affects women's participation in the agricultural sector in the E&E region. The E&E region as a whole had a higher level of female labor force participation in agriculture under communism than at the present time. According to figures from 1980, of all economically active women in the Soviet Union and Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, respectively 20 percent and 32 percent worked in agriculture. In 1980, women accounted for 46 percent of the agricultural labor force and 53

1. UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), *The State of Food and Agriculture 2010–2011: Women in Agriculture, Closing the Gender Gap for Development* (Rome, Italy: FAO, 2011); this report considers all of the countries in the E&E region to be developed.



MOZAIK FOUNDATION

percent of the same population in the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia.² In most countries of the E&E region, 10 percent or less of economically active women are employed in agriculture today. As of 2010, only Albania and Azerbaijan had a similarly high representation of working women in the agricultural sector.³

During the communist era, women made up a large number of collective farm workers, but they were not represented to the same degree as chairpersons of state and collective farms. A great many of the women working in the agricultural sector were employed in administrative and service sector jobs. These women did not necessarily gain direct experience in farming practices and agricultural technology. Research suggests that women who are successful today in agribusiness were those who held leadership positions on state and collective farms. This raises another issue: female farmers today represent an elderly population, and few young women choose to pursue either higher education or careers in agriculture.

During the transition period, land and agricultural production

2. FAO, *The State of Food and Agriculture 2010–2011*.

3. Note that the Central Asian Republics accounted for a large portion of the Soviet female labor force working in agriculture and still demonstrate quite high levels of women employed in this sector. These countries, however, are not included in the USAID E&E region.

were transferred from state-controlled cooperatives to privately held enterprises or to households. There has been limited study of how women participated in and ultimately benefited from such land reform, but it is known that women were disadvantaged in privatization schemes, both in terms of job losses and less access to land and property. Thus, today, men control more assets. For example, experts estimate that women in Russia obtained only 5–7 percent of all privatized assets, and women in Moldova gained only 1 percent of assets after privatization.⁴ There is some variation, however, depending on type of asset and country. Compare, for example, the situation in Ukraine, where women own about 50 percent of the private dwellings in cities, to that in Montenegro, where a countrywide survey found that 8 percent of homeowners, 6 percent of car owners, and 1 percent of business/company owners are women—accounting for ownership of only 1 percent of all private property.⁵

Privatization and restitution of farmland was made to families, but the male household

4. Oksana Kissyelova, “Women’s Economic Empowerment and Access to Financing and Assets in CIS Countries: Issues, Good Practices and Policy Options” (UN Regional Symposium on Mainstreaming Gender into Economic Policies, United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, Geneva, January 28–30, 2004).

5. Kissyelova, “Women’s Economic Empowerment.”

head was formally listed or registered as the landowner. This situation is illustrated in Albania, where rural families received a portion of land through privatization schemes, but only the name of the male head of household appears on the title. Nonetheless, despite this lack of formal ownership, it is estimated that women manage approximately half of the family farms in the country.⁶

Conflict in the region and high rates of labor migration (specifically in the Balkans and Caucasus) have resulted in women playing a greater role in agricultural work when men are absent.

Women farmers are less likely to own land and are overrepresented in small-scale agricultural work. Women have the same legal rights to inherit and own property as men in the E&E region, but custom and tradition play a significant role in limiting women’s de facto ability to own land. Describing the region comprising Eastern Europe and Central Asia, which includes the E&E region, the World Bank notes that even when property is divided equally among heirs, women in some ethnic groups are required by tradition to give up their inheritance in favor of

6. Catherine Cozzarelli, *2010 Gender Assessment for USAID/Albania* (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2010).

male relatives.⁷ Further, titles and deeds to land are often only in the name of the head of household, generally a male. Because women are less likely to hold titles to private land, they may also lack the ability to make decisions about land use.

As a general rule in the E&E region, women are underrepresented in large-scale commercial agricultural business as either owners or employees; they are much more likely to work on small and individual holdings. For most of the region, such small private plots and home gardens supply important products for family consumption and are sources of additional household income. Women generally have limited decision making power in terms of how such household income is used. As noted above, titles to private land are most often held by the male head of household, which has implications for women's ability to make decisions about the land.

The agricultural sector exhibits clear divisions of labor, with women more likely to provide early-stage farm labor and men more likely to be involved in transporting goods to market and sales. Such divisions of labor, and their implications for projects that aim to improve

7. Victoria Stanley and Samantha Di Martino, *Assessing Land Administration Project's Gender Impacts in the Western Balkans—Country Case Studies: Albania, Bosnia-Herzegovina and Montenegro* (Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 2011).

value chains in the agricultural sector, should be analyzed.

Access to productive resources and markets differs for women and men.

In addition to limited access to land, women also have lower access to various productive resources, such as fertilizers, pesticides, and improved seed varieties. Comparing female- and male-headed households in Albania and Bulgaria (as well as in other non-E&E countries), the World Bank found that the use of fertilizers, mechanization, and access to markets by female-headed households was lower than for male-headed households.⁸ According to a survey conducted in Montenegro, 6 percent of males owned agricultural machinery as compared to 1 percent of female respondents.⁹ Other resources to consider in a gender analysis include livestock, equipment, business premises, water/irrigation (including water management), credit, and agricultural education and training.

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

The following are suggestions to guide gender analysis relevant to agriculture in the E&E region. Note that USAID has also been involved in the development of the Women's Empowerment

8. World Bank, *World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development* (Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 2011).

9. Stanley and Di Martino, *Assessing Land Administration Project's Gender Impacts*.

in Agriculture Index (WEAI), which was piloted in three non-E&E countries. The WEAI is a composite measurement tool that assesses women's empowerment in five domains: agricultural production, resources, income, leadership, and time. It may be useful to also review the WEAI analysis framework.

Sex-disaggregated data

- How many female-owned and -operated farms exist? How many male-owned and -operated farms exist?
- How many males and females are borrowing funds under agricultural assistance, loan, or microcredit projects?

Background and context

- Have any surveys been conducted that describe the types of farming activities men and women engage in, the types of production, and the size of the business?
- What share of female-headed households is engaged in agricultural work?

Gender roles and responsibilities

- Are there any programs or initiatives to raise women's awareness about their equal rights to own land and property? Are there efforts to educate men about the importance of women's rights to property and inheritance?
- In which positions are women represented in the agricultural labor force? Are women

active in both subsistence and cash crop production?

- In what sectors are women and men represented as owners, managers, and employees? (Compare various crops/products, livestock, honey production, etc.)
- What are the different workloads of men and women at various stages of the farming process? How is labor divided between men and women? (Examine each component of production—e.g., seed selection, land preparation, planting, weeding, cultivation, storage, processing, transportation, and marketing.)
- Are there seasonal differences in when men and women perform agricultural work?
- Where are women and men represented along agricultural value chains? What is the impact of differences in labor?
- Do changes in household (for example, due to labor migration) change the gender division of labor?

Access to and control over assets and resources

- What is the proportion of women's ownership of land compared to men's?
- Are there any legal or customary barriers to women's ownership or inheritance of land?
- To what extent do women have access to productive

resources and services relevant to agribusiness? What barriers may exist for women in accessing these resources and services?

- Do male and female farmers have equal knowledge of agricultural technologies? Do they have equal access to extension and advisory services?
- Do male and female farmers have equal access to education relevant to agriculture, for example technical and vocational education and training (TVET) or continuing education?
- Are credit and loan programs accessible to women engaged in agricultural production? What barriers may exist for women in accessing credit?
- Is information available to ascertain whether women-owned farms and enterprises are actually operated by women?

Patterns of power and decision making

- Do women and men have equal influence over decisions pertaining to the use of farm-related resources, activities, and profits on jointly owned farms?
- To what extent are women represented in farmer's cooperatives, unions, water users' associations, or other organizations at the local level?
- To what extent are women represented among senior

staff in key planning bodies responsible for agricultural reform and policy (ministries, cabinet posts, parliamentary committees, etc.)?

- Are there women's groups or other NGOs active in the areas of agricultural reform or supporting women farmers/agricultural workers?

RESOURCES

[A Guide to Integrating Gender into Agricultural Value Chains](#), WID/ USAID (2010).

[Agriculture for Development: The Gender Dimensions](#), USAID (2008).

[Agriculture: Gender Makes the Difference](#), The World Conservation Union Fact Sheet (IUCN).

[Agricultural value chain development: Threat or opportunity for women's employment?](#), Gender and Rural Employment Policy Brief No. 4, FAO, IFAD, ILO (2010).

[Gender Checklist: Agriculture](#), Asian Development Bank (2006).

[Gender Integration for Agriculture: The Complete Technical Brief Series](#), USAID (2011).

[Gender in Agriculture Bibliography](#), Women Thrive Worldwide (2011).

[The State of Food and Agriculture 2010–2011: Women in Agriculture. Closing the Gender Gap for Development](#), FAO (2011).

[Tips for Integrating Gender into USAID Agriculture Sector Solicitations](#), USAID (2010).

[Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index](#), USAID, IFPRI, and OPHI (2012).

GENDER & ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENT

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the "Resources" section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.

WHY CONSIDER GENDER

USAID aims to expand access to modern energy services while ensuring that natural resources remain available. Energy and environmental programs are interconnected, because supporting the development of safe and reliable sources of energy also helps maintain the environment.

Although both men and women make use of natural resources and are consumers of energy, gender differences appear in this sector in several ways. Due to their different household roles, men and women have different energy needs and consumption patterns. Energy shortages also affect men and women differently. For example, in rural areas, women are generally responsible for gathering fuel and managing water and waste disposal for the household. Men are more likely than women to be employed in large-scale collection, transportation, and management of natural resources and waste. In urban areas, electricity shortages not only complicate household tasks but can compromise women's safety when street lighting is inadequate or lacking. Women are also more likely to be impoverished, especially female heads of household and single mothers, making access

to affordable energy service especially important for women.

Although everyone is affected by environmental changes, environmental degradation can have distinct effects on men and women. For example, small landowners and subsistence farmers, many of whom are women, are especially vulnerable to declines in crop yields brought about by climate change. Men are more likely to work in industries that are linked to environmental degradation, such as natural resource extraction, and thus

have a higher risk of exposure to harmful substances and pollutants. Therefore, men should be engaged with the process of adopting new practices and technologies that will protect their personal health and safety as well as the environment generally. Although women are underrepresented in the professional energy workforce in all regions, they are often expected to take on responsibilities for safe water and clean environments at the community level as part of their traditional domestic and social functions.



GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

In the E&E region, USAID energy programs focus primarily on improving the function and output of energy facilities and energy sector reform, such as utilities regulation. The transition period has shown that power supplies in many countries are inadequate, and infrastructure is outdated and in need of improvement. In addition to experiencing shortages of clean water, rural areas often lack access to gas pipelines and sanitation services. Urban areas experience periodic electrical power cuts and problems with water cleanliness. Public buildings in particular, including schools and clinics, may experience power insufficiencies in the form of interruptions to the electricity supply or lack of heating.

Women and men have distinct energy needs that are related to their specific gender roles.

Understanding the gender dimensions of energy reform projects requires looking at how men and women consume energy, their different energy needs, and how insufficiencies have a differential impact.

For example, women are generally responsible for household tasks such as cooking, cleaning, laundering, and caring for children. Access to electricity and clean water at home is thus especially important for women. In general, men are considered the household head and thus are primarily responsible for

paying for utilities. As many E&E countries move toward individual energy metering systems, it will be important to engage both with men regarding affordability of services and billing and with women, as the main household consumers of energy, about energy efficiency.

Women also make up the majority of employees in state institutions, such as kindergartens, schools, hospitals, and cultural institutions, many of which are housed in poorly maintained public buildings. Energy efficiency and biomass projects aiming to enhance heating in public buildings and provide street lighting, for example, can bring immediate and important improvements to women's lives.

In the E&E region, development organizations have promoted women's microenterprise as a means to earn additional household income and a method to empower women and improve their economic independence.

However, less consideration has been given to ensuring that the energy needs of small entrepreneurs are also being met. Many women's microbusinesses (e.g., food processing), are home-based as well as labor and energy intensive. Women's access to adequate and affordable energy—as well as to energy-efficient equipment—becomes an important component of promoting women's small

businesses, especially in rural areas.

The differential impact of environmental issues and climate change on men and women requires greater study.

USAID environmental programs in the E&E region include, but are not limited to, waste management and recycling (Kosovo, the Republic of Macedonia, Ukraine), energy efficiency (Georgia, the Republic of Macedonia, and Russia), water management (South Caucasus), and the introduction of clean and renewable energy sources (Georgia, Russia). Little if any data are available in the region about the gender-related impacts of energy insufficiencies and environmental degradation. The region has a history of active NGOs that address environmental and ecological issues, but these organizations do not necessarily take a gender-sensitive approach.

Some countries in the E&E region manifest clear gender divisions of labor, and how the specific actions of men and women may affect the environment should be considered. For example, women may be more involved in collecting water and fuel for home heating and cooking and disposal of household rubbish, while men are more likely to use and dispose of toxic products (chemical fertilizers, car fuel). Environmental programs should take such gender roles into account, and provide men and

women with targeted messages and education about how to minimize their impact on the environment.

There has been limited assessment of attitudinal differences between women and men toward environmental issues, but studies suggest that perceptions do differ. For example, a survey in Georgia related to natural resource use indicated that women placed priority on issues pertaining to their immediate needs, in this case clean water for drinking and irrigation.¹ A survey conducted in Azerbaijan found that there were few gender differences in perceptions of critical environmental problems facing the country, but men were considerably more likely than women to identify the destruction of forests as an issue.²

Women are underrepresented in formal policymaking positions related to energy reform and environmental issues. As elsewhere in the world, women are underrepresented in energy-related institutions in the E&E region. This disparity is due in part to the privatization process, which saw the transfer of energy sector institutions to private holding. Because energy

1. Elisabeth Duban, *Gender Assessment USAID/Georgia* (Washington, D.C.: USAID and DevTech Systems, Inc., 2010).
2. UNDP, *Azerbaijan Human Development Report 2007—Gender Attitudes in Azerbaijan: Trends and Challenges* (Baku, Azerbaijan: UNDP, 2007).

institutions are male dominated, positive measures must be taken to ensure that women's needs and priorities are also taken into consideration in reform programs.

Women are well represented in civil society across the E&E region and have been active in community-level environmental activities. At the same time, their representation in government positions relevant to the environment or the use of natural resources is low. Any planned environmental and energy projects should take care not to reinforce stereotypes that women are responsible for resolving local problems, such as waste disposal or water use, but are not involved in making high-level policy decisions about resource management.

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

Sex-disaggregated data

- How many men and women serve in top political positions related to energy and environmental decision making (ministries, councils, or state agencies)?
- What is the ratio of females to males working as activists in environmental NGOs?
- Are data available about the incidence of health problems (e.g., respiratory problems, waterborne diseases, or other illnesses) among males and females that may be related to environmental degradation

“ Evidence from throughout the developing world suggests that a focus on productive, often male-dominated, energy services has neglected the complementarity of productive and reproductive activities in rural households. This has led to interventions that are not only gender-biased, but are also less effective for poverty reduction.”

LORENA AGUILAR, GENDER MAKES THE DIFFERENCE: ENERGY, 2004

(e.g., poor air and water quality, toxic contamination)?

Background and context

- Have any household-level surveys been conducted that provide information about male and female energy consumption patterns and needs as well as on household expenditure on utilities?
- Are there any studies of the gendered impacts of climate change in the country?

Gender roles and responsibilities

- What is the gender division of labor in urban and rural areas, and how does this implicate energy use and environmental factors (e.g., who collects fuel for heat and cooking, who collects water, who disposes of waste, who maintains cars and equipment, etc.)? In what environments do women and men work?

- What are the energy consumption levels of women and men?
- Could the provision of new energy resources or technology mean longer working hours for women (e.g., could electrification lead to extended working hours)?

Access to and control over assets and resources

- How accessible and affordable is clean energy to women and men? How accessible is it female-headed households or single mothers?
- Do women and men have equal knowledge of the links between environmental degradation and energy production and consumption?
- How aware are men and women of ways to improve

energy efficiency and of new technologies that could improve energy efficiency both at the workplace and home?

Patterns of power and decision making

- Do men and women participate equally in decision making in energy management at the household level?
- To what extent are women represented among senior staff in key planning bodies (ministries, cabinet posts, parliamentary committees, etc.) responsible for energy/ environmental policy?
- Are there women's groups or other NGOs active in energy efficiency, environmental education, or conservation?

RESOURCES

[*Energy: Gender Makes the Difference*](#), The World Conservation Union Fact Sheet (IUCN), Chemonics (2004).

[*Fact Sheet: Climate Change and Gender*](#), USAID/Office of Women in Development (2010).

[*Gender and Energy for Sustainable Development: A Toolkit and Resource Guide*](#), UNDP (2004).

[*Gender and Environment: A Guide to the Integration of Gender Aspects in OSCE's Environmental Projects*](#), OSCE (2009).

[*Land and Environment: Gendernet Practice Notes*](#), AusAID (1997).

[*Women and the Environment*](#), UNEP (2004).

GENDER & POLITICAL PROCESSES

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the “Resources” section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.

WHY CONSIDER GENDER

USAID programming aims to strengthen political processes by ensuring that elections are free and fair and that citizens



ADAM ADAMUS

have the opportunity to choose their representatives at all levels of governance. To consider gender in programs on political processes means keeping in mind that men and women have differing needs and varied views about governance and politics, as well as distinct interests in political processes. Balanced gender representation and participation in political processes are closely tied to ensuring that men and women can exercise choices regarding political, social, and economic issues. Lack of political representation can lead to social and economic exclusion. Integrating a gender perspective in this sector requires ensuring that the interests of both male and female citizens are addressed equally and adequately.

Gender-sensitive projects or activities in the political processes sector address the systemic barriers that maintain women's low levels of political representation and aim to increase women's participation in public decision making. USAID projects also build the capacity of political parties and elected leaders to respond to the gender-specific interests of all citizens.

In conducting gender analysis and during project design, it

is useful to think about these two dimensions of gender-equitable participation in political processes. Also keep in mind that while the immediate objective is more balanced participation in structures of governance, this is not the ultimate goal. Balanced participation is “a means toward improved quality of governance [which] should help foster gender-awareness in political processes and policy practice.”¹

GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

Women are underrepresented in political office and lack the “critical mass” to influence decision making. A key concern for the E&E region is women's limited representation at all levels of government, including elected office. Women's political representation in a number of E&E countries has been steadily decreasing during the transition years. At the highest level—national legislatures—women occupy fewer than 20 percent of the parliamentary seats in most of the countries in the E&E region. In several nations, female members account for 10 percent or less of the parliament.

1. UNDP Regional Bureau for Europe and the CIS, *Gender Mainstreaming in Practice: A Toolkit—Part II: Sectoral Briefs* (Bratislava, Slovak Republic, UNDP, 2007).

Patterns of women's political participation at the local level show considerably more variation than at the national level. In several countries, including Russia and Ukraine, women's representation decreases as the level of political office rises. So while women may hold up to half of the positions on village councils, they struggle to obtain a significant number of parliamentary seats. Among other countries, including Azerbaijan and Bosnia and Herzegovina, women are underrepresented at the local level, in self-governing authorities, and at the national level.

A trend apparent in the entire region is the absence of women in executive positions from the municipal (mayor) to the regional (governor) and national levels (president). Of course, singular examples exist of women holding high-level office, generally ministerial or cabinet posts, but women who are employed in government tend to be concentrated in administrative civil service positions.

The region as a whole lacks the critical mass of women decision makers needed to advance common policy agendas and represent the interests of female citizens. Critical mass in this regard is considered to be at least 30 percent.

Lack of coalition building among female politicians. A corollary to the fact that women have not obtained critical mass in political

office is the lack of successful coalition building among female politicians in the region. Partly because there are few women members of parliament, very few national parliaments have strong women's caucuses. Where such caucuses do exist, they tend to be controlled by the dominant party and thus to vote along party lines rather than showing a broader concern for women's interests. Women's rights activists in the region note that female members of parliament do not necessarily support a women's rights agenda because they are women. Since gender issues are closely associated with the advancement of women in the region, male members of parliament are rarely involved in the promotion of gender equality.

Women face specific barriers to participating in governance. The lack of political party support for female candidates is a critical barrier. As a general rule, women are represented and active within political parties in the region, but they tend to occupy administrative rather than leadership roles. For this reason, they are often not placed sufficiently high on party lists to be viable candidates. Impediments to women's entering local-level politics also limit their opportunities to gain skills in governance (such as leadership, networking, and coalition building) and slow or even halt their progress up the political ladder.

Women's generally lower economic status, and their limited role in lucrative sectors such as big business, means they lack the financial and social capital needed to run campaigns.

It is not uncommon for political decisions, such as about which candidates a party will put forward, to be made in informal settings that are not accessible to women. In Kosovo, female politicians claim, "the main decisions are systematically made in settings not accessible to women, with meetings being held in coffee bars or restaurants late at night when female politicians are at home with their families and children."²

As in most other regions, a political career is demanding and difficult to reconcile with family obligations. In E&E countries, women are expected to take on a disproportionate share of family responsibilities, which puts them at a disadvantage in terms of the time needed to be politically active. Young women are especially likely to be responsible for the care of small children, which impinges on their ability to take part in political work or civic activism.

Gender stereotypes, cultural traditions, and patriarchal attitudes—specifically that

2. Ariana Qosaj-Mustafa, *Strengthening Women's Citizenship: Kosovo Security Sector and Decentralisation* (Pristina, Kosovo: KIPRED and FRIDE, 2010). Anecdotal information also exists of decisions being made in other all-male settings such as saunas or clubs.

politics is a “man’s business” and not suitable for women—also come into play. Further, women’s political voices are generally lacking in the media, which reinforces stereotypes about women in leadership roles.

Positive measures targeting political parties are being developed in the region, but further reform is needed. Quotas referring to the proportion of men and women on political party lists are a common measure used to increase the number of women in political office. Often, quotas mandate the number of women and men on political party lists (generally no less than 30 percent of either sex) and define the distribution of party members on party lists (generally using a “zebra” principle requiring that men’s and women’s names alternate on party lists). Quotas have been adopted in a limited number of countries in the E&E region. Some countries have established quotas but do not use the zebra principle, which results in women appearing low on party lists and thus not obtaining parliamentary seats.

Within the region, Albania, Armenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo, the Republic of Macedonia, and Serbia have adopted measures to improve gender balance. These measures include legislated quotas referring to the proportion and placement of women on political party lists and financial incentives

for political parties to include women. Only Kosovo and the Republic of Macedonia have achieved more than 30 percent representation of women in parliament through the use of special measures such as quotas. Initiatives to implement quotas under election codes have been defeated in several countries. In some countries, political parties have voluntarily created women’s factions or gender equality action plans, which is a positive development. In addition to the use of special measures to improve women’s participation in politics, further efforts are needed to improve retention of women in political office. In some countries, Armenia for example, a trend has been observed in which women who gained parliamentary seats through quotas have stepped down and been replaced by male politicians.

On the whole, parties remain rather weak in terms of advancing political platforms and are not highly responsive to voters. Few parties have the capacity to address gender issues specifically. Women’s NGOs in several countries have also voiced concern over the rise of nationalist movements and parties that support conservative and patriarchal views of the role of women in society.

In some countries, women do not freely exercise the right to vote. There appear to be

no significant gender-based constraints to exercising the right to vote in the region. A key exception is the practice of family or proxy voting, which has been documented in Azerbaijan, some communities in Georgia, and the Republic of Macedonia. Family voting occurs when the male head of the household decides how the female family members will vote. He may accompany female relatives to the polling booth or may vote on their behalf.

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

Sex-disaggregated data

- How many women and men serve at all levels of political office, from local self-governing bodies to national parliaments?
- How many women and men are members of political parties, and what is their placement on party lists?
- How many women and men are politically appointed to positions in government offices (e.g., ministerial or cabinet posts) or hold prominent ranks in the civil service?

Background and context

- Has the country legislated any measures to improve the balance of men and women in political parties, for example, in its election code? Are any such initiatives under way?

- Do any of the majority parties have special factions or divisions devoted to gender issues, gender equality, or women?
- Have any of the majority parties adopted action plans on gender equality or undertaken internal gender audits?
- To what extent do political parties raise or address gender or women's issues during campaigns or as part of their platform?
- Are there any caucuses, committees, or working groups in the national parliament devoted to such topics as women's rights, gender equality, or human rights?
- If so, what are the functions of these bodies? Who are their members? How influential or effective have they been regarding policymaking?
- Do similar bodies exist at the level of regional or local politics?
- How are civil society groups involved in mobilizing women to participate in public decision making and the exercise of their rights?

Gender roles and responsibilities

- What is the impact of women's child care and family responsibilities on access to political office? Is the impact the same for men?

- What positions and roles do women generally hold in political parties?
- What are the dominant gender-based stereotypes about the abilities of men and women to successfully hold political office?
- How do the media portray female and male candidates during campaigns as well as female and male politicians?

Access to and control over assets and resources

- To what extent do women have access to the financial assets needed to run for political office as compared to men?
- To what extent do women have access to other physical assets such as communication technology or to social assets, such as networks, as compared to men?
- To what extent do women have access to leadership training or skill-building opportunities as compared to men?

Patterns of power and decisionmaking

- How are women represented in decision making in national, regional, and local governance and political parties as well as at the household and community levels?
- Do women generally hold leadership roles outside of governance (e.g., in

professional associations and committees, trade unions, company boards, academic institutions, NGOs, etc.)?

- Are women able to vote freely and independently?

RESOURCES

[*Democracy and the Challenge of Change: A Guide to Increasing Women's Political Participation*](#), National Democratic Institute (2010).

[*Empowering Women for Stronger Political Parties: A Guidebook to Promote Women's Political Participation*](#), UNDP (2012).

[*Enhancing Women's Political Participation: A Policy Note for Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States*](#), UNDP and National Democratic Institute (2009).

[*Gender Equality in Elected Office: A Six Step Action Plan*](#), OSCE/ODIHR (2011).

[*Gender Mainstreaming in Practice: A Toolkit, Part II: Sectoral Briefs*](#), UNDP (2007).

[*Guidelines for Enhancing Women's Representation and Participation in Politics within Members of the Countries of the International Gender Policy Network*](#), (n.d.).

[*Handbook for Monitoring Women's Participation in Elections*](#), OSCE/ODIHR (2004).

[*The Quota Project*](#), Global Database of Quotas for Women

[*Women in National Parliaments*](#) (statistics), Inter-Parliamentary Union

GENDER & GOVERNANCE

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the “Resources” section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.



ZANA BUDIMA

WHY CONSIDER GENDER

Essential features of a democratic system of governance are effectiveness, representativeness, transparency, accountability, and responsiveness to citizens' needs. In the E&E region, USAID focuses on strengthening the institutions of government and public sector reform.

Men and women have differing needs, varied perspectives about governance, and distinct interests; thus, both male and female citizens should be included in governance and oversight processes.

It is often assumed that women will benefit equally from

reform. In fact, laws, policies, and regulations that are neutral on their face can affect men and women differently and inadvertently disadvantage women. Gender expertise is a term that refers to a process of evaluating draft laws, current national legislation, and other legal acts to ensure that they comply with international human rights standards on gender equality. Gender-responsive governance includes the routine application of gender expertise in parallel with legal and policy reform processes. It is critical that government officials be aware of gender equality provisions in laws and policies and be able to implement

them. The existence of specific legislation, plans, and strategies, as well as governmental units for coordinating policy on the advancement of women or gender equality (known collectively as “national machinery”) are also indicators of effective democratic governance.

GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

Women are underrepresented in national-level governance but may have more influence at the local level. A characteristic of the E&E region is the relatively high number of women employed in civil service and administrative positions in government while having a very low representation in high-level decision making positions. Many countries also exhibit an informal stratification in which women tend to be represented in ministries or parliamentary committees concerned with health care, social welfare, education, and

Taking gender into consideration means understanding that effective governance is responsive to the distinct interests of men and women, is accountable to male and female citizens, and is a system in which men and women are equally represented.

culture and underrepresented in the counterpart bodies dealing with issues such as economic reform, finance, energy, internal affairs, and defense. This circumstance should be kept in mind in developing any project that involves policy reform: if women are not adequately represented, will their views be included in policy discussions?

In theory, women have greater opportunities to be politically active at the local level, and certainly have distinct concerns and priorities for local community development projects. However, because few women are represented in formal decision making roles at the local level—as mayors, for instance—their influence over local decisions is limited.

Government bodies for the promotion of gender equality have been established in most countries, but policy implementation remains a challenge. All countries in the E&E region recognize the principle of gender equality, either in national constitutions or, in many cases, through stand-alone laws on equal rights and opportunities between men and women. A great many countries have also developed national action plans and strategies for the promotion of gender equality as well as national machinery to carry out these tasks and monitor policy implementation. Some state programs are oriented toward improving the status of women,

while others aim for gender equality more generally.

There are several good examples of action plans that address issues affecting women. Some address issues that disproportionately affect women, such as domestic violence or trafficking in persons. Sometimes action plans address issues faced by a specific group of minority women. Sector-specific plans sometimes include gender-sensitive provisions (e.g., on small business development, agricultural development, or employment).. However, there are still gaps in which state policy is developed in a gender-neutral manner. For example, a number of countries have articulated national policies on youth that do not necessarily take into consideration important differences between young men and women.

National machinery on gender equality in the region takes varied forms, such as parliamentary or governmental committees, ministerial departments or divisions, stand-alone agencies, and governmental focal points for gender equality at the national and local levels. The effectiveness of such national machinery varies considerably by country and should be analyzed closely. Some common tendencies have been noted, including the following:

- Policies exist on paper but have not been fully realized in practice.

- Gender equality principles are not mainstreamed in governance processes, and government officials often lack knowledge of such policies.
- Funding and political will are insufficient, and coordination is lacking between government agencies responsible for implementing gender equality mandates.
- Several countries have created gender focal points, operating in ministries or local government. However, such staff often lack specific training or clear mandates and have not been very effective in enhancing coordination around gender issues.

On the other hand, there are examples in several E&E countries of good practices ensuring that government effectively addresses gender issues, such as through projects to build capacity in the collection of sex-disaggregated data and to undertake gender budgeting exercises in which state expenditures are analyzed for differential impacts on men and women.

Attention to the inclusion of women in formal decision making and peace processes is a positive development in the region that should be supported. UN Security Council Resolution 1325 (2000) articulates an important role for women in the prevention and resolution of conflict and calls for their equal participation and involvement in decision making

at all levels (national, regional, and international institutions) and in mechanisms for the prevention, management, and resolution of conflict.¹ To date, 34 countries worldwide have developed national action plans to implement the resolution, including two in the E&E region (Bosnia and Herzegovina and Serbia) and several from Western and Eastern Europe. Other countries, including Georgia and the Republic of Macedonia, are developing such national action plans. Women's representation in formal peace negotiations and peace-building institutions remains low, however; in such countries as Albania, Armenia, Moldova, Montenegro, and Ukraine.² Women's NGOs in Kosovo have been especially active in pressuring the government for women's inclusion in peace processes. Given the significance of post-conflict issues for the E&E region and women's underrepresentation in political office generally, support for the development of further measures to realize the aims of Security Council Resolution 1325 could be supported as an element of accountable governance.

Women's NGOs have limited influence on policy setting and reform. Women's NGOs have been involved in the

1. UN Security Council, "Resolution 1325" (S/RES/1325) (2000).

2. OSCE, *The Gender Monitor*, Issue No. 6 (Vienna: OSCE, December 2011).

development of national action plans and strategies in several countries. However, women's civil society groups also point out that they are included in policy discussions when the topic is explicitly about gender or an issue affecting women, such as domestic violence, but are seldom invited for discussions of such issues as finance reform, post-conflict reconstruction, or energy policy. The limited engagement between civil society and government is a concern for the region overall. Because women are distinctly underrepresented in government posts, it is especially important to empower women in other ways so that their views are reflected in policy debates.

Anticorruption initiatives have not integrated gender perspectives or involved women's NGOs in particular. Corruption remains a serious issue in much of the E&E region. Steps have been taken to address the problem, including through citizen oversight, civil society watchdog groups, and institutions such as human rights commissioners or ombudspersons. While singular examples certainly exist of efforts to address corruption in areas that affect women—such as illegal payments for prenatal health care—by and large, anticorruption efforts have not integrated a gender perspective. There is considerable evidence that trafficking in persons, for example, is facilitated by government corruption. Further,

victims of domestic violence report that it is not uncommon for law enforcement officers to refuse applications and attempt to persuade victims to return to the abuser, in contravention of police standards.

Women's NGOs in the region tend to remain distinct from those NGOs that deal with government oversight or human rights violations. There has been limited success in forming coalitions or networks to deal with gender inequality in the application of government policies and practices.

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

Sex-disaggregated data

- How many men and women are in key bodies of government (e.g., in civil service, ministerial and cabinet posts, the judiciary, law enforcement, and local government)?

Background and context

- What legislation supports the principle of gender equality?
- What are the major offices that handle gender issues in the executive and legislative branches of the government? Are there any other offices, committees, agencies, etc., responsible for gender issues?
- Assess the national machinery that deals with gender issues. How large are the offices? What are their mandates?

Do these offices have enough funding to do their work?

How are they staffed and by whom? How do such offices and institutions coordinate their work—among themselves and with other government agencies?

- Is there a strategy or national action plan for gender equality? What are the responsible bodies for implementing and monitoring the plan or strategy? How has this work been carried out in practice? How is the plan or strategy funded?
- Is gender incorporated into other national-level policies or strategies (on youth, employment, rural development, etc.), or are these policies and strategies gender neutral?
- Are government officials aware of gender-related law and policy?
- What training do government officials receive in gender-related law and policy?

Gender roles and responsibilities

- Do women leaders in government take an active role in advocating for gender equality and related policies and legislation?
- Are there any male leaders who advocate for gender equality and women's empowerment?

Access to and control over assets and resources

- Are women involved in key decisions about how government assets and resources will be distributed and who will benefit from the distribution?
- Is gender expertise or gender analysis used during the legislative drafting process or in budget planning in order to assess the extent to which law and policy support equal access to assets and resources?

Patterns of power and decisionmaking

- Are there any special measures to increase women's participation in public decision making (e.g., civil service laws/regulations, election laws/procedures, planning and budgeting procedures, or decentralization law/policy)? Have they been effective?
- In addition to government office, are there other mechanisms through which women can take part in public life and influence decision making?
- Is there a national action plan for the implementation of Security Council Resolution 1325 or other measures to enhance women's participation in formal decision making concerning

the prevention, management, and resolution of conflict?

- Are civil society groups involved in mobilizing women in citizen oversight or anticorruption projects and campaigns?

RESOURCES

[A User's Guide to Measuring Gender-Sensitive Basic Service Delivery](#), UNDP and UNIFEM (2009).

[Budgeting for Women's Rights: Monitoring Government Budgets for Compliance with CEDAW](#), UNIFEM (2008).

[Corruption and Gender in Service Delivery: The Unequal Impacts](#), Working Paper No. 2, Transparency International (2010).

[Corruption and Human Trafficking](#), Working Paper No. 03, Transparency International (2011).

[Gender and Corruption: Understanding and Undoing the Linkages](#), Working Paper No. 3, Transparency International (2007).

[Gender and Development In Brief, Issue 21: Gender and Governance](#), BRIDGE (2009).

[Gender and Governance, BRIDGE Cutting Edge Packs](#), Institute of Development Studies (UK) (2009).

[National Mechanisms for Gender Equality in South-East and Eastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia: Regional Study](#), UNECE (2010).

[PeaceWomen Network Resources on UN Security Council Resolution 1325](#).

GENDER & CIVIL SOCIETY

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the "Resources" section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.

WHY CONSIDER GENDER

USAID recognizes the crucial role that civil society plays in free and democratic countries as a third sector distinct from the public and private sectors. There is no universal definition of a civil society organization (CSO), but commonly used definitions focus on one of four contexts: legal definitions (legal registration and tax status), economic definitions (how revenue is used), and purpose definitions and functional definitions (which broaden the concept of civil society to also include individual activities and social movements).¹

USAID defines a CSO as an entity, formal or informal, that is not part of the government apparatus; does not distribute profits to its directors, operators, or members; is self-governing; and in which participation is a matter of free choice.²

CSOs encompass a number of different organizations, including schools, social service organizations, not-for-profit health providers, professional associations, unions, faith-

based groups, foundations, social movements, and cultural institutions. The missions of CSOs therefore vary. They may advocate on behalf of particular groups, hold governments accountable, lobby for change, mobilize citizens, conduct research, or provide direct services.

While civil society organization is the preferred term as it is the most all-encompassing, the term "nongovernmental organization" remains in common use as well, especially in referring to CSOs that work on women's issues or gender equality. There is no single definition of a women's NGO, but the description used by the United Nations Population Fund is suitable for the E&E context: "Women's NGOs in particular are characterized by values-driven, action-oriented commitments and voluntary work. Through programs, lobbying, research and information, initiation and implementation of projects, women's NGOs reach out to socially and economically disadvantaged people providing needed services and support."³

This Toolkit uses the term "women's NGO" to refer to civil society groups that promote

gender equality, women's rights and the empowerment of women, or address issues that are of specific concern to women through either advocacy or services.

Taking a gender perspective in civil society support programs means ensuring there is a broad range of diverse CSOs that have the capacity to represent the interests of men and women, involve both men and women in their activities, and work for the benefit of both sexes.

It is important that diverse CSOs representing both women and men engage in promoting gender equality as a common goal. Simply including women's NGOs as partners in projects or activities does not fulfill gender integration requirements. Women's organizations are key stakeholders—but they should not be considered the only partners. Women's NGOs represent a diversity of organizations, including many that do not undertake advocacy work. Not all women's NGOs have the capacity to develop strategies for advancing gender equality. Gender-responsive programming in the area of civil society development should promote partnerships and alliances among CSOs and between CSOs and other sectors to promote gender equality.

1. Lester M. Salamon, "Putting the Civil Society Sector on the Economic Map of the World," *Annals of Public and Cooperative Economics*, 81, No. 2 (2010).

2. The definition used by USAID was developed by the Center for Civil Society at John Hopkins University.

3. UNFPA, "Capacity Building of NGOs in Post-Conflict Countries, Training Kit" (UNFPA, n.d.).



YEKATERINA P. LUSHPINA

GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

CSOs are important mechanisms for women's participation in public life, but they should not replace women's leadership in other sectors. In the E&E region, women have been very active and effective in civil society, and women's NGOs have had success in highlighting issues of discrimination against women and equality more generally. Women's NGOs also continue to provide critical services to victims of gender-based violence as well as to other disadvantaged groups, such as women from ethnic minority groups, women with disabilities, refugees and displaced persons, and single mothers.

Some of the reasons for women's engagement in civil society work are connected to perceptions about gender roles. In many countries, CSO activities are accepted as part of a woman's traditional role—to participate in socially oriented work. In Azerbaijan, for example, "some men consider NGO activity suitable for women since it is considered 'a domain of female activity', 'not directly related to politics', 'including light jobs' and 'leaving more time for women's household duties.'"⁴

4. UNDP, *Azerbaijan Human Development Report 2007—Gender Attitudes in Azerbaijan: Trends and Challenges* (Baku, Azerbaijan: UNDP, 2007).

Women themselves point out that they face less discrimination and competition from men in the civil society sector as compared to the private sector or politics, which makes CSO work more appealing. As a woman included in a survey in Azerbaijan noted, "Women are not interested in politics voluntarily since it is difficult and time-consuming. To work in NGOs is relatively easy. Politics require cold blood and prudence."⁵ A trend observed in the region is that women civil society leaders generally do not transition to leadership positions

5. UNDP, *Azerbaijan Human Development Report 2007*.

in other sectors, such as politics or the private sector. The reasons for this phenomenon are not entirely clear, but stereotypes appear to play a role. During gender analysis, consideration should be given to whether these perceptions—about women being suited primarily to CSO work—will be reinforced through the project. Efforts are needed to assist women's career advancement from the third sector into decision making positions in other sectors.

Women's CSOs face challenges in terms of capacity, effectiveness, and visibility. There are numerous women's NGOs across the E&E region representing diverse missions. Many such organizations have close to two decades' work experience and are well recognized for their expertise in their given field.

There is little comparative data about CSOs, including women's organizations, for the region, but consultations with individual women's groups in a number of countries revealed common characteristics and concerns.

- **Focus areas.** The most active CSOs on gender issues or women's rights in the region tend to focus on areas that are traditionally associated with women (e.g., violence against women, reproductive health, HIV/AIDS, women in politics). Far fewer women's CSOs take on such "hard" topics as gender and economic

development, energy, or the environment. A global survey of women's organizations, 12 percent of which are in E&E, Central Europe, and Central Asia, confirmed this trend. According to the survey data, 58 percent of organizations focused on women's rights and 41 percent on violence against women, as compared to 10 percent that worked on economic rights, 16 percent on education, and 17 percent on development or poverty issues.⁶

- **Activities.** Women's NGOs mainly undertake service provision, awareness raising, or training and capacity-building activities. There are also organizations that represent distinct groups of professional women, such as female journalists, farmers, scientists, or businesswomen. Such organizations provide support and resources for their members but generally are not advocacy oriented.
- **Limited support for research and analysis.** While there are women's organizations with strengths in research and analysis, overall women's NGOs receive limited support for in-depth study of gender disparities and may not have the institutional or technical capacity to

6. Association for Women's Rights in Development (AWID), "Where Is the Money for Women's Rights: Survey Results" (AWID, 2008).

collect survey data on issues affecting women. Donor and government support to CSOs for this type of work would greatly improve the body of data and analysis on gender issues in the region.

Attitudes toward women's NGOs, and to CSOs in general, vary across the region. In the Republic of Macedonia, it is reported that in an environment of low citizen participation in civil society activities, the highest rates of participation are in women's organizations, and "the empowerment of women is perceived as one of the areas in which civil society organizations have achieved the most."⁷ In contrast, in Armenia, "women human rights defenders are scrutinized by the media and public opinion and frequently receive no support from their families."⁸ In Moldova, women's groups lack credibility and visibility with both the public and the media.⁹

In a number of countries in the region, human rights defenders, which often include NGO activists, face hostility

7. Hina Jilani, "Promotion and Protection of All Human Rights, Civil, Political, Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, Including the Right to Development: Mission to the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia" (New York: United Nations General Assembly, 2008).

8. Margaret Sekaggya, "Report of the Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Human Rights Defenders: Mission to Armenia" (New York: United Nations General Assembly, 2010).

9. Catherine Cozzarelli, *Gender Assessment USAID/Moldova* (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2011).

and repression. Women have been included among such human rights defenders (e.g., female activists working on human rights issues in the North Caucasus), and harassment directed toward Lesbian Gay Bisexual and Transgender (LGBT) activists is a particular concern in the region. Notifications concerning human rights defenders working on women's rights or gender issues sent to the UN Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Human Rights Defenders from the Europe and Central Asia region mainly concerned "alleged violations against LGBT activists in this region generally related to freedom of assembly or association, such as denial of permits for peaceful rallies or refusal to register an organization" (Moldova, Russia, and Serbia) or "reported violations against women's rights defenders [that were] largely judicial by nature, including arrests, detentions, judicial harassment, and conviction (Belarus)."¹⁰

Funding for civil society work on women's rights and gender equality is limited and is primarily provided by international donors.

Despite important articulations of gender as a crosscutting issue and policy support for gender mainstreaming, CSOs in most of the E&E region struggle to find financial support for their

10. Sekaggya, "Report of the Special Rapporteur."

work in this area, especially from local sources. Bilateral and multilateral grants accounted for close to 30 percent of the combined income of women's organizations participating in an Association for Women's Rights in Development (AWID) worldwide survey.¹¹ In the E&E region, women's NGOs also remain reliant on foreign funding in the form of donor-provided grants. Analysis conducted in Russia found that from 2004 to 2005, on average, 0.53 percent of funds invested by both Russian and foreign donors was spent on women's and/or gender projects. Foreign donors spent 0.48 percent of their total funding on such projects, but Russian donors spent as little as 0.05 percent. For Russian donors, women's rights and gender equality appeared to be "the most unpopular subjects" to fund.¹² NGOs from Azerbaijan reported that very few organizations that work on gender equality or women's empowerment have received funding through the state-run NGO Government Support Council.¹³

11. Lydia Alpízar, Cindy Clark, Alexandra Pittman, Sarah Rosenhek, and Verónica Vidal, "2009–2010 FundHer Research Update Brief 1: Trends in Bilateral and Multilateral Funding" (Mexico City: AWID, 2010).

12. International Gender Policy Network, *Development Cooperation and Gender, Regional Advocacy Report for Central, Eastern and Southeastern Europe, Caucasus and Central Asia* (Prague, Czech Republic: International Gender Policy Network, 2008).

13. International Gender Policy Network, *Development Cooperation and Gender*.

Analysis carried out by AWID found that, although resources available to women's groups appear to have increased worldwide, there are many challenges in accessing such funds. Namely, "the size of this funding, and the fact that grants disbursed are often very large (hundreds of thousands of USD at a minimum, necessitating rigorous financial and administrative procedures) means that only a limited number of women's organizations—the largest—are generally able to access this funding."¹⁴ Women's NGOs express frustration over restrictions on funding and lack of multiyear funding that would allow them to focus on their core missions or to pursue a greater variety of activities. A global survey of women's organizations, 12 percent of which were in E&E, Central Europe, and Central Asia, found that 56 percent had no multiyear grants.¹⁵ Assessments in Albania, Kosovo, the Republic of Macedonia, and Moldova have raised issues of decreasing funds for women's NGOs, the closure of NGOs due to financial difficulties, overreliance on donor grants, and the tendency for the choice of projects to be donor driven.¹⁶

14. Sekaggya, "Report of the Special Rapporteur."

15. Alpízar, Clark, Pittman, Rosenhek, Verónica Vidal, "2009–2010 FundHer Research Update Brief 1."

16. Cozzarelli, *Gender Assessment USAID/ Moldova*; Catherine Cozzarelli, 2010

A related issue is the development of legal mechanisms through which governments can directly fund women's NGOs that provide services. In several E&E countries, mechanisms exist or regulations are being formulated that allow governments to essentially purchase NGO services (e.g., the system of "social orders" in Ukraine), but there is considerable variation between the national and local levels in terms of access to such funds. NGOs may have to bid or compete for funds, and there may be limitations on the extent to which NGOs themselves participate in priority setting and the identification of needed services.

Development of coalitions and other forms of collaboration among women's CSOs is limited.

Given the diversity of women's NGOs in the region, it is somewhat surprising that there has been limited success in developing networks and coalitions around gender equality issues. Women's NGOs have certainly come together at the local or national level around key actions (adopting quotas) or related to specific issues (domestic violence, trafficking in persons, peace building),

Gender Assessment for USAID/Albania (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2010); Catherine Cozzarelli, *Gender Assessment USAID/Macedonia* (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2010); Ariana Qosaj-Mustafa, *Strengthening Women's Citizenship: Kosovo Security Sector and Decentralisation* (Pristina, Kosovo: KIPRED and FRIDE, 2010).

but observers in several countries have noted that it is difficult to identify a women's movement led by CSOs. Limited unrestricted funding, and in particular the continued reliance on donor support, makes it difficult for women's NGOs in different regions or countries to network, collaborate, and share good practices. Also, CSOs that do not position themselves as directly addressing gender tend to take a neutral approach to gender. For example, CSOs that address disability issues, child welfare, or the environment rarely integrate a gender perspective into their work.

At the same time, women's NGOs do not usually undertake watchdog or advocacy work, and therefore do not necessarily collaborate with more traditional human rights or civil rights organizations. Traditional women's NGOs, human rights organizations, citizen activist groups, and research-focused or think tank organizations do not necessarily collaborate on a gender equality agenda.

Among well-established women's NGOs, it is not uncommon to hear leaders note that few young women are engaged in civil society work. Such perceptions may well be related to the fact that women's NGOs and youth organizations do not often collaborate. Although there are examples of joint efforts—for example, awareness-raising campaigns—few youth groups are working

directly on gender equality projects. Notwithstanding, young people are an important resource in promoting more gender-equitable attitudes in society and countering entrenched stereotypes and rigid gender norms.

Positive examples of cooperation between women's NGOs and public institutions exist, but the extent to which such organizations influence policymaking varies. Numerous positive examples exist of cooperation between civil society groups and government. For example, during a two-year process of drafting the law on gender equality in Bosnia and Herzegovina, a coalition of almost 200 NGOs collaborated closely with the government. The resulting law integrated about 85 percent of NGO proposals.¹⁷ In other countries, women's NGOs report that they are marginalized or only included in policy discussions in a formal manner and when the topic explicitly concerns women. Women's NGOs in Georgia expressed the opinion that the inclusion of NGOs in policy discussions was undertaken at the request of international donors and often performed a "box-checking" function rather than real engagement with civil

17. Elisabeth Duban, *From Cairo to Beijing and Beyond: An Overview of Trends in the Region*, background paper (Istanbul: UNFPA, 2010).

“ In order to be truly democratic, civil society organizations should be capable of representing the needs and interests of both their male and female members.”

CANADIAN INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT AGENCY, GENDER EQUALITY AND SUPPORT TO CIVIL SOCIETY: IN BRIEF, 1999, P. 1

society.¹⁸ Women's NGOs in other countries report that coordination between the state and civil society is weak, resulting in the government transferring responsibility for implementing national strategy to the third sector. In Ukraine, women's groups noted that regional programs on ensuring gender equality “are implemented mostly by NGOs with partial financing from the state budget. The main financing comes not from the budget, but from other resources—from international technical assistance (grants), charitable assistance and from entrepreneurs.”¹⁹

In a few countries, there is considerable hostility and suspicion toward women's NGOs, including those that are

18. Elisabeth Duban, *Gender Assessment USAID/Georgia* (Washington, D.C.: USAID and DevTech Systems, Inc., 2010).

19. Women's Consortium of Ukraine, *Alternative Report on the Implementation of the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination in Ukraine* (Kyiv, Ukraine: International Renaissance Foundation, Friedrich Ebert Stiftung, UNICEF, and UN Office in Ukraine, 2008).

seen as activist. Women's NGOs in Serbia have described a “marked tendency to marginalize and ignore independent women NGOs” with a preference for cooperation with non-activist women's groups, perceived to be more “constructive [and] cooperation-oriented.”²⁰ Given women's low level of representation in political office (women occupy fewer than 20 percent of the parliamentary seats in most of the countries in the E&E region), it is especially important to support greater collaboration among civil society groups that represent women's interests and government. Efforts are needed to ensure that women's NGOs are included in legislative review, parliamentary and budget hearings, policy debates, and other reform processes.

Male participation in civil society efforts around gender equality is very limited. The E&E region lacks examples of men engaged in civil society efforts to advance gender equality. There are a few women's NGOs that include a male perspective in their work or engage actively with men, but there far fewer CSOs established by men to address gender issues. During recent gender analyses conducted for USAID, respondents were asked about the existence of men's groups engaged in gender equality work or on issues that specifically affect men.

20. Duban, *From Cairo to Beijing and Beyond*.

Respondents were generally unable to identify such groups in their country. Gender equality is still very much considered the responsibility of women's organizations in the region and has not become a broader movement.

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

Sex-disaggregated data

- How many CSOs are run by men and women? How many have missions relevant to gender equality? How many organizations focus on women's rights or issues of particular concern for women or for men?

Background and context

- How have local women's NGOs been evaluated in terms of mission, programming, staff size, financial support, stability, membership in networks and coalitions, etc.?
- Are there networks of diverse CSOs (e.g., working on women's issues, youth issues, human rights, citizen advocacy, justice and anticorruption, the environment, research, etc.) that support a gender equality agenda? How do they function and collaborate?

Gender roles and responsibilities

- What are the predominant expectations about women's role in socially oriented work? Would a project on CSO development reinforce any

stereotypes about the role of women or men in civil society efforts? If there are commonly held gender stereotypes about civil society work, how could they be mitigated?

- Do CSOs generally recognize that their male and female members have different needs and interests? Do they address the issues of both women and men and incorporate them into their policies, priorities, and programs?
- Do CSOs with an explicit gender equality mandate engage men in their activities? What special mechanisms do they employ?
- Are there any examples of men mobilizing around issues of inequality that affect boys and men (e.g., in the context of HIV/AIDS prevention, sexual health and sexual orientation, parental leave, military service, etc.)?

Access to and control over assets and resources

- Do CSOs reach out to both women and men and encourage them to become involved—as members, as volunteers, or in other capacities? Do women and men have access to organizations that represent their interests?

- For organizations that engage communities and individuals in specific initiatives, how do they ensure that both women and men are able to participate? What special mechanisms do they employ?
- Concerning the capacity of CSOs that promote gender equality specifically, do they have access to adequate financial resources—through funding (donor, government, or private donations) and technical assistance? If not, what measures could be taken to work toward their financial sustainability?
- Do women's NGOs have sufficient discretionary funds to support networking activities, both regionally and internationally, and to exchange information?
- Are financial or other resources made available by government and international donors for CSOs representing sectors where both men and women are active?

Patterns of power and decision making

- Is women's participation restricted to women's CSOs only, or do they also participate in mainstream political or decision making processes?
- Is there a dialog between government and civil society

on gender issues in order to mainstream gender equality? How is this dialog sustained (e.g., places reserved for NGOs on committees, steering groups, governmental bodies that include CSOs as members, etc.)?

- Are organizations with an explicit equality mandate able to influence decision making? Are they drawn on as resources and brought into policy discussions with the government? If so, are they compensated for their time and involvement?
- Is there support for CSOs to conduct research and analysis for submission to UN agencies—specifically the CEDAW Committee?

RESOURCES

[*Gender Equality & Support to Civil Society: In Brief*](#), CIDA (1999).

[Karat Coalition](#) (website), a coalition of organizations and individuals in 25 countries that focuses on women's human rights and gendered economic and social justice in Central Europe, the E&E region, and Central Asia

[*The 2009 NGO Sustainability Index for Central and Eastern Europe and Eurasia*](#), 13th Edition, USAID (2010).

[*The 2010 NGO Sustainability Index for Central and Eastern Europe and Eurasia*](#), 14th Edition USAID, Bureau for Europe and Eurasia, Office of Democracy, Governance and Social Transition (2010).

GENDER & MEDIA

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the "Resources" section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.

WHY CONSIDER GENDER

USAID promotes free and independent media as a vital component of democratic societies. Media content is shaped by those who create and deliver it. Therefore, women and men should be equally represented among media professionals.

As in other sectors, gender analysis includes an assessment of who is responsible for making decisions about media content and how much it reflects diverse views. Mass media can play a role in raising the issue of gender equality in public debate, which in turn can shape societal opinions and values. Media outlets also have considerable influence in perpetuating stereotypes about the roles and responsibilities of men and women; alternatively, they can counter gender-based stereotypes.

Specialized training on ethical and gender-sensitive reporting and the development of codes of ethics are important measures of how responsive the media sector is to gender. Media outlets are not limited to print, radio, and television, but also include the Internet, which is less regulated than other media outlets. Men and women access various media outlets differently depending on such factors as



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age, location, employment, and time commitments, among others.

GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

Gender imbalances regarding access to employment in the media exist in the region. In terms of the representation of men and women in the media, journalism was traditionally viewed as a female profession in the E&E region. A recent study of the status of women in the news industry in eight E&E countries, two of which (Russia and Ukraine) are in the E&E region, found that there

is near gender parity in terms of representation of women and men in the newsroom. Nevertheless, gendered patterns can be seen.¹ In these countries, women are well represented among managerial and senior positions, but not in the technical and creative sectors. Women's participation is highest in support roles such as sales, finance, and administration. According to data from UNDP on several E&E and Central Asian

1. Carolyn Byerly, "Global Report on the Status of Women in the News Media," (Washington, D.C.: International Women's Media Foundation, 2011).

countries, women are among the majority of news presenters (up to 90 percent) but less represented among reporters (from 20 to 70 percent).² Gender analyses conducted in Serbia and Moldova indicate that women make up the majority of journalists but are underrepresented as top editors or managers of media companies.³ This pattern is similar to that observed in other professional fields. With fewer women occupying decision-making roles such as editors, producers, or reporters, they have less influence over what media content will be published or broadcast.

There may be gender-based differences in terms of men's and women's access to various media sources. Little study has been conducted of gender differences in access to media content in the region, but anecdotal observations suggest that in some countries, men and women may have distinct patterns in media use due to differing roles and time commitments. For instance, it has been suggested in Armenia that men more frequently listen to the radio for news

2. UNDP, "Gender Equality in Europe and Commonwealth of Independent States" (compilation of indicators); note that this donor uses the geographical categories of Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States.
3. Catherine Cozzarelli, *Gender Assessment USAID/Moldova* (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2011); Catherine Cozzarelli, *2010 Gender Assessment for USAID/Serbia* (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2010).

since they are often employed as drivers. In Azerbaijan, there is almost parity, with a very slightly higher number of women receiving information from television as compared to men (less than a 2 percent difference).⁴ Further attention to this subject could be useful both to media programs and others that include media activities for advocacy and informational purposes.

With the development of new media, attention has also been devoted to how men and women access such media outlets as the Internet or use technology. Projects that focus on the "gender digital divide" in the E&E region have noted that further efforts are needed to increase women's access to computers, train women in basic computer skills, strengthen women's motivation to use information and communication technologies, and develop greater content produced by and for women.⁵ Country-specific surveys conducted in the Republic of Macedonia showed that males, in every age group, were more likely to use computers and access the Internet than females.⁶ The

4. UNDP, *Azerbaijan Human Development Report 2007—Gender Attitudes in Azerbaijan: Trends and Challenges* (Baku, Azerbaijan: UNDP, 2007).
5. UNDP/UNIFEM, *Bridging the Gender Digital Divide—A Report on Gender and ICT in Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States* (Bratislava, Slovak Republic: UNDP, 2004).
6. Catherine Cozzarelli, *Gender Assessment USAID/Macedonia* (Washington, D.C.:

digital divide exists not only between women and men but also across generations, and has important implications for USAID activities that promote the use of the Internet and other new media—for example, in developing e-governance websites or online information portals for citizens.

Women's voices receive less coverage, and gender-based stereotypes persist in the media.

NGOs have conducted media monitoring that reveal gender biases and stereotypes in several countries. It is generally the case in the E&E region that women's expert opinions are much less often reported. When women's views are covered, they tend to be on topics related to family and children, social services, education, fashion, food, culture, art, and entertainment rather than domestic policy, economic affairs, and crime. In Moldova, for example, media monitoring revealed that women were less likely to be depicted in serious roles, and diminutive terms were more often used to describe women.⁷ Further, women's issues are most frequently depicted in the press during specific times of year—in connection with International Women's Day, Mother's Day, or events organized by women's civil society organizations.

USAID, 2010).

7. Cozzarelli, *Gender Assessment USAID/Moldova*.

The 2010 Global Media Monitoring Project found that journalistic practices for the European region as a whole have little impact on transforming gender stereotypes. Most media stories either reinforce gender stereotypes or are neutral on them. Only a small number actually challenge stereotypes. An equally small number of stories highlight gender equality as a topic.⁸

Government monitoring and sanctioning of media outlets for stereotyping, sexism, or hate speech has been weak, despite the existence of legal provisions that provide standards in public broadcasting or advertising in several countries. Civil society organizations have been more vigilant about media monitoring, and there have been some successful attempts to address particularly harmful gender-based stereotypes (e.g., homophobic rhetoric in Armenia and sexist advertising in Russia).⁹ A related issue for the region is the use of the Internet in trafficking schemes, both as a recruitment tool and to distribute sexually exploitative images of victims. Information about this subject is very limited, but there is some suggestion

8. UNDP, "Gender Equality in Europe and Commonwealth of Independent States."

9. Elisabeth Duban, *Gender Assessment USAID/Armenia* (Washington, D.C.: USAID and DevTech Systems, Inc., 2010); American Bar Association Central European and Eurasian Law Initiative, "CEDAW Assessment Tool Report for the Russian Federation" (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2006).

that boys, who are more likely to take part in online gaming and forums, are at particular risk for Internet recruitment.¹⁰ Further efforts are needed to enforce legal provisions on discriminatory images used in advertising, develop codes of ethics for media outlets, investigate and prosecute the types of Internet-based crimes described above, and encourage self-regulation. Parallel efforts are also needed to encourage positive and nonstereotypic depictions of both women and men, for example, women as political leaders or men as responsible fathers.

Unethical reporting of gender-sensitive issues. Women's groups that address sensitive issues—especially such topics as violence against women, trafficking in persons, commercial sex work, or sexual harassment—note that the media not infrequently report on such topics in a sensationalized manner or do not adhere to ethical practices (e.g., by using non-neutral language or including the names of victims in news reports). In a number of countries, women's NGOs, in particular unions of female journalists, have carried out training projects on gender-sensitive reporting. Such efforts have generally not been formalized nor led to the development of industry standards.

10. See Guidance Note 14: Gender & Child Welfare.

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

Sex-disaggregated data

- How many men and women are employed in media outlets, and what are their roles?

Background and context

- Do any civil society organizations, watchdog groups, or other NGOs conduct gender-sensitive media monitoring? What are the results and major findings of such projects?
- How do the media deal with sensitive subjects of concern to women (e.g., HIV/AIDS, gender-based violence, pregnancy and childbirth, and women's rights)?
- Is there any specific legislation on standards in media and advertising, including the use of gender-based stereotypes? How is such legislation enforced?

Gender roles and responsibilities

- Do media outlets reinforce or refute gender-based stereotypes (consider programming, news stories, and advertising)?
- Are there differences in the types of stories written or broadcast about women and men? Are the differences based on gender stereotypes?
- Are male and female reporters assigned to cover different stories? Are the story types equally prestigious?



BASA PRESS

Access to and control over assets and resources

- To what extent do women have access to new media? How does access differ for women of different ages and living in different locations (urban or rural areas, e.g.)?
- To what extent are the opinions of women and men reported equally through the media? In what contexts are the opinions of women and men cited?
- How are issues of specific concern to women or to men depicted in the media?
- Do male and female journalists or other media

professionals have equal access to training in gender-sensitive and/or ethical reporting practices?

- How do media outlets collaborate with women's NGOs (e.g., providing resources to promote gender issues, advocate for gender equality, or support specific public service announcements directed to women or men)?

Patterns of power and decision making

- Considering the major media outlets in the country (print, television, radio, Internet), what is the pattern of male and female participation, in

supporting as well in decision-making roles?

- Do any formal or informal barriers restrict women's participation in media leadership and decision-making positions?
- How are women represented in unions and other associations of media professionals?
- Are there professional organizations for women in the media (e.g., unions of female journalists)?

RESOURCES

[*Bridging the Gender Digital Divide—A Report on Gender and ICT in Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States*](#), UNDP/UNIFEM (2004).

[*Getting the Balance Right: Gender Equality in Journalism*](#), International Federation of Journalists/UNESCO (2009).

[*Global Report on the Status of Women in the News Media*](#), International Women's Media Foundation (2011).

[Who Makes the News](#): Global Media Monitoring Project.

[Women and the Media](#) (overview for Europe and the CIS for Beijing Platform for Action +15), UNDP.

GENDER & RULE OF LAW

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the “Resources” section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.

WHY CONSIDER GENDER

Equality and nondiscrimination are core principles of a human rights–based approach to development. Respect for the rule of law in democratic societies means that human rights standards are respected, and the law is applied fairly to all citizens.

Applying gender analysis in the context of the rule of law, it is important to consider

- the laws themselves,
- the capacity of the system and legal professionals to enforce gender equitable laws, and
- whether women and men have equal access to the justice system.

Legislation should be subjected to gender expertise, which refers to a process of reviewing and evaluating draft laws, current national legislation, and other legal acts to ensure that they comply with international human rights standards on gender equality. Gender-neutral (or “gender blind”) legislation has proven ineffective in promoting gender equality and eliminating discrimination, and therefore stand-alone laws that promote equal opportunities or prohibit gender-based discrimination are equally important.¹ Specific

1. UNDP Regional Bureau for Europe and the CIS, *Gender Mainstreaming in Practice*:



USAID/VALENTIN BOZU, BIZPRO/MOLDOVA

legislation addressing issues that disproportionately affect women, such as domestic violence, is also necessary to promote gender equity.

The capacity of the legal profession to support gender equality principles in its work is an important consideration in integrating gender in rule of law programs—as well as how men and women are represented in legal offices (including among attorneys, prosecutors, the judiciary, etc.).

A Toolkit—Part II: Sectoral Briefs (Bratislava, Slovak Republic, UNDP, 2007).

Ensuring fairness in the application of the law has a particular gender component. The law should be applied equally to all, and both men and women should have equal access to justice in the case of violations of their rights. Persistent gender inequalities are violations of human rights, but they can often be overlooked, considered the “norm,” or justified as an artifact of tradition or culture.

The term “gender justice” is often used to refer to the inclusion of gender equality issues within rule of law programs.

GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

Legal protections of equal rights are strong, but implementation of such principles is often weak.

In terms of *de jure* gender equality, legal protection for equal rights is strong in the E&E region. All countries have ratified the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), and many have introduced stand-alone legislation on equal rights and opportunities between men and women or antidiscrimination/ equal protection clauses in their constitutions. Achieving *de facto* equality, however, remains a challenge.

Despite the existence of equality laws on the books, implementation of such laws has been quite limited in the region. Effective mechanisms to investigate and redress rights violations have not been developed, and evidentiary burdens (such as the need to prove discrimination) are high.² Thus, few cases of discrimination on the basis of sex have been successfully tried in court, and precedent is limited.

Legal understanding of how to try cases of gender-based discrimination is also lacking, as the topic is not a regular part of law school curricula, legal

training, or continuing legal education. The establishment of human rights commissioners and ombudsperson's offices in the region are important institutions for considering cases of gender discrimination. Such agencies are limited to reviewing state actions or inactions, and because they serve a nonjudicial function, they cannot issue binding decisions.

There has been limited use of “positive discrimination” to improve the status of women.

There are few examples in the E&E region of the law being used as a form of positive discrimination—for example, to advance affirmative action for women or enact temporary special measures. Only a few countries have adopted provisions in national electoral codes that would improve the representation of women in political party lists (e.g., quotas). Significantly, a number of countries have not repealed protective but discriminatory legislation, namely in the area of labor law, that arguably disempowers women and reinforces negative stereotypes.³

Neutral laws can be “gender blind” to issues that disproportionately affect women.

There are few cases in the E&E region in which laws are

forthrightly discriminatory. In fact, the law and legal practice in many countries are gender blind to issues that have a distinct impact on women—for example, in cases that implicate the private sphere, such as domestic violence or reproductive health. Progress has been uneven in the adoption of stand-alone laws to address various forms of gender-based violence (domestic violence, sexual harassment, marital rape). Broad state programs or laws on other issues, such as HIV/AIDS, pensions and social benefits, or post-conflict reconstruction, do not always clearly articulate specific vulnerabilities. Legal reform in the region would benefit from greater gender sensitivity.

Gender segregation exists in the legal profession. As in other fields, the legal profession shows some patterns of occupational segregation. Women are generally well represented in law institutes across the region, but as graduates tend to work in specific legal fields—for example, as notaries but not prosecutors. Women are underrepresented in high-level and leadership posts, such as chairing chambers of advocates or serving as chief judges.

Women have less access to the “justice chain.” UN Women's 2011 *Progress of the World's Women* report identifies several barriers that women face in accessing justice that are also relevant to the E&E region. First,

2. Rangita de Silva de Alwis, *Advancing Equal Rights for Women and Girls: The Status of CEDAW Legislative Compliance in Eastern Europe and Central Asia* (New York: UNFPA, 2009).

3. Labor law provisions limit, for example, women's access to specific jobs considered dangerous and place restrictions on women's ability to work at night or to travel for work.; de Silva de Alwis, *Advancing Equal Rights for Women and Girls*.

women's ability to access the law to obtain justice depends on their knowledge of the legal protections available to them. In the case of gender-based discrimination—such as discriminatory inheritance or property laws, domestic violence, or sexual harassment—such acts are often tolerated and accepted by society, and by women themselves, as “normal” and inevitable. Women's legal literacy is thus critical. NGOs that work with women point out that many, especially those from rural areas or members of minority groups, are not aware of their legal rights or the process for applying to the legal system for protection of those rights.

The cost of legal representation can be prohibitive to women, whose economic status is on average lower than men's. Particularly in cases of domestic violence or disputes arising during divorce, women typically represent themselves or may have the assistance of non-lawyer advocates working through women's NGOs. Other barriers, especially relevant to cases of gender-based violence, include logistical difficulties in visiting various agencies and services (police, forensic experts, health services, court) and fees associated with bringing a case to justice.

In addition, there is a low level of awareness among legal professionals of the barriers women face in accessing justice.

Legal training on the issues of gender equality or women's rights is very limited, either as part of law school curricula or under continuing legal education programs. Legal professionals lack the knowledge (of best practices, e.g.) and skills to represent women adequately in cases concerning discrimination, domestic violence, or sexual harassment, among others. The underrepresentation of women in such institutions as the police and prosecutor's office may also deter women from seeking justice, especially in sensitive cases.

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

Sex-disaggregated data

- How many and what types of relevant legal cases exist (disaggregated by sex of the parties and type of discrimination claim)?
- What is the ratio of women to men in the legal profession generally (compare figures for law professors, practicing attorneys, ministry of justice staff, police, prosecutors, and judges)?

Background and context

- What commitments has the government undertaken concerning international human rights principles (e.g., implementing recommendations from the CEDAW Committee, implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action)?

- Does the country have a policy, plan of action, or strategy for the protection of human rights, including the rights of women?
- Does the constitution contain provisions on gender discrimination and/or prohibit discrimination on the grounds of sex? How many cases of sex-based discrimination have been taken to the constitutional court? What was the outcome?
- Is there any specific antidiscrimination or equal opportunities legislation?
- Are there specific laws that address problems that disproportionately affect women (e.g., domestic violence or sexual harassment)?
- How are the laws being implemented (e.g., how many cases are brought annually, what are the most common judgments, etc.)?

Gender roles and responsibilities

- What is men's and women's level of awareness of the laws that protect their rights and prohibit discrimination on the basis of sex?
- Are there differences in awareness of human rights among minority male and female populations?
- Are there any customary norms or traditional practices that contravene domestic law and result in violations

of women's rights? Such practices could include informal justice systems, religious laws, or community dispute resolution.

Access to and control over assets and resources

- What barriers may prevent women from accessing the justice chain?
- Are there any legal literacy programs to educate women and men about their specific legal rights? Who conducts these programs?
- Are women and men educated on how to protect their human rights through the legal system?
- When women and men use the legal system, are they generally represented by attorneys? How does this vary by type of case (e.g., divorce or other family law cases, domestic violence cases, commercial cases, etc.)?
- Is there a system of free legal aid in the country? How is it provided and funded? What kinds of legal issues are covered? Is assistance offered

in gender-specific cases (e.g., cases of domestic violence)? What kind of assistance is provided to women and men?

- Are there specialized legal services (such as one-stop shops) that reduce the number of steps women must take to access justice?
- What kind of training do legal professionals receive, either as part of the law school curriculum, as in-service training, or under continuing legal education programs, about legal protections against discrimination and for equal opportunities and in terms of practical recommendations for bringing cases under such laws?
- What extra-judicial national institutions exist to help women and men protect their rights (e.g., office of the ombudsperson for human rights, NGOs that offer legal assistance, trade unions, etc.)? Do they offer assistance in gender-specific cases (e.g., cases of domestic violence, sexual harassment, etc.)?

- Does the country have a policy, plan of action, or strategy to ensure women's equal access to justice and reparations in post-conflict contexts?

Patterns of power and decision making

- What formal or informal barriers limit women's participation in certain legal professions and in the highest levels of the legal field?

RESOURCES

[Advancing Equal Rights for Women and Girls: The Status of CEDAW Legislative Compliance in Eastern Europe and Central Asia](#), UNFPA (2009).

[GENDERNET Practice Notes: Human Rights](#), OECD/AusAID.

[Justice Reform and Gender](#), Tool 4 of the *Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit*. DCAF/OSCE-ODIHR/UN-INSTRAW (2008).

[Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women](#): States reports; Concluding observations; NGO alternative/shadow reports by country.

Gender Mainstreaming in Practice: A Toolkit, Part II, UNDP (2007).

GENDER & THE LABOR MARKET

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the "Resources" section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.

WHY CONSIDER GENDER

USAID programming aims not only to improve economic growth at a macro level but also to increase economic opportunities for both men and women. While the Agency may not have direct programs on labor market reform, job creation and employment opportunities are important goals of USAID-funded work. To ensure that men and women have equal access to employment opportunities, gender analysis should examine the gender aspects of the labor market and any gender-based discrimination in the field. Women's position in the labor market determines the extent to which they benefit from projects that increase employment opportunities as well as overall economic improvements on equal terms with men.

Barriers to women's advancement in the workplace, as well as persistent gender pay gaps, are signs that inequalities exist. Such inequalities not only have a detrimental effect on individual women, but they affect the ability of private enterprises to grow and compete in the labor market. Emerging research suggests that there are important links between women's empowerment and corporate achievement. "Some investors believe that

gender empowerment may be one key characteristic of well-managed, forward-thinking companies that are capable of creating sustainable shareholder value over the long run... There seems to be a positive correlation between gender practices and stock performance."¹ Gender diversity in the workplace should be considered a means to ensure women's equal access to employment opportunities and a critical element of enterprise growth and competitiveness.

GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

Women's and men's employment patterns differ. One characteristic of the E&E region, as compared to other developing regions, is the high level of women's participation in the labor force. Women are active in the labor market—in part, as a result of Soviet policy that encouraged women to work in formal employment and provided the means for them to balance work and family life (free child care, for instance).

Yet, as compared to men in the region, women are less

"Low gender diversity is seen by many as undermining a company's potential value and growth."

WORLD BANK, WORLD DEVELOPMENT REPORT 2012, 2011

economically active, with considerable variation by country. In several countries (including Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Russia, and Ukraine), from 50 to 60 percent of adult women are economically active.² In other countries (Albania, the Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, and Serbia), fewer than half of the adult women are economically active. Men's economic activity rates across the region show less variation, and are generally 65 percent and higher.

Another characteristic of the region is that while there are fewer women than men in formal employment, women are more likely to work part time, work in the informal sector, or be self-employed, especially in home-based production. Such forms of work leave women vulnerable, since informal work is not subject to regulation. Women in such forms of employment have little protection in terms

1. Katherine Miles and Carmen Niethammer, *Embedding Gender in Sustainability Reporting: A Practitioners Guide* (International Finance Corporation and Global Reporting Initiative, 2009).

2. UNDP, "Gender Equality in Europe and Commonwealth of Independent States" (compilation of indicators).



PRO BUSINESS NORD

of salary, pension, workplace conditions, maternity and sick leave, or regulation of workplace conditions.

Unemployment patterns also differ between men and women and by age group. Generally, there are more women among those formally registered as unemployed; however, because men choose not to register, the male unemployment rate could be higher. Youth unemployment is high across the region, and female youth unemployment rates are slightly higher than those for young men. Patterns of male and female unemployment at the country level, looking at such gendered issues as job loss by sector, length of time out of work, age-based discrimination, and opportunities for retraining, is perhaps more useful than data on unemployment rates.

The full impact of the global financial crisis on employment in the region has not been fully studied, but unemployment rates

for E&E region rose between 2007 and 2009 from 8.3 percent to 10.3 percent overall. Unemployment for women rose from 6.0 percent to 8.5 percent.³ It appears that the crisis has had significant impacts on both sexes. Men have faced job losses in the private sector. Male labor migration appears to have slowed in the region, but it may be the case that migrant labor has been pushed to the informal sector. Budget cuts in the public sector seem to have had a greater impact on female employment, and female-headed households have been especially hard hit.

Even though the region's economy has grown during the transition to a market economy, women's position in terms of employment has changed little. The World Bank notes about

3. Ewa Charkiewicz, *The Impact of the Crisis on Women in Eastern Europe* (Toronto: Association for Women's Rights in Development, 2010).

the Eastern European and Central Asian region, which includes E&E countries, that the existence of gender gaps in labor market participation is common and, on its own, not a cause for concern. However, the fact that the gender gap has remained stable for more than a decade in the region is troubling, especially considering the overall high economic growth over this period.⁴

Occupational segregation of the labor market affects women's economic status.

Occupational (or horizontal) segregation is a term used to describe differences in the distribution of salaried workers across industries and occupations.⁵ As in other regions, women and men occupy distinct sectors of the labor market in Europe and Eurasia, but the degree of stratification and lack of initiatives to encourage women or men to enter nontraditional sectors are distinct. Across the region, women are overrepresented as employees in education, health care, social services, and cultural fields. Men, on the other hand, make up the majority of employees in such sectors as industry, construction, communications and transport, natural resource extraction, and energy.

4. Sarosh Sattar, *Opportunities for Men and Women: Emerging Europe and Central Asia* (Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 2011).

5. World Bank, *World Development Report 2012* (Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 2011).

In many countries, the gender gaps in the above fields are acute. Notably, there is greater gender balance in fields relating to the financial sector; hospitality (hotels, restaurants), and technical and computing fields, but variation across countries also exists. Occupational segregation is directly related to educational choices, but it is also influenced by gender stereotypes about what are “traditional” fields for women and men. Protectionist laws in the labor sphere, for example, those that limit women’s ability to work in certain jobs or for specific hours when pregnant, have been addressed as discriminatory in some countries. Yet norms continue to exist around protecting women from working in fields considered dangerous to their health. For instance, in Moldova, the Labor Code was recently amended to allow women who had given birth within the last three years to work overtime or night shifts.⁶ However, it could not be determined to what extent prohibitions on women working specific technical jobs were also repealed.⁷ In Azerbaijan, men and women hold common perceptions about “light” professions (teaching and health care) as suitable for women,

6. Catherine Cozzarelli, *Gender Assessment USAID/Moldova* (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2011).

7. Rangita de Silva de Alwis, *Advancing Equal Rights for Women and Girls: The Status of CEDAW Legislative Compliance in Eastern Europe and Central Asia* (New York: UNFPA, 2009).

and “heavy” jobs (construction, industry, engineering, and law enforcement) identified with male work.⁸

The lack of women in management and decision-making positions—known as vertical segregation—is a particular concern for the E&E region. In Central Europe, the E&E region, and Central Asia, one in every six male full-time workers holds a senior management position. In contrast, only 1 in every 42 full-time female workers is in senior management.⁹ In much the same way that stereotypes and cultural attitudes dictate that politics and leadership are more suitable for men, norms that women are best suited to administrative and not to top management roles operate in the labor market.

Segregation in the labor market contributes directly to gender wage gaps that are evident across the region. The most feminized employment sectors are those that are typically paid through state budgets and have the lowest salaries. In contrast, sectors such as oil and gas, construction, and transport are among the most profitable. Women’s salaries range from

8. UNDP, *Azerbaijan Human Development Report 2007—Gender Attitudes in Azerbaijan: Trends and Challenges* (Baku, Azerbaijan: UNDP, 2007).

9. Jamila Seftaoui, ed., *Women’s Economic Empowerment: Trends & Good Practices on Women’s Entrepreneurship in the OSCE Region* (Vienna: OSCE, 2010).

just under three-quarters to just over a third of male salaries.¹⁰ Such pay gaps are also attributable to women’s shorter working hours and time taken away from work to manage family responsibilities, a lack of support for male employees taking family care leave, and a lack of women in leadership positions in the business sphere.

Women in the region face difficulties reconciling family obligations with career ambitions.

Because women take on most of the responsibilities for child rearing in the home, women’s ability to take maternity and child care leave are important factors in whether they can access employment opportunities. Maternity benefits across the region remain very generous (in terms of time allowed for leave, job security, and accommodations for child care), and private employers often find the provision of such benefits onerous. The perceived burden of such benefits leads to reluctance to hire women and a preference for male employees. Further, in many countries, the process of hiring temporary or part-time workers, which could ease the burden of covering maternity leave, is complex or has not been well established in labor law.

10. Elisabeth Duban, *From Cairo to Beijing and Beyond: An Overview of Trends in the Region*, background paper (Istanbul: UNFPA, 2010).

During the transition period, the free child care that was once associated with the workplace was largely disbanded. Free and or even affordable child care is very limited across the region, which means that some women are unable to reenter the labor market after having children. Men taking time out of employment to care for children is very rare and has not been encouraged through incentives or campaigns.

Gender-based discrimination in employment remains a common problem, but employers have been slow to address it. Women face distinct forms of gender-based discrimination, not only related to pay disparities but also in the context of hiring and promotion. Young women in particular are likely to encounter such gender-based discrimination. Young women are often asked questions by potential employers about their marital status, whether they have children, plan to have children, and the age of any children they might have. These questions are related to concerns (noted above) about providing maternity and child care benefits. There are also cases of women who have taken maternity leave being encouraged to resign despite legal protection of their job, when there is a preference to retain a different employee.

While the practice appears to be decreasing in the region, it is still not uncommon to specify male or female candidates for

gender-neutral jobs (such as cooks, receptionists), based on personal preference. Despite clear laws prohibiting labor discrimination in all E&E countries, such practices continue as industry norms.

Retirement ages for men and women generally differ, with women retiring up to five years before men. There have been efforts to harmonize the retirement age, but it is still important to consider how such a difference could affect elderly women who have shorter work histories and lower earnings.

Women's NGOs in the region have drawn attention to a particular form of workplace discrimination—sexual harassment. Most countries do not keep official statistics on the incidence of sexual harassment, but unofficial reports in Azerbaijan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Moldova, and Serbia confirm that the problem affects many working women. In most countries, sexual harassment is addressed in some form through legislation, but it is very rare for private enterprises or even state employers to have specific policies or procedures for dealing with sexual harassment as an issue of employee safety or labor rights. There has been limited awareness raising on the topic of prohibitions against sexual harassment, so many women consider such acts to be a “normal” aspect of working life and fear losing their jobs if

they report the situation or turn to the courts. The promotion of equal rights policies and standards in the workplace should be considered an aspect of promoting the growth of competitive enterprises.

Workforce development programs should take gender into consideration. USAID

has emphasized workforce development programs in several countries in the region. Such projects are important tools in helping specific populations enter or reenter the labor market. They can be especially useful for women who, after taking time off from employment to raise children, may lack the skills that are now in demand. Women from minority groups, for example, the Roma or women with disabilities, can also benefit from inclusion in such programs.

Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) in the context of workforce development is considered a lifelong program, and is distinct from TVET at the general education stage. One characteristic of TVET programs in general—especially in the context of training and retraining for adults—is the reliance on stereotyped notions of the kind of work appropriate for women and men, which mirrors segregation in the labor market. Training programs for women have often focused on skills and sectors that are not particularly profitable or in demand, such as

sewing, hairdressing, handicrafts, and care professions, rather than technical fields. The training aspect of workforce development programs should not reinforce stereotypes. This requires evaluating curricula as well as recruitment and career guidance practices and sensitizing TVET instructors to gender issues. And, if women and men are to be trained and then find employment in nontraditional fields, efforts must be made to engage employers and work with employment agencies to counter discrimination in the hiring process.¹¹

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

Sex-disaggregated data

- What is the labor market profile?
- What are men's and women's wages, by sector?
- How are men and women represented in the labor market by sector? Are there any sectors that show greater gender balance that could be targeted for programs or activities?
- What are levels of enrollment in workforce development and TVET programs by sex and type of program?

Background and context

11. See generally, Marianne Braig, *Gender Sensitive Vocational Education and Training* (Eschborn, Germany: GTZ 1997).

- What are the general patterns of male and female employment, in terms of economic activity and type of employment?
- Have any studies been carried out that suggest reasons for differences in male and female employment patterns?
- Do women experience discrimination based on gender in the workplace? What form does this discrimination take? (Sources of information could include NGOs that work with women, legal counseling services, courts, office of the ombudsperson for human rights, etc.)
- How is labor discrimination addressed in the law?
- How is labor discrimination generally addressed in human resource policies?
- How is sexual harassment addressed in private enterprises under human resource policies?
- Do technical assistance and training efforts include the topics of developing nondiscriminatory and transparent hiring and promotion practices and diversity in the workplace?

Gender roles and responsibilities

- Are men or women more likely to participate in the informal economy, and how would that affect their participation in a project on

entrepreneurship, vocational training, job creation, etc.?

- Do any stereotypes exist about men as the primary breadwinner? How do such notions affect career choices of men and women, opportunities for advancement, salary, and retirement age? Does such a stereotype reflect the reality in the particular country?
- Are there any measures that would ease the burden of maternity leave on employers, such as facilitating the hiring of temporary staff?
- Is parental leave permitted for fathers as well as mothers? What is the practice of fathers taking parental leave?
- In what sectors is technical and vocational training offered? Are these sectors characterized by gender balance, or are they sectors where either men or women dominate?
- What measures do these programs use to ensure that women and men can find employment in nontraditional fields (e.g., counseling, assistance with job placement)?

Access to and control over assets and resources

- What do wage statistics reveal about the position of women in the economy relative to men? How large is the gender pay gap?

- How do men and women understand the principle of equal employment opportunity?
- Do women and men have equal access to technical and vocational education and training? Do women and men have equal access to business education (e.g., MBA and business programs)?
- What are some of the barriers that may be preventing women from accessing such educational programs, for example, cultural or financial issues, marketing, etc.?
- Are there any projects or programs that work with female youth to help them access specific sectors of the labor market where women are underrepresented?

Patterns of power and decision making

- What is the representation of men and women among management in the private sector? What is the representation in the public sector?
- What are some of the key barriers preventing women from moving into management positions, and how can they be overcome?
- Are there advocacy groups, among civil society or other organizations, that

promote women's rights in employment and can influence policy setting?

- Do such organizations address a range of issues concerning women's position in the labor market, such as income parity, access to promotions, employment discrimination, and sexual harassment?

RESOURCES

[*ILO Database of Conditions of Work and Employment Laws \(TRAVAIL\)*](#).

Country-specific information on work and family, maternity protection, domestic workers.

[ILO Gender Bureau](#).

[Resource Guide on Gender Equality in the World of Work](#), ILO.

[Economic Growth and Decent Work: Recent Trends in Eastern Europe and Central Asia](#), ILO (2008).

[Some Aspects of Youth Education, Gender Equality and Employment in the Caucasus and Central Asia](#), International Labor Organization (ILO) (2007).

[Opportunities for Men and Women: Emerging Europe and Central Asia](#), World Bank (2012).

[Women's Economic Opportunity](#), Economist Intelligence Unit (2010).

[Transitions Towards an Inclusive Future: Vocational Skills Development and Employment Options for Persons with Disabilities in Europe & Eurasia](#) (USAID/E&E/DGST) (2009).

[Gender Sensitive Vocational Education and Training](#), Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) GmbH (1997).

[Gender Equality in Europe and Commonwealth of Independent States](#), compilation of indicators, UNDP.

[The Impact of the Crisis on Women in Eastern Europe](#), Association for Women's Rights in Development (AWID) (2010).

[Women's Economic Empowerment: Trends & Good Practices on Women's Entrepreneurship in the OSCE Region](#), OSCE (2010).

[From Cairo to Beijing and Beyond: An Overview of Trends in the Region](#), Background paper for EECA Regional Technical Meeting, UNFPA (2010).

GENDER & ENTREPRENEURSHIP

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the "Resources" section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.

WHY CONSIDER GENDER

USAID supports programming to increase and improve opportunities for entrepreneurship as a tool for economic growth. Its programs support the development of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) and also aim to improve the business-enabling environment.

Small business development can incorporate a number of dimensions, such as helping SME owners establish and grow their businesses, and access markets and value chains, as well as expanding financial and technical assistance services to this sector.

Promoting a business-enabling environment entails improving commercial, legal, and regulatory systems; improving the business climate for entrepreneurs; and specifically empowering women business leaders. Integrating gender equality in the business development sector requires assessing the constraints male and female entrepreneurs face when doing business in a particular country. Even gender-neutral laws and regulations may have distinctly different impacts on men and women that can be overlooked when gender issues are not taken into consideration. For example, as a general rule, women are much more likely to operate small family and home-based businesses and therefore may feel a greater impact of new



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tax or accounting regulations owing to the size of their enterprise.

GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

Women's businesses differ from men's in scale and type as do women's motivations for pursuing entrepreneurial opportunities. In the larger Eastern European and Central Asian region (which includes E&E), one in three entrepreneurs is a woman.¹ According to the World Bank,

women own 24 percent of firms in the Eastern Europe and Central Asia. About 14 percent of those firms are microbusinesses; 6 percent are small businesses; and 4 percent are medium, large, and very large businesses.²

Definitions of what constitutes a SME vary by country as does whether self-employment is considered a form of entrepreneurship. The process of determining the level of

1. Sarosh Sattar, *Opportunities for Men and Women: Emerging Europe and Central Asia* (Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 2011).

2. Sevi Simavi, Clare Manuel, Mark Backden, *Gender Dimensions of Investment Climate Reform: A Guide for Policy Makers and Practitioners* Washington D.C.: World Bank, 2010).

women's participation in firm ownership in the region is complicated. Although it is not uncommon for private enterprises to be formally registered in a woman's name or for women to be joint stockholders in an enterprise, they are not necessarily involved in the operation of the business. In some countries, businesses are registered in the name of a female family member in order to shield male business owners from exposure and liability; in reality, the male owners remain the primary decision makers. Women are more likely to be sole owners of microenterprises or self-employed in entrepreneurial activities rather than own an SME. Women also participate at a higher rate than men in the informal economy.

Women have different motivations for starting businesses. In 2010, the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor project reviewed enterprises in 59 countries. This report grouped and compared women's entrepreneurship in terms of countries' levels of economic development—whether they are factor driven, efficiency driven, or innovation driven.³ Bosnia and Herzegovina,

3. *Factor-driven economies* compete based on their endowments of unskilled labor and natural resources. Companies sell basic products or commodities and support low wages. *Efficiency-driven economies* must develop more efficient production processes and increase quality. Competitiveness is driven by higher education and training, efficient goods markets, well-functioning labor markets, the ability to harness technology, and a large domestic or foreign market.

Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro, and Russia—the only countries in the E&E region included in the report that currently have a USAID presence—are classified as efficiency driven.⁴

The research found that of the efficiency-driven economies, the lowest proportion of women entrepreneurs are found in the current and former USAID-presence E&E region countries as compared to other world regions. When looking at women's motivation for becoming entrepreneurs, the report notes that while necessity has declined over time as a motivating factor, more women continue to report pursuing entrepreneurship because of necessity rather than opportunity.⁵ In Armenia,

Innovation-driven economies ensure higher wages and the associated standard of living through the development of new and unique products in a more sophisticated manner: World Economic Forum, *The Global Competitiveness Report 2010–2011* (Geneva: The World Economic Forum, 2010).

4. Other economies classified by the report as efficiency driven include China, Croatia, Hungary, Romania, South Africa, and Taiwan, as well as several Latin American and Caribbean countries, including Brazil.

5. *Necessity-driven entrepreneurs* became entrepreneurs because they had no other options for work. *Opportunity-driven entrepreneurs* are driven by opportunity rather than not having another choice for work. Donna Kelly, Candida Brush, Patricia Greene, and Yana Litovsky, *Global Entrepreneurship Monitor: 2010 Women's Report* (United Kingdom: Babson College and the Global Entrepreneurship Research Association, 2010). Note that men and women in the Republic of Macedonia report higher rates of necessity-driven and lower rates of opportunity-driven entrepreneurship than are found in efficiency-driven and factordriven economies.

these findings were confirmed by a separate study of female entrepreneurs which found that most women were motivated not by "entrepreneurial drive or interest," but rather by the need to provide for their families, in many cases as the sole breadwinner.⁶

Women's businesses differ from men's in scale and type. When formal enterprises are run by women in the E&E region, they tend to perform less well than firms owned by men and are less likely to grow.⁷ In the aggregate, women-run SMEs are significantly smaller in scale, as measured by sales revenues (the total amount of money that comes into a business) and number of employees, than businesses run by men.⁸ When comparing female and male owned firms in order to determine why, Sabarwal and Terrell (2008) looked at a number of factors, such as the use of inputs. They found that women's firms in the E&E region use inputs (including labor, raw materials, technology, and investment) less efficiently, "but the average gap is small." Also, despite differences in revenue, the gap in profits (the money a business retains

6. Elisabeth Duban, *Gender Assessment USAID/Armenia* (Washington, D.C.: USAID and DevTech Systems, Inc., 2010).

7. Sattar, *Opportunities for Men and Women*.

8. Shwetlena Sabarwal and Katherine Terrell, *Does Gender Matter for Firm Performance? Evidence from Eastern Europe and Central Asia*, Policy Research Working Paper No. 4705 (Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 2008).



LARISSA PISKUNOVA

after all expenses have been paid) between male- and female-owned firms is small and disappears when analysis controls for country, industry, and size of firm.⁹ For example, when comparing small firms in a particular industry in one country, male and female owned businesses turn a similar profit.

The small scale of women's businesses was found to be the main driver of performance. They tend to operate at an inefficiently small scale because their access to capital is constrained, they are more likely to work part time, and they are much more likely to be located in traditional and lower revenue industries that support smaller firm sizes, primarily in the service sector

9. Sabarwal and Terrel, *Does Gender Matter?*

(hairdressing, child care, tailoring, pharmacies, notary services) or trade sector (textiles, consumer goods, handicrafts).¹⁰

Women are affected by gender-based constraints to doing business. In the E&E region, the practice of entrepreneurship has developed during the transition to a free market economy. Starting a business there is not a simple process for either men or women because of numerous constraints implicit in the business environment that affect everyone regardless of sex.

Because women's businesses are smaller in scale and women face greater time constraints related to domestic obligations, businesswomen presumably face increased difficulties in terms of access to the resources, time, and knowledge needed to navigate complex bureaucratic procedures. Unfortunately, current assessments of business regulations that affect the ease of compliance with necessary processes (registering a business, obtaining with licenses and permits, registering property, hiring and firing workers, etc.) rarely examine the differential impacts on men and women.

However, studies of women who head businesses in the region confirm that some seemingly gender-neutral issues are more problematic for them than for

10. Sabarwal and Terrel, *Does Gender Matter?*; Jamila Seftaoui, ed., *Women's Economic Empowerment: Trends & Good Practices on Women's Entrepreneurship in the OSCE Region* (Vienna: OSCE, 2010).

men, namely the longer period of time needed to register a business (Georgia), inspections (Ukraine), and the need to make unofficial payments (Belarus).¹¹

Corruption also plays a role in hampering business growth in the region. Some studies have found that women are more risk averse than men, although more research is needed to determine the extent to which this may explain differences in the industry location, growth, borrowing behavior, and other characteristics of women-owned firms. One study in Armenia, for example, found that women are less likely to engage in business when corruption appears to be a real risk.¹²

Research and studies of the experiences of women entrepreneurs indicate that women who wish to start or grow a business face many specific barriers, including the following:

- Women have less access to start-up capital because of their lower economic status and lower earning power.
- Women face difficulties in accessing credit, primarily because they do not own the type of collateral needed to secure loans (e.g., real estate, equipment, and land).¹³

11. Sattar, *Opportunities for Men and Women*.

12. Duban, *Gender Assessment USAID/Armenia*.

13. A. Muravyev, D. Schafer, and O. Talavera, "Entrepreneurs' Gender and Financial Constraints: Evidence from International Data," Discussion Paper (Berlin, German Institute of Economic Research, 2007).

- Women lack ties to and information on business networks and contacts.
- Women lack prior experience, which means that they have less knowledge of how to manage a business successfully or how to deal with financial institutions.
- Cultural norms hold women back. Women often lack the confidence to expand a business because of prevalent negative views about the acceptability of business as a career choice and stereotypes that undervalue women's managerial abilities and business skills. Young women in particular do not view entrepreneurial activity as a career path, preferring public sector jobs.¹⁴
- Women's child-rearing and other family obligations, combined with the high cost and limited availability of child care, are included among the primary limits on their entrepreneurship. Women's motivation to enter business is often linked to a desire to provide for the family rather than a desire to become a businessperson. As compared to men, they may be less prepared, lack confidence in their abilities, or be less willing to take risks.

14. Cornelia Rotaru, *Women's Business Associations, Experiences from Around the World: Central and Eastern Europe* (Washington D.C.: CIPE, 2010).

Resources for women entrepreneurs exist but need strengthening.

The region offers resources for women entrepreneurs, including associations of businesswomen, micro- and SME financing, and knowledge and skills in technology.

- **Business associations** provide such resources as educational events, advice, training, and networking, as well as opportunities to expand enterprises (such as trade fairs). However, the women's business associations in the E&E region are generally weak and lack professional and organizational capacity. For example, they tend to operate with small budgets, provide limited services, rarely work with local governments or public administrators, and do not advocate for gender-sensitive reform of business regulations. Also, because women's business associations were largely initiated and supported by international organizations, questions exist about their sustainability.¹⁵ Capacity building and support for women's business associations would help them develop such activities as mentoring programs for female entrepreneurs, dissemination of success stories, and outreach to minority and marginalized

15. Eric Hontz, ed., *Women's Business Associations, Experiences from Around the World: Central and Eastern Europe* (Washington D.C.: CIPE, 2010).

women interested in business opportunities.

- The E&E region is home to many active **microfinance** providers. These formal, semiformal, and informal institutions such as banks, NGOs, credit unions, and savings and credit associations help microentrepreneurs by providing small loans and simple payment services as well as by accepting small savings deposits.¹⁶ Given the concentration of women entrepreneurs in micro- and home-based businesses as well as the issues they face, the targeting of women by such microfinance service providers is needed to help them develop, sustain, and grow their businesses. However, microcredit is not appropriate for SMEs or fast-growing businesses. These businesses need to build equity as well as take on and manage relatively larger loans (i.e., debt). Small companies with female leadership often do not access larger loans provided by equity investors or formal banks because they have an insufficient understanding of finance, lack knowledge about available financial services, or lack awareness of organizations or programs that could help them access resources

16. USAID, "ADS Chapter 219 Microenterprise Development" (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2011).

such as venture capital.¹⁷ Initiatives to support women entrepreneurs tend to include women-only microcredit programs rather than address the barriers that prevent women from accessing other financial services. Help in making use of traditional loans would support the growth of women's businesses beyond small-scale enterprises.

- Entrepreneurship often requires knowledge of and skills in specific *technologies*. Women in the region are less likely than men to have business-related education, and therefore have less training in the skills and technologies needed to run a successful business. Government support for business incubators, technology parks, university programs, and research centers that address the needs of high-tech enterprises is an important trend in the region. Such initiatives, especially business incubators, offer opportunities to use information and communication technology (for e-commerce) that could help women expand their businesses. Efforts are needed to ensure women's participation in these programs.¹⁸ Help in making use of traditional loans would support the growth of

17. Seftaoui, *Women's Economic Empowerment*.

18. Sattar, *Opportunities for Men and Women*.

women's businesses beyond small-scale enterprises.

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

The following are suggested questions to guide gender analysis regarding entrepreneurship in the E&E region. Note that the USAID-supported Business Climate Legal & Institutional Reform Project (BIZCLIR) has also created a diagnostic tool, GenderCLIR Indicators, to help identify and analyze the legal and institutional challenges specific to women entrepreneurs.¹⁹ The GenderCLIR Indicators are useful because they cover a wide range of topics, including women's role in society, women in the private sector, women and the labor market, women's access to credit and property, and women in trade.

Sex-disaggregated data

- What is the proportion of women among business owners? Are they sole owners or shareholders?
- What is the proportion of women managers of private enterprises?
- Does female ownership or management of enterprises correlate with the proportion of women among employees?
- What do data disaggregated by sex, size of business, and

19. BizClir, "Empowering Women in Business (Gender CLIR)" (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2009).

type of business reveal about enterprise owners?

Background and context

- Is there a formal definition of "women's entrepreneurship" in the law or a common understanding of what constitutes a "woman's business"?
- In what sectors are most businesswomen working? How are these sectors evaluated in terms of profitability and potential for growth?
- Is gender analysis applied when new laws or regulations are adopted that would affect the business sector?
- What are the primary constraints to doing business in the country (e.g., tax laws, customs regulations, business registration and inspection procedures, corruption, infrastructure issues)? How might these constraints affect men and women differently?

Gender roles and responsibilities

- If women have greater responsibilities for child care and housework, do they have enough time to also engage in entrepreneurship?
- Do gender stereotypes help or hinder entrepreneurial opportunities? For example, are there views about the size of businesses or types of business that are considered more appropriate for women

or men? Do such stereotypes contribute to women opening businesses in sectors that are less likely to be profitable or sustainable?

- Do men or women's self-perceptions or levels of self-confidence help or hinder them in the area of entrepreneurship?

Access to and control over assets and resources

- Is information available to ascertain whether “woman-owned” enterprises are actually operated by women?
- Do women and men have equal access to the resources required to start and run a business, including start-up capital, credit, property, etc.?
- Are women and men equally likely to be owners of property that might serve as collateral for a business loan (e.g., land, car, equipment, etc.)?
- Do any of the banks or financial institutions operating in the country have specialized lending programs targeting women entrepreneurs?
- Do women and men have equal access to formal or informal communication networks that share entrepreneurial information, including social (networking) settings?
- Do women and men have equal education or knowledge in areas that are important for

successful entrepreneurship? If yes, in what areas?

- Do women and men have equal access to technologies and services that support entrepreneurship, including training and other opportunities for skills development?
- Do women and men have equal access to business incubator programs and similar initiatives? Are such programs responsive to the technological needs of women entrepreneurs?
- To what extent do women's business associations conduct activities and offer the types of services (such as advocacy and mentoring programs) that would improve women's access to the resources needed to run a successful business?

Patterns of power and decision making

- Do women have control over and benefit from the funds and assets they may accrue from their enterprise?
- Do women and men have equal influence over decisions pertaining to the use of resources, activities, and profits on jointly owned enterprises or family businesses?
- Do women actively participate in formal decision making structures/bodies that address business-related issues (local economic

development committees, business associations, chambers of commerce)?

- Do the banks and financial institutions operating in the country employ women as loan officers? Are women represented at the managerial level?

RESOURCES

[2007 Report on Women and Entrepreneurship](#), United Kingdom: Global Entrepreneurship Research Association (2008).

[Country Notes and Profiles](#), include some gender-disaggregated information.

[Enterprise Development: Micro-Credit, GenderNet Practice Notes](#), SIDA (1998).

[Enterprise Surveys: What Businesses Experience](#), International Finance Corporation (2007–2009).

[GenderCLIR indicators](#), USAID

[Gender Dimensions of Investment, Climate Reform: A Guide for Policy Makers and Practitioners](#), World Bank (2010).

[Opportunities for Men and Women: Emerging Europe and Central Asia](#), World Bank (2012).

[Women's Business Associations, Experiences from Around the World: Central and Eastern Europe](#), CIPE (2010).

[Women's Economic Empowerment: Trends & Good Practices on Women's Entrepreneurship in the OSCE Region](#), OSCE (2010).

[Women's Empowerment Principles: Equality Means Business](#), UNIFEM (2010).

GENDER & EDUCATION

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the “Resources” section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.



USAID/JAY SORESENSEN

WHY CONSIDER GENDER

Education is an essential component of development programs—both as a tool to provide people with specific knowledge and skills and as a stand-alone sector for reform. Equality in education is an essential building block for equality in other aspects of the lives of boys and girls, men and women. The *USAID Education Strategy* (2011) explains that educational programs “should promote gender parity, gender equity, and focus on improving education quality for both boys and girls.”¹

1. USAID, *USAID Education Strategy*, (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2011).

Several dimensions of education should be examined in conducting gender analysis:

- **Equality of access to education**—examining all levels of education and whether gender parity is part of educational policy
- **Equality in the learning process**—which can encompass issues of teacher and staff capacity, gender-sensitive curriculum design, and gender bias in curricula and textbooks
- **Equality in educational outcomes**—including equal completion rates

- **Equality of external results**—which examines the status of men and women after leaving full-time education and their ability to access varied resources

This guidance note focuses on the first three dimensions in the E&E context. The final dimension, outcomes, can be assessed using other guidance notes, especially those concerned with employment and the labor market and political representation.

GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

There is near gender parity in enrollment rates for boys and girls at the primary and secondary education levels, but greater differences in enrollment in technical and vocational education and training. Looking at enrollment rates (but noting that enrollment differs from attendance), the E&E region exhibits close to gender parity in compulsory education. In fact, across the E&E region, Millennium Development Goal

“...do additional gender assessment if necessary to ensure that education interventions take local gender dynamics into account and promote gender equality.”

USAID EDUCATION STRATEGY, 2011

INTERNATIONAL STANDARD CLASSIFICATION OF EDUCATION (ISCED)

Compulsory educational system	ISCED 0	Preprimary education (first stage of organized instruction)
	ISCED 1	Primary education (first stage of basic education, generally starts at ages 5–7)
	ISCED 2	Lower secondary education (second stage of basic education)
	ISCED 3	Upper secondary education (more specialized, generally starts at ages 15–16)
	ISCED 4	Postsecondary nontertiary education (includes preuniversity and some vocational programs)
	ISCED 5	First stage of tertiary education (advanced education)
	ISCED 6	Second stage of tertiary education (programs leading to an advanced research qualification)

Source: UNESCO, International Standard Classification of Education ISCED 1997, 1997

Note: The ISCED was designed by UNESCO and approved in 1975 “to serve as an instrument suitable for assembling, compiling and presenting statistics of education both within individual countries and internationally,” by the International Conference on Education. The current version, ISCED 1997, was approved by the UNESCO General Conference in 1997.

(MDG) 3 concerning gender parity in education has been “nominally achieved,” and, female enrollment rates have remained high, despite the economic recession.”² There are no legal barriers that would prevent boys and girls from accessing education on equal terms, and formally there is free access to basic schooling as well as to higher education.

At the primary level (ISCED 1 and 2), there is near gender parity in all E&E countries. The gender gap in primary completion rates is also very small.

At the secondary education level, there is close to gender parity, with some variations in enrollment in general education and technical and vocational

2. UNECE, *The MDGs in Europe and Central Asia: Achievements, Challenges and the Way Forward* (Geneva: UNECE, 2010).

education and training (TVET). According to 2011 TransMonEE/ UNICEF data, enrollment rates for girls outnumber those for boys at ISCED 3 in all E&E countries except Albania, Azerbaijan, Georgia, and Kosovo. In contrast, male enrollment specifically in TVET at this level is 10–15 percent higher than female enrollment in all countries except Albania. Thus, more girls are enrolled in general study, and more boys are in courses oriented toward technical trades.

The above data raise several issues that should be given greater consideration in educational programming in the E&E region. First, the links between the lower participation of girls in TVET and higher unemployment rates for young women are not adequately understood. Additionally, there is still a tendency for such vocational training to rely on

traditional notions of “male” and “female” jobs, and training opportunities for girls are often oriented toward feminized sectors that do not lead to profitable work in today’s labor markets. Further analysis of barriers that girls may be facing in TVET should be supported.

Also of note is a downward trend in girls’ secondary enrollment in some E&E countries as compared to levels in high-income European countries. Although the enrollment gaps are not large, they have “accumulated over time rather than reversed.”³

Female enrollment rates are higher than male at the tertiary level. At higher levels of education, enrollment rates for women are higher than those for men. Women’s representation at ISCED 5 is higher than men’s in all E&E countries except Azerbaijan.

The pattern of feminization of enrollment at the tertiary level warrants closer examination. Factors that could explain why more young women pursue higher education than young men include men’s required military service and the fact that young men have more opportunities to find work with lower qualifications than are required for young women. On the other hand, young men

3. Sarosh Sattar, *Opportunities for Men and Women: Emerging Europe and Central Asia* (Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 2011).

may also feel pressure to find employment or to migrate for work immediately after compulsory schooling in order to support their families. Note that despite the high level of educational attainment among women in the E&E region, these achievements do not correlate with similar gains in the labor market or in access to decision-making positions. Again, further analysis of the gender differences in tertiary education would be useful.

Despite gender parity in enrollment rates, there are gender-based reasons for early school leaving. In several countries, a distinct trend in children leaving compulsory education early can be seen. For example, in Albania, Azerbaijan, and Serbia, specific populations of girls—some belonging to ethnic minorities—do not complete their basic education. Some drop out in order to marry, while others

leave to assist with unpaid work in the home. In other countries, Armenia and Georgia, for example, the dropout rate is higher for boys, which is linked to the need for young males to find paid employment.

While the educational system remains ostensibly free in the E&E region, specific fees associated with education are increasing. Economic constraints force some families to choose which children to educate, and gender stereotypes could play a role in such decisions. Economic factors are mainly relevant to post-primary education (ISCED 3 and 4). In some countries, including Azerbaijan, and in rural regions, girls complete compulsory education but do not pursue higher education.

Access to education is a minimal concern in the region, but assessing the quality of such education raises several gender-

related issues. Distinct patterns of gender inequality can be seen in the educational process.

Insufficient attention has been given to eliminating gender bias in the educational process.

Curricula and teaching materials, even ones developed during the transition period, have not always benefited from of gender expertise. Many educational materials continue to reinforce gender stereotypes, especially about what are considered “male” and “female” roles.

Teaching staff may also perpetuate gender stereotypes through their own biases, attitudes, and practices. For example, it is often the case that girls are encouraged to explore courses in areas such as cooking and sewing, while “traditionally male” subjects such as woodwork and car repair are promoted among boys.

A positive development in the region is the inclusion of general human rights topics in curricula at the compulsory education level, and in most countries there are examples of women’s NGOs working with schools and teachers to provide such instruction. However, there are few cases in which the subject of gender equality is an official part of the basic educational program. Even at the tertiary level, only a small number of universities offer degrees in gender studies. Gender has not been adequately addressed as part of pre- or in-service teacher training. In



OSCE/HAYK BADALYAN /PHOTOLURE/

fact, educational reform efforts have not focused on enhancing the capacity of staff to teach in a gender-sensitive manner—or even to assess the gender bias inherent in the educational system.

“ Gender segregation in the educational choices risks reinforcing occupational segregation in the labor market and thereby the gender pay gap.”

UNECE, THE MDGS IN EUROPE AND CENTRAL ASIA: ACHIEVEMENTS, CHALLENGES AND THE WAY FORWARD, 2010

The teaching profession, especially at the primary and secondary levels, is highly feminized. E&E countries exhibit marked gender imbalances in teaching staff, especially at the primary and secondary levels. In Armenia, Belarus, Moldova, Russia, and Ukraine, women account for almost 100 percent of the teachers in primary schools and, on average, about 70 percent of teachers at the secondary level. In contrast, across the region, half or less of tertiary-level teaching staff are women.⁴

Such gender imbalances have several implications. Despite the predominance of women in the teaching profession, they are concentrated at specific levels, and their representation is considerably lower in

4. Sattar, *Opportunities for Men and Women*.

authoritative and decision-making positions (school directors, university deans and rectors, or ministry of education staff). In tertiary education, most assistant professors, professors, department heads, and deans are male. For example, in Albania, 69 percent of assistant professors and 81 percent of full professors are male.⁵ In the Republic of Macedonia, 70 percent of the professors are men.⁶ In Georgia, women are underrepresented in professorial posts, even in departments where most of the student population is female, such as the humanities.⁷

Globally, the proportion of female teachers is high in countries where teacher salaries are low. The E&E region exhibits the same pattern, and the teaching profession—especially at the compulsory education level—is not well compensated. Teacher salaries are often below the national average salaries.

Concerning gender equality in the educational process, the lack of male role models in educational institutions affects both boys and girls, but has a particular impact on boys. The lack of male role models for

5. Catherine Cozzarelli, *2010 Gender Assessment for USAID/Albania* (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2010).

6. Catherine Cozzarelli, *Gender Assessment USAID/Macedonia* (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2010).

7. Elisabeth Duban, *Gender Assessment USAID/Georgia* (Washington, D.C.: USAID and DevTech Systems, Inc., 2010).

boys seems to have a negative impact on their academic performance and is associated with higher dropout rates. In Armenia and Azerbaijan, the lack of male teaching staff has been raised as a particular concern, and experts have called for men to become involved in promoting gender equality in educational institutions.⁸

There are distinct gender differences in the fields of study pursued by women and men.

As noted above, the existence of gender stereotypes in the educational system means that girls and boys are more likely to be encouraged to study “traditional” subjects at the compulsory education level. Such practices have an impact on the educational subjects girls and boys chose when entering higher education. This, in turn, is reflected in later career opportunities.

Higher education enrollment shows clear gender patterns, with young women dominating in “female” areas of study such as business administration, law, social sciences, journalism, humanities, and the arts. Young men are concentrated in science, mathematics, and computing programs. The technical fields generally correlate to jobs in

8. Elisabeth Duban, *Gender Assessment USAID/Armenia* (Washington, D.C.: USAID and DevTech Systems, Inc., 2010); UNDP Azerbaijan, “Honoring and Praising Teachers While Calling for Gender Equality” (UNDP Azerbaijan, website, accessed April 17, 2012).

higher-paying sectors. Study in the humanities and social sciences often leads to work in the lower-paid social service sector. Youth unemployment in the E&E region is high overall, which correlates to the fact that the education system has not adjusted to current labor market needs. Among youth, unemployment rates are generally higher for young women, but the full reasons for this difference are not clear. It is possible that the fields in which young women study, as well as a mismatch between educational outcomes and skills demanded by the market, make it particularly difficult for women to compete for jobs.

Gender-based issues may affect educational outcomes and the quality of educational results.

It has been observed in the region that school-age boys are more likely to be economically active than girls of the same age. Official data on working minors are limited, but Albania, Georgia, the Republic of Macedonia, and Ukraine all have relatively high proportions of working minors, the vast majority of whom are also enrolled in school.⁹ It would be useful to study the consequences for these children and the extent to which balancing school and work affects the ability of boys to achieve high educational outcomes.

9. Sattar, *Opportunities for Men and Women*.

Women's NGOs have drawn attention to the fact that some female students experience sexual harassment in educational institutions, particularly at the tertiary level. Sexual harassment can take the form of sexual exploitation by teachers and professors¹⁰ or sexual violence between students. In either case, sexual harassment can cause physical and psychological harm that ultimately impedes educational achievement.

Lack of preschool and child care facilities limits the economic opportunities of women who care for children. In the E&E region, preschool facilities (ISCED 0) are generally considered part of the educational system and within the purview of the ministry of education. During the transition period, the number of free or affordable preschool programs has decreased dramatically.

The limited availability of inclusive educational programs for children with disabilities is a related problem. Although boys and girls are equally affected when preschools and specialized schools are not available or sufficient, such inadequacies have a clear gender dimension. Due to women's primary role in caring for children, lack of educational facilities presents critical barriers to women's ability to work outside the

10. Transparency International, *Corruption in the Education Sector*, Working Paper No. 04/2007; 04/2009 (Berlin, Germany: Transparency International, 2009).

home. Further information on these topics can be found in Guidance Note 8: Gender & the Labor Market, and Guidance Note 13: Gender & Disability.

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

Sex-disaggregated data

- What are male and female compulsory and higher education enrollment rates? Are there regional variations in these rates? Do enrollment rates among minority groups differ from those reported for the general population?
- What are TVET enrollment rates for male and female youth?
- What are the male and female dropout rates for children and youth?
- What are the literacy rates, participation rates, retention rates, and levels of educational achievement for boys and girls and men and women?
- What are the male-to-female ratios of teaching staff and directors, deans, ministerial staff, etc.?

Background and context

- Is there a gender policy at the national level on education? Are there any national-level initiatives on gender mainstreaming in education?

Gender roles and responsibilities

- Has the ministry of education, NGOs, or other institutions

analyzed the educational curricula and materials for gender-based stereotypes? What were the findings of such studies?

- Has there been any analysis of whether practices in the educational system are based on gender stereotypes (e.g., gender streaming, which is the sex stereotyping of subjects and courses and career guidance, counseling advice)? What were the findings of such studies?
- What kind of teacher training exists to address gender stereotypes in instruction?
- Have efforts been made by the ministry of education, NGOs, or other organizations to support male and female role models to challenge gender stereotypes?
- Has there been any targeted recruitment of men into primary education?
- Is there any analysis of gender norms or stereotypes in relation to dropout rates?
- What is the impact on boys of the overrepresentation of female primary teachers?
- What efforts are being undertaken to counter norms that teaching at the primary is a “female profession” and to diversify the workforce? Do such efforts include introducing men to nontraditional fields or increasing the pay and

prestige associated with teaching?

Access to and control over assets and resources

- Are there any constraints that prevent males and females from continuing their education (e.g., gender division of labor; fees for education, access to transportation, etc.)?
- Is information readily available to both males and females about a variety of educational opportunities?
- Are there any constraints that prevent females from accessing TVET in particular?
- What scholarships or other incentives are offered to males and females in various subjects of study, especially at the tertiary level? Are such programs equally accessible to both males and females?

Patterns of power and decision making

- How are men and women represented at all levels of the teaching profession as well as in decision making positions in the sector, including in the ministry of education?
- Do curricula reinforce or challenge gender-based stereotypes about women in leadership roles?
- Are female education staff supported as decisionmakers?

RESOURCES

[UNESCO Institute for Statistics Data Centre.](#)

[Gender and Education](#) webpage, UNESCO.

[Education from a Gender Equality Perspective](#), USAID/Office of Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment/EQUATE (2008).

[Tips for Integrating Gender into USAID Education Sector Solicitations](#), USAID (2010).

[Education: Gender Equality Tip Sheets](#), Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) (2010).

[The MDGs in Europe and Central Asia: Achievements, Challenges and the Way Forward](#), UNECE (2010).

[Corruption in the Education Sector](#), Working Paper No. 4, Transparency International (2009).

[Opportunities for Men and Women: Emerging Europe and Central Asia](#), World Bank (2012).

[TransMonEE/UNICEF](#) (Monitoring the Situation of Women and Children in Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States) for 2009/2010 school year.

[Gender Assessment for USAID/Albania](#) (2010).

[Gender Assessment for USAID/Georgia](#), USAID and DevTech Systems, Inc. (2010).

[Honoring and Praising Teachers While Calling for Gender Equality](#), UN Department of Public Information Azerbaijan (2011).

GENDER & HIV/AIDS

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the “Resources” section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.

WHY CONSIDER GENDER

Gender roles, as well as how gender equality is observed in a country, affect HIV/AIDS prevalence and its impact on individual men and women. Understanding gender differences helps to better identify the factors (biological and social) that make men and women vulnerable to HIV infection, plan prevention and control efforts that include both women and men, and address their risk factors. A gender-sensitive approach includes gender-specific testing, counseling, and treatment processes as well as understanding the deeper impact of the pandemic on specific groups of women and men.

GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

HIV is a serious concern in the region, primarily affecting distinct at-risk populations. The HIV/AIDS pandemic is one of the most acute health and social problems facing the region, where it is a concentrated epidemic. Eastern Europe and Central Asia (including E&E) have experienced the fastest-growing HIV epidemic in the world, and in 2009 an estimated 1.4 million people were living

with HIV.¹ It largely affects the young, and shows distinct gender patterns in the region. While young men are more likely to become infected through injecting drug use, sexual contact is the more likely route of infection for young women. HIV is concentrated among the most-at-risk populations (MARPs): injecting drug users (primarily males but also females) and their partners, sex workers (primarily females), labor migrants (primarily males) and men who have sex with men (MSM). “A quarter of people who inject drugs are living with HIV... There is also increasing overlap between injecting drug use, sex work and heterosexual transmission of HIV. The number of women living with HIV is increasing.”²

Gender norms in the region contribute to vulnerabilities to HIV/AIDS. Gender norms around sexual practices are important considerations in HIV/AIDS programming. For example, studies have shown that Armenian male labor migrants are exposed to HIV in other countries and that

“ Gender-related factors shape the extent to which men, women, boys and girls are vulnerable to HIV infection, the ways in which AIDS affects them, and the kinds of responses that are feasible in different communities and societies.”

UNAIDS, FACT SHEET: GENDER AND HIV/AIDS, 2001

their female partners are often unable to negotiate safe sex or to refuse sexual relations with them because of gender divisions of power.³ Gender-based violence is also linked to women’s decreased ability to negotiate sexual relations, which results in higher rates of sexually transmitted infections among victims of domestic violence. Gender norms are implicated in men’s behavior and their engagement in risky and unhealthy practices, some of which (unsafe sex and injecting drug use) put them at risk for HIV infection.

While the MSM population is identified as a risk group, the stigma surrounding homosexuality means that

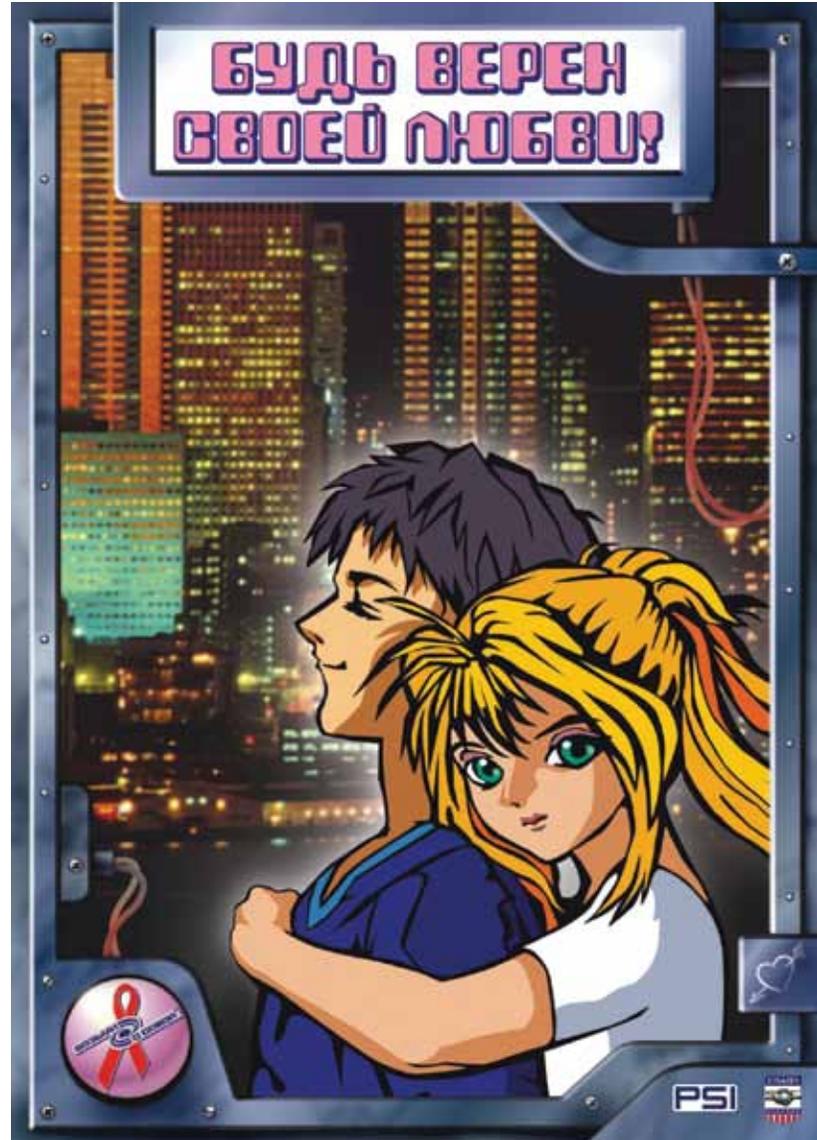
1. Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, *Making a Difference: Eastern Europe and Central Asia Results Report 2011* (Geneva: Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, 2011).
2. Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, *Making a Difference*.

3. Arusyak Sevoyan and Victor Agadjanian, “Male Migration, Women Left Behind and Sexually Transmitted Diseases in Armenia,” *International Migration Review* 44, No. 2 (2010).

MSM communities are often isolated and that few specialized health care services exist for this group. MSM also report discrimination from general providers. The stigmatization of MSM derives from gender-based norms regarding acceptable male behavior. Notions of taboo arguably have hindered the development of policies to address the needs of the MSM population in the region. Limited knowledge of the MSM population has complicated data-gathering initiatives and outreach to this group. “Partly because of the high levels of stigma, discriminatory practices and social exclusion they contend with, many of these men have female sexual partners as well, and these partners are also at high risk of HIV infection.”⁴

Women generally take on caregiving responsibilities for people living with HIV/AIDS. As in other regions, women in Europe and Eurasia are more likely to take on the primary burden of care for family members with HIV/AIDS. Caution should be exercised so that new projects or activities do not increase this burden and encourage men to share responsibility. The dominance of women working in the health care sector and the lack of specialists in male health may impede men’s access to specialized testing, counseling, care, and treatment. In general,

4. Sevoyan and Agadjanian, “Male Migration.”



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men exhibit less health-seeking behavior than women, and the lack of medical professionals in the field of male sexual and reproductive health in the E&E region is likely to inhibit men further. This is a particular concern for men and boys who engage in risky sexual behavior and who may also worry about a lack of confidentiality.

Attention to gender-based vulnerabilities to HIV and to gender-specific interventions has been limited. USAID has supported specific interventions for injecting drug users, men who self-identify as MSM,

HIV-positive pregnant women (under Prevention of Mother-to-Child Transmission [PMTCT] programs), and sex workers. However, work to address underlying gender disparities, social norms about male and female behavior, and stereotypes connected to gender-based risk factors have been given less attention. Medical services associated with HIV testing and treatment are not always coordinated with projects that address issues such as women’s economic vulnerabilities, domestic violence, trafficking in persons, cultural perceptions of masculinity, or substance abuse.

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

When conducting gender analysis in the context of HIV/AIDS programming, be sure to look beyond quantitative data (such as the number of women or men seeking treatment) to examine gender implications at the institutional and policy levels (e.g., how women's lack of economic independence could affect women living with HIV).⁵

The following are suggestions to guide gender analysis relevant to HIV/AIDS in the E&E region. The USAID publication *Integrating Gender into Health Programs: A Guide to Implementing ADS Requirements* provides many sample gender analysis questions, of which some are included below.

Sex-disaggregated data

- What are the rates of HIV infection by gender, age, etc.?
- What are the numbers of men and women seeking treatment?

Background and context

- Are official data gathered and monitored about specific at-risk populations, including sex workers and MSM?

5. For more guidance, see Interagency Gender Working Group, *Gender and Health Toolkit—Integrating Gender into Health Programs: A Guide to Implementing ADS Requirements* (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2010).

Gender roles and responsibilities

- How do expectations of women's and men's behaviors alter their vulnerability to HIV and/or the stigma associated with being HIV-positive?
- Regarding the content of general HIV/AIDS awareness materials, are they reinforcing gender stereotypes about women or men? Do they take a gender-specific and gender-sensitive approach?
- Regarding outreach materials for most-at-risk populations, how do they address underlying gender issues and values, in particular male risk-taking behaviors?
- Do mandatory partner notification policies as part of HIV testing increase or mitigate women's risk of gender-based violence?
- What are the gender differences in caring for the sick? Do men or women take on the burden of caring for family members living with HIV/AIDS?
- How can women be supported in their role of providing health care to household members?
- Have sex-disaggregated data been collected on preferences for male versus female health workers?

Access to and control over assets and resources

- To what extent are HIV testing programs accessible to both male and female most-at-risk populations?
- Are there gender disparities between men and women seeking or receiving health care and treatment services? If so, what are the barriers for men or women to accessing such services?
- Do civil society organizations have adequate resources and the freedom to effectively address the needs of both male and female MARPs? Where are there gaps in terms of access to resources and services for at-risk populations?
- How do women's crisis centers and shelters that assist female victims of domestic violence cooperate with local AIDS centers and medical facilities?
- How do women's crisis centers and shelters that assist female victims of human trafficking, as well as sex workers, cooperate with local AIDS centers and medical facilities?
- Do organizations that work with potential labor migrants cooperate with local AIDS centers and medical facilities?

Patterns of power and decision making

- Are there differences in the ability of women and men to negotiate the terms of their sexual relations?
- Do health education programs on such topics as reproductive health and safe sex practices include men as well as distinct male at-risk groups?
- Are there any mechanisms for men and women from at-risk populations (or for those living with HIV/AIDS) to be involved in policy discussions around HIV/AIDS programs, testing, and treatment guidelines (e.g., testimony during parliamentary hearings, expert working groups, NGO advocacy campaigns)?

RESOURCES

[The Interagency Gender Working Group \(IGWG\) Gender and Health Toolkit](#). 2012.

[Gender Analysis Tools](#).

[Integrating Gender into Health Programs: A Guide to Implementing ADS Requirements](#), IGWG (2012).

[HIV/AIDS Health Profile for Europe and Eurasia Region](#), USAID (2011).

[Technical Issue Brief: Gender and HIV/AIDS](#), USAID/GenDEV website. (2009)

[How to Integrate Gender into HIV/AIDS Programs](#), Gender and HIV/AIDS Task Force/IGWG/USAID (2004).

[HIV/AIDS and Gender: Fact Sheet Overview](#), UNFPA. (2004)

[Gender Equality and HIV/AIDS—portal](#). (2011)

[The Global Coalition on Women and AIDS](#). (2012)

[Integrating gender into HIV/AIDS programmes in the health sector: Tool to improve responsiveness to women's needs](#), WHO (2009).

[Men Having Sex with Men in Eastern Europe: Implications of a Hidden Epidemic](#), AIDSTAR-Two/USAID (2010).

[Men Matter! AIDS, Gender and Masculinities](#), SIDA (2007).

[Women, Harm Reduction and HIV. Key Findings from Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, Russia, and Ukraine](#), International Drug Policy Consortium (2009).

[Gender and HIV & AIDS](#), BRIDGE Cutting Edge Packs (2009).

Fact Sheet: Gender and HIV/AIDS, UNAIDS (2001).

[Making a Difference: Eastern Europe and Central Asia Results Report 2011](#), Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (2011).

Sevoyan, Arusyak and Agadjanian, Victor, *Male Migration, Women Left Behind and Sexually Transmitted Diseases in Armenia*, International Migration Review, Volume 44 Number 2, (Summer 2010).

GENDER & TUBERCULOSIS

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the "Resources" section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.

WHY CONSIDER GENDER

USAID has played a very active role in the control and spread of tuberculosis (TB) worldwide. Globally, more men are diagnosed with and die from TB than women. Still, TB is a leading infectious cause of death for women, accounting for a greater number of deaths than maternal causes or breast cancer. TB generally affects men and women in their most economically and reproductively active years (between ages 15 and 44). In this age range, men are typically responsible for economically supporting their families and women usually have child care responsibilities as well as formal work, which means that the impact of the disease is also felt strongly by the children and families of TB patients.¹

Some of the reasons for the higher TB rates among males are related to gender differences, such as men's specific vulnerabilities to HIV/AIDS, differences in exposure to the infection—for example, in military or prison settings—and behavioral patterns such as high rates of smoking. Socioeconomic factors may also limit women's access to health care and thus



GEORGE TSERETELI

account for underdiagnosis of TB. Globally, the feminization of the HIV epidemic has resulted in a greater burden of TB among women,² and so it can be assumed that in regions with growing rates of HIV infection among women, TB rates may also increase.

To address and control the infection effectively, clear data about infection rates for men and women must be established. Additionally, gender-sensitive interventions will take into consideration differences in exposure, diagnosis, and care for male and female TB patients.

Another important gender consideration is to determine

who bears the burden of caring for family members with TB. Generally, women are responsible for caring for ill family members. TB programming should take into consideration both the impact any interventions could have on women, as well as the role women play in limiting the spread of infection and ensuring that patients follow proper care and treatment protocols. In many countries, women have been specially trained to serve as educators on TB care.

GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

TB is a serious health concern for the region with clear gender dimensions. According to recent World Health Organization estimates, the countries with the highest infection rates in the E&E

1. Daryl Somma, Christian Auer, Abdallah Abouihia, and Mitchell G. Weiss, "Gender in Tuberculosis Research" (Geneva: WHO, 2004).

2. WHO, "Tuberculosis: Women and TB," Tuberculosis, last modified December 2009.

region are the Russia, Ukraine, Azerbaijan, Belarus, and Moldova, in order of severity. At present, USAID provides support for TB control and prevention in four E&E countries with high burdens of tuberculosis—Azerbaijan, Georgia, Russia, and Ukraine. According to regional data, the E&E and Central Asia accounted for approximately 4 percent of all TB cases reported worldwide in 2009.

The E&E region is also facing acute problems with multi-drug-resistant TB. In 2008, the region accounted for 51 percent of all confirmed cases of multi-drug-resistant TB worldwide; Russia alone accounted for the third largest number of estimated cases worldwide.³

Throughout the region, more men than women were diagnosed with TB in 2008; in several E&E countries (Albania, Armenia, Belarus, Georgia, Moldova, Russia, and Ukraine), the number of males reported among TB cases was more than twice that of females.⁴ In 2010, there were 80 percent more males than females among new TB cases and notified relapses.⁵

3. Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, *Making a Difference: Eastern Europe and Central Asia Results Report 2011* (Geneva: Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, 2011).

4. European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control/WHO Regional Office for Europe, "Tuberculosis Surveillance and Monitoring in Europe 2012" (Stockholm: European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control, 2012).

5. European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control/WHO Regional Office for

The disproportionate rate of infection reflects "the fact that many at-risk populations for TB (including migrant workers, prisoners and people living with HIV) are disproportionately male."⁶ Men and boys are overrepresented in other risk groups for TB infection, such as the homeless, street children, and people who inject drugs.

Other risk groups include the Roma and refugees. High relapse rates among men also suggest that the gender dimensions of such issues as men's access to health services, ability to follow treatment protocols, and behavioral differences should be studied further.

Women generally take on caregiving responsibilities for family members with TB. As is true in other regions, women in Europe and Eurasia are more likely to take on the primary burden of care for family members with TB.

Caution should be exercised so that new projects or activities do not increase this burden, and men should be encouraged to share responsibility. The dominance of women employed in the health care sector, as well as a lack of specialists in male health concerns, has implications for men's access to specialized testing, care, and treatment. This

Europe, "Tuberculosis Surveillance and Monitoring."

6. Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, *Making a Difference*.

is especially a concern for men and boys in high-risk groups who may already face constraints accessing health information and care.

Attention to gender-based vulnerabilities to TB and gender-specific interventions has been limited.

While interventions on TB in the region are targeting the needs of the most-at-risk populations, the deeper gender issues that stem from socialization and gender norms are given little attention. Providers or social services that work with male populations, especially vulnerable groups such as people living with HIV, prisoners, and the homeless are not always coordinated with medical services that provide treatment. Furthermore, outreach projects that do focus on risky behaviors seldom address the underlying gender norms that lead to risk taking. Finally, concrete data are lacking on the specific gender dimensions of the TB epidemic in the region.

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

When conducting gender analysis in the context of TB programming, be sure to look beyond the individual level (such as the number of men or women seeking treatment) to examine gender implications at the institutional and policy levels (e.g., how male gender norms could lead to greater risk taking and limited health-seeking behavior, or how women's lack

of economic independence could affect diagnosis and treatment).

The following suggested questions and documents are valuable resources when conducting gender analysis relevant to TB in the E&E region. The USAID publication *Integrating Gender into Health Programs: A Guide to Implementing ADS Requirements* also provides sample gender analysis questions as does the internal USAID document, *Gender Analysis in the Context of Tuberculosis Programs*. This document follows the Six Domains of Gender Analysis, and some of the questions are included below.

Sex-disaggregated data

- How many men and women are diagnosed with TB, living with TB, and receiving treatment for TB?

Background and context

- Have any studies been carried out that identify the risk factors for TB that are specific to men and women?

Gender roles and responsibilities

- What are the specific male and female most-at-risk populations? What are the risk factors?
- What targeted and distinct interventions exist for male and female most-at-risk populations? Are these interventions addressing gender-specific risk factors

(e.g., injecting drug use, smoking)?

- How do gender norms affect treatment adherence (e.g., losing paid income could deter men, household responsibilities could deter women, from completing treatment)?
- What are the gender differences in caring for the sick? Do men or women take on the burden of caring for family members with TB?
- How can women be supported in their role of providing health care to household members?
- Has the risk of household exposure to TB for women in caregiving roles been taken into consideration?

Access to and control over assets and resources

- Do men and women have equal access to TB diagnosis/detection and treatment services?
- Are there gender disparities between men and women seeking or receiving health care and treatment services? If so, what are the barriers (formal or informal) for men or women to accessing such services?
- Is TB screening, treatment, and education integrated into health services specifically directed to women (antenatal care, family planning, etc.)?

- Does the health care system adequately respond to the specific health needs of men, including by addressing risk factors for TB?
- Do civil society organizations that address such issues as HIV/AIDS, labor migration, homelessness, drug addiction, smoking cessation, and healthy lifestyles coordinate with medical services around TB prevention and control?
- Could such civil society organizations be mobilized to address TB in distinct male and female populations?

Patterns of power and decision making

- Do women, particularly from minority groups, have control over the money needed to seek health care (including travel expenses, clinic fees, etc.) for themselves and their children?
- Are there any mechanisms for men and women from at-risk populations (or those with TB) to be involved in policy discussions on TB testing and treatment guidelines (e.g., testimony during parliamentary hearings, expert working groups, NGO advocacy campaigns)?

RESOURCES

[The Interagency Gender Working Group \(IGWG\) Gender and Health Toolkit.](#)

[Gender Analysis Tools.](#)

[Integrating Gender into Health Programs: A Guide to Implementing ADS Requirements](#), IGWG (2010).

"Gender Analysis in the Context of Tuberculosis Programs," available from USAID's Global Health Bureau.

[Making a Difference: Eastern Europe and Central Asia Results Report 2011](#), Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (2011).

[Tuberculosis and Gender](#) webpage: World Health Organization.

[Fact Sheet: Women and TB](#), World Health Organization (2009).

[Tackling TB and HIV in Women: An Urgent Agenda](#), The Global Coalition on Women and AIDS (2010).

GENDER & DISABILITY

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the “Resources” section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.

WHY CONSIDER GENDER

USAID policy states that the Agency does not discriminate against people with disabilities and works to include people with disabilities in its programming and activities. Consequently, gender analysis should be conducted taking into consideration the distinct experiences of women and men with disabilities. The topic of disability should be approached as crosscutting and integrated into the gender analysis process for any sector being addressed.

According to the most recent World Health Organization estimates, based on a survey of 59 countries, the disability prevalence rate among adults worldwide is 15.6 percent of the population aged 18 and over.¹ The same survey indicates that disability rates are slightly higher among adult women than men (19 percent as compared with 12 percent). Globally, women with disabilities comprise three-quarters of all people with disabilities in low- and middle-income countries.² Women are more likely to become disabled due to poor working

conditions, lack of access to quality health care, gender-based violence, and, in old age, because of their generally longer life expectancies. While both men and women with disabilities face distinct challenges, women often encounter specific forms of discrimination, and in many countries they are a “hidden” group.

Data and research on the subject of disabilities are often lacking. Without specific analysis, it is very difficult to determine to what extent men and women with disabilities could participate in or may be affected by a program or activity.

Post-conflict countries generally have a higher number of people with disabilities in the population, but their specialized needs are not always given consideration in post-conflict recovery programs.

A final issue concerns women’s role in caring for and assisting people with disabilities. Because women take on the greater burden of domestic and child care, they are more likely to care for children or other family members with disabilities. This means that any projects that aim to improve the lives of people with disabilities could also have a positive impact on the women who care for them. And when specialized services and accommodations



WORLD VISION

are not made for people with disabilities—for example, if urban planning does not take into consideration access for people with disabilities, or educational programs are not inclusive—women in caregiving roles will also be burdened.

GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

Comprehensive statistics and information about gender differences and disability are limited. Although the countries of the E&E region collect some official data about persons with disabilities and these are sometimes disaggregated by sex, data are generally limited to people who are officially registered as disabled and eligible for social benefits. Because of the stigma associated with disability, many people are reluctant to self-identify as disabled. Also, certain types of disability (developmental or psychosocial) are “hidden,”

1. WHO and World Bank, *World Report on Disability* (Geneva:WHO, 2011).
2. USAID Office of Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment, “Women with Disabilities, General Statistics” (Washington, D.C.: USAID last updated January 27, 2012).

“...there are no statistics for women with disabilities in areas such as: employment, education and vocational training, inclusion in community and services. National statistics are fragmented...thus not permitting [judgments] about the total number of girls and women with disabilities, their current status, and needs.”

ALBANIAN DISABILITY RIGHTS FOUNDATION, WOMEN WITH DISABILITIES IN ALBANIA: INCLUDED OR NEGLECTED?, 2009

meaning they cannot be readily identified without diagnostic testing.³ Data collection or census-taking processes, therefore, do not necessarily identify all people with disabilities.

Surveys and other forms of data collection on issues of particular concern to women or men (e.g., domestic violence or reproductive health) do not necessarily include persons with disabilities. This means that qualitative information about distinct gender issues for persons with disabilities is lacking in the region.

Protecting the rights of people with disabilities is a relatively

3. USAID, “How to Integrate Disability into Gender Assessments and Analysis” (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2010).

new development in the region, and consequently, issues such as the intersections of various forms of discrimination (on the basis of sex and ability, e.g.) have not been the subject of much study and are generally not included in policy discussions or strategic planning.

Negative stereotypes about disabled persons continue to limit the extent to which the intersections of gender and disability are understood. In the E&E region, important work has been done by disabled persons organizations (DPOs) to advance the disability rights movement. Still, the Soviet legacy—under which people with disabilities were frequently institutionalized and isolated from mainstream society—continues to have an impact. DPOs have been active in working to change public attitudes, but negative stereotypes persist around disability. This stereotyping is especially prevalent concerning unseen disabilities, such as developmental, mental health, or psychosocial issues.

Awareness-raising efforts tend to focus on removing the stigma of disability and addressing discrimination against people with disabilities in a gender-neutral manner. They generally do not address the gender-based stereotypes associated with disability or the double discrimination that women with disabilities face. Gender norms affect how society perceives

men and women with disabilities. People with disabilities face prejudice and discrimination if they are considered unable to meet traditional expectations about gender roles (e.g., financially supporting a family or marrying and having children). Gender-based stereotypes associated with disability also have an impact on the family. For example, in some countries, women report that the stigma around disability extends to mothers who are viewed as responsible when a child is born with a disability. Families of girls with disabilities may be less likely to invest in their education if they expect that they will not marry or leave the family home.

Strong DPOs exist, but they rarely network with women’s organizations. The E&E region has seen the development of successful DPOs as well as women’s NGOs and organizations that promote gender equality. However, few links among such organizations have been established. DPOs tend to address the rights of disabled persons from a gender-neutral standpoint, while women’s NGOs generally advocate for gender equality without specifically focusing on disabled women.

The lack of accessible buildings and transport affects people with disabilities and their caregivers. Much of the infrastructure in E&E countries dates from the Soviet era—a time when people with disabilities’ needs

to access public spaces were not accommodated. While there has been a general recognition that public buildings and transportation must be accessible, providing such access has not always been a priority for municipal governments. Retrofitting older buildings can be costly, and funds are often not sufficient for these projects.

Perhaps more significantly, initiatives to increase civic participation in public discussions of such issues as urban planning and budget allocations have not necessarily included people with disabilities. The same barriers that prevent women from influencing policymaking also affect women with disabilities.

Women in the E&E region are more frequent users of public services and spaces (e.g., public transportation, clinics for women and children, administrative offices for receipt of child benefits, and schools). Thus the extent to which any such services are inaccessible to disabled persons has a greater impact on women with disabilities. Because women undertake the greater burden of care for children and other family members with disabilities in the E&E region, lack of access for people with disabilities affects them as well.

Lack of access to education for disabled children also affects women who provide care. Several countries in the region have made progress in introducing models of inclusive education,

but this is still not the norm. When children with disabilities cannot be accommodated in local educational facilities, this situation also affects women's ability to work outside the home, as they are the parent most likely to care for the child.

Men and women with disabilities have distinct health needs that are not always adequately addressed by the mainstream system. The issue of access to sexual and reproductive health services is relevant to all disabled persons, but in the E&E region it is a particular concern for women with disabilities. Issues raised by advocates for women with disabilities in the region include physical barriers, inaccessible equipment for examinations, medical personnel's inadequate skill and knowledge when examining women with disabilities, exclusion from informational and educational programs, and commonly held attitudes about disability that preclude discussions about contraception and pregnancy with disabled women. Research suggests that men and women with disabilities are at greater risk for HIV infection than the mainstream population, and that each sex has distinct risk factors. HIV/AIDS programs in the region have not generally addressed disabled persons, and prevention and educational programs have tended to focus on nondisabled risk groups.

People with disabilities face difficulties in finding employment,

“ Girls and women of all ages with any form of disability are among the more vulnerable and marginalized of society. There is therefore need to take into account and to address their concerns in all policymaking and programming.”

***UNITED NATIONS GENERAL ASSEMBLY
RESOLUTION S-23/3, JUNE 10, 2000***

and women face additional forms of discrimination. Several countries in the region have legislation that supports the delineation of special workplaces for people with disabilities or quota systems. In reality, both men and women with disabilities have trouble finding employment. Globally, “men with disabilities are almost twice as likely to have jobs as women with disabilities.”⁴ This pattern is apparent in the E&E region as well. For example, a study conducted in the Republic of Macedonia of 100 firms that employ physically disabled people found that men accounted for over three-quarters of the employees with disabilities.⁵ The primary barriers to employment women

4. Çani Drenofci, Kalemi, Xheka, Zyba, “Women with Disabilities in Albania.”

5. Vesna Jovanova, Sunchica Dimitrijoska, Steven Tomovski, and Miodrag Ignjatovik. “The Position of the Physically Disabled Persons on the Labor Market,” Association of Physically Disabled Persons in Macedonia, United Nations Development Fund for Women.

with disabilities identified were demand for “male” occupations, traditional family roles, and lack of support from the family.⁶

Women and girls with disabilities are particularly vulnerable to violence and abuse. Studies have indicated that people with disabilities are generally at greater risk for violence and sexual abuse. Women and girls are especially vulnerable to gender-based violence. Programs in the E&E region that address gender-based violence—both domestic violence and trafficking in persons—have generally not included specialized services for women with disabilities. For example, telephone hotlines may be inaccessible to women with hearing impairments.

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

The following are suggestions to guide gender analysis relevant to disability in the E&E region. Note that the USAID publication *How to Integrate Disability into Gender Assessments and Analysis* suggests that the Six Domains of Gender Analysis can be modified slightly to ensure that questions are included that relate to men, women, and children with disabilities. It is recommended that *How to Integrate Disability into Gender Assessments and Analysis* be consulted when conducting any gender analysis.

6. Jovanova, Dimitrijoska, Tomovski, and Ignjatovik, “The Position of the Physically Disabled Persons.”

Sex-disaggregated data

- How many men and women with disabilities are in the country overall?
- How many men and women/boys and girls with disabilities are there among the potential beneficiaries of the project?

Background and context

- Has the country signed or ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities?
- Are there domestic laws that promote the rights and equality of men and women with disabilities?
- Are women with disabilities specifically mentioned in domestic laws on gender equality or national policy documents designed to increase gender equality and empower women (e.g., national action plans or strategies)?
- Are there formal DPOs or disability associations within the country? How are women involved and represented in these organizations? Is there separate representation for women with disabilities?

Gender roles and responsibilities

- How is disability viewed within the country? Are there specific cultural beliefs or stereotypes toward disability that might affect access to programs and services

for women and men with disabilities?

- Are there distinct stereotypes or expectations about women with disabilities compared to men with disabilities?
- Is the division of responsibilities related to child care and housework for men and women with disabilities consistent with the gender divisions for people without disabilities? Would these responsibilities preclude men and/or women with disabilities from participating in development projects?
- In families where there is a child with a disability, is there a difference in child care and housework responsibilities for men and women in the house compared to families that do not have children with disabilities? Also, are there additional responsibilities related to the disability that may differentially affect a parent’s or caregiver’s willingness or availability to participate in program activities?
- Do parents have different expectations for their children with disabilities based on whether the child is male or female?

Access to and control over assets and resources

- Do people with disabilities have equal access to government and/or USAID-sponsored programs? Is the

location/mechanism of service provision equally physically accessible to both women and men with disabilities?

- Do females and males with disabilities have equal access to assets and resources, such as education and training, employment opportunities, health services, property or land, bank accounts, credit or financial services, etc.?
- Do women and men with disabilities have equal access to information sources (such as telephones and the Internet) or to disability aids (e.g., education in Braille or sign language) that facilitate access to information?
- Do women and men with disabilities have different public transport needs? Does the current transport system provide men and women with disabilities equal access to educational opportunities and to engage in economic activities?

Patterns of power and decision making

- Do people with disabilities—specifically women—have the power to make their own decisions about issues related to the intended programming, such as employment, housing, education, health care, civic participation, etc.?
- Are there any gender differences in the extent to which men and women with disabilities live independently

within a community, or are they encouraged to live with family members or in institutions?

- Are there differences in the extent to which men and women with disabilities participate in formal decision-making structures (local government, community groups, associations, etc.)?
- Are there specific laws, regulations, or customary practices that impact the rights of either women or men with disabilities to make independent decisions regarding marriage and starting a family?

RESOURCES

[*The Prevalence of Disability in Europe and Eurasia*](#), (USAID/E&E/DGST) (2009).

[*Consolidated Disability Findings from the 2010 U.S. State Department Country Reports on Human Rights, Europe and Eurasia Region*](#), United States International Council on Disabilities.

[*International Disability Rights Monitor: Regional Report of Europe*](#), International Disability Network (2007).

[*Children and Disability in Transition in CEE/CIS and Baltic States*](#), UNICEF Innocenti Research Center (2005).

[*Transitions Towards an Inclusive Future: Vocational Skills Development and Employment Options for Persons with Disabilities in Europe & Eurasia*](#) (USAID/E&E/DGST) (2009).

[*Women with Disabilities*](#), USAID Office of Gender Equality & Women's Empowerment website.

[*How to Integrate Disability into Gender Assessments and Analysis*](#), USAID Office of Gender Equality & Women's Empowerment (2010).

[*Best Practices in Inclusive Education for Children with Disabilities: Application for Program Design in the Europe & Eurasia Region*](#) (USAID/E&E/DGST) (2010).

[*Women with Disabilities in Albania: Included or Neglected?*](#), Albanian Disability Rights Foundation (2009).

[*The Position of the Physically Disabled Persons on the Labor Market*](#), Study of the Conducted Research, Association of Physically Disabled Persons in Macedonia (STILM) (2010).

GENDER & CHILD WELFARE

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the “Resources” section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.

WHY CONSIDER GENDER

Child welfare programs are primarily concerned with ensuring that vulnerable children are provided with the opportunities, support, and services they need for their full and healthy development. In USAID programming, vulnerable children include orphans and other children living in institutions, such as children with disabilities, children living on the street, child victims of trafficking, as well as children at risk for and experiencing violence. USAID also focuses on improving support structures, such as the social work profession, which are responsible for child protection and welfare.

Gender is implicated in child welfare programs in terms of the specific risks and vulnerabilities of boys and girls as well as the need for gender-specific social services. The gendered aspects of poverty, violence, and even substance abuse are also connected with parents' abilities to care for their children properly, and are important factors to consider in addressing the risks for child abandonment.

GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

According to UNICEF and Council of Europe studies of child welfare there are several



SUSAN SOMACH

common trends in child welfare in the region:

- Each year, more children are separated from their families, which indicates that family vulnerability is still an issue.
- The rate of children in formal care is increasing. Generally, such children are “social orphans,” meaning they have living parents who are unable to care for them or who have had their parental rights terminated.
- Poverty is an important factor in children being separated from their parents, but other

factors—including single parenthood, migration, and disability of the child, among others—also play a role.

- Children with disabilities account for a large proportion of children in care.¹
- The development of family-based alternative care models, such as foster

1. UNICEF Regional Office for Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States (CEE/CIS), “At Home or in a Home? Formal Care and Adoption of Children in Eastern Europe and Central Asia” (Bratislava, Slovak Republic: UNICEF, 2010).

care, has been slow. Some countries (Moldova, Russia, and Ukraine) have shown some success in increasing the numbers of citizens who adopt children from local orphanages.²

While child welfare is generally approached inclusively, referring to both boys and girls, there are gender dimensions to the issue.

Limited data on the numbers of vulnerable girls and boys complicate the process of identifying gender-based patterns in child welfare. The availability of age- and sex-disaggregated data and research pertaining to child welfare is very limited. Most studies refer to children collectively. National-level estimates from Eastern Europe and Central Asia (including E&E) indicate that boys account for more than half of all children registered as without parental care, and rates in some countries are almost 60 percent.³

Most street children are male. Studies in Albania and Russia found that 75 percent of working street children are boys.⁴ Information from Georgia also indicates that

most street children are male.⁵ Further research is needed to understand the underlying causes of this disparity. As has been pointed out in other countries with populations of street children, “street girls can remain largely invisible to services in countries where gender discrimination is deeply entrenched.”⁶ The specific vulnerabilities of boys to abandonment or homelessness need to be clearly identified so that social services can be more responsive to the needs of boys. At the same time, social services should continue to take into consideration girls and their specific experiences.

Boys and girls without parental care face distinct risks and consequences. Children without parental care and those living in institutions are vulnerable to exploitation and abuse. Both boys and girls living on the street are exposed to violence and drug use. In Russia, it was found that among street children, 88 percent of those involved in prostitution were girls; boys

were more likely to be involved in the distribution of drugs.⁷

Girls appear to be at greater risk for child trafficking linked to prostitution and child sex tourism. In Moldova, 80 percent of minor victims of trafficking are girls.⁸ Boys too may be trafficked, especially into child labor, but most victim identification services that work with male victims are set up to work with adults. Because sexual abuse of boys is a latent crime, and gender norms around masculinity make it an especially taboo subject, data on male victims may be underreported. A regional review conducted in Belarus, Moldova, Russia, and Ukraine indicated that boys and girls were equally at risk of sexual exploitation in the production of abusive images, generally through trafficking situations.⁹ Services for child victims of sexual exploitation remain underdeveloped in the region, but those that exist are by and large oriented toward assisting women and girls.

Domestic violence, as well as child abuse, is a critical problem in the region and is often a

2. Nigel Cantwell, “Adoption and Children: A Human Rights Perspective, Commissioner for Human Rights,” Council of Europe Commissioner for Human Rights, last modified April 28, 2011.
3. UNICEF Regional Office for CEE/CIS, “At Home or in a Home?”
4. James Martin, “Child Labour in Europe and Central Asia: Problem and Response: An Overview of Selected Countries—A Working Paper” (Geneva:

ILO International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour, 2003).

5. UNICEF, “Innocenti Social Monitor 2009—Child Well-being at a Crossroads: Evolving Challenges in Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States” (Florence: UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, 2009).
6. “Street Children: A Mapping & Gapping Review of the Literature 2000 to 2010,” (London: AVIVA and Consortium for Street Children, 2011).

7. Martin, “Child Labour in Europe.”

8. Tatiana Fomina and Rusu Viorela, “Overview of the Child Trafficking Phenomenon in the Republic of Moldova 2010” (Chisinau, Moldova: International Center for Women Rights Protection and Promotion, 2010).
9. ECPAT International, “Regional Overview of Child Sexual Abuse Images through the Use of Information and Communication Technologies in Belarus, Moldova, Russia and Ukraine” (Bangkok: ECPAT International, 2008).



USAID/JAY SORESENSEN

reason for the termination of parental rights. Domestic violence has a deep and gendered impact on children, even on those who do not directly experience physical abuse. There are correlations between boys' experience and witnessing of family violence and later delinquency and criminal behavior. Boys may repeat the cycle of violence in their own relationships, while girls are at risk for becoming victims of gender-based violence later in life.

Some of the factors that lead to child abandonment are gender-based. One possible reason that more than half of the children without parental care are boys is the lack of institutions specifically for girls, which deters parents from placing

them in mixed institutions.¹⁰ Gender stereotypes about boys exhibiting more difficult behavior than girls or being better able to fend for themselves may also play a role. Adoptive and foster parents appear less interested in adopting boys, perhaps also due to prevailing notions that girls are easier to raise. Also, boys may be more likely than girls to leave their families if they are experiencing violence or other social problems at home.

There are important gender dimensions behind some of the reasons that parents cannot properly care for their children. Women and children in the E&E region are more likely to be living in poverty. A large number of children in the region are also being raised by single mothers, which puts them at

10. UNICEF Regional Office for CEE/CIS, "At Home or in a Home?"

further risk for impoverishment and abandonment. For example, according to recent estimates, over 10 million Russian women are raising children alone.¹¹ Also, 40 percent of female-headed households (including single mothers) are below the poverty line in Russia.¹²

The number of women living with HIV in the region is increasing, and there is a correlation between HIV-positive status and child abandonment.

Services and programs for children should take gender differences into consideration.

Outreach and services provided to vulnerable children should be tailored to the specific rights, needs, and vulnerabilities of boys and girls. Boys outnumber girls among children without parental care and may be in institutions longer than girls. Specific measures may be called for in promoting adoption, foster care, and family reunification to counteract negative stereotypes about boys. Greater attention to boys' socialization and provision of life skills could be part of such efforts, and providers should ensure that boys benefit from programming and social services equally with girls.

11. Nadezhda Popova, "The number of single mothers in Russia has exceeded 10 million" (Russian), *Arguments of the Week*, No. 14 (255), last modified April 13, 2011.

12. Ewa Charkiewicz, *The Impact of the Crisis on Women in Eastern Europe* (Toronto: Association for Women's Rights in Development, 2010).

The majority of caretakers in orphanages are female, so it is important to ensure that boys are acquainted with positive male role models whom they can emulate. Among street children, girls and boys use different survival strategies; different approaches are thus needed in service and assistance programs.

Prevention of child abandonment should address the issues that put mothers and fathers at risk for abandoning their children from a gender perspective, taking into consideration women's lower economic status, vulnerabilities to HIV/AIDS, and the lack of preventative work with men who use violence or are substance abusers.

A final important element to consider is the weakness of the social work profession in the region. Social workers could play an important role in early identification of families at risk. The profession is relatively new but also highly feminized throughout the region. Gender norms of women as helpers and caregivers contribute to this gender imbalance. Although seen as socially important, social work is afforded little prestige and is characterized by low salaries and heavy and complex workloads. Limited efforts have been made to encourage men to enter this field.

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

Sex-disaggregated data

- How many children are without parental care, living in institutions or on the street, by age and disability status?
- How many children are being raised by single female and male parents?

Background and context

- Have any national- or regional-level studies been undertaken to study gender-related differences relevant to children without parental care (e.g., time living in institutions, rates of adoption, inclusion in foster care programs, or family reunification)?
- What are the commonly identified risk factors for child abandonment? Do they include factors that may differ by sex of the parents or their abandoned children?
- How is gender addressed in programs to prevent child abandonment?

Gender roles and responsibilities

- Are there any stereotypes about boys that lead to greater abandonment and decreased likelihood of adoption of male children?
- Are such stereotypes being addressed by child welfare programs?
- What distinct factors lead boys and girls to leave their

families, in the case of street children?

- Do programs that aim to prevent child abandonment work with both mothers and fathers at risk?
- What is the generally accepted view of the role of fathers in raising children? How is this implicated in cases of child abandonment?
- What is the impact of the overrepresentation of women among social workers on boys at risk for child abandonment (e.g., in terms of identification and providing referrals to appropriate services)?
- What efforts are being undertaken to counter norms that social work is a "female profession" and to diversify the workforce? Do such efforts include introducing men to nontraditional fields or increasing the pay and prestige associated with social work?

Access to and control over assets and resources

- Do boys and girls living in institutions have equal access to same-sex role models?
- What male role models are there specifically for boys?
- Are boys and girls benefiting equally from programs designed to reintegrate them with their families, or place them in foster care or for adoption?

- Do boys and girls who are living in violent families have equal access to shelters and other services for domestic violence victims?
- Do NGOs and other groups that address prevention of trafficking in persons work with risk groups among street children and children in institutions? Are such programs accessible and tailored to both girls and boys?
- Are there substance abuse programs tailored to the needs of men and women? Do such programs coordinate with social workers or other specialists on the prevention of child abandonment?
- Are there programs for men who use violence in relationships?
- Do single mothers have access to monetary and other social benefits?

Patterns of power and decision making

- Are there organizations that advocate for gender-specific programs to address the vulnerabilities of boys and girls within formal decision making processes on child welfare issues?
- Are there mechanisms by which the voices of boys and girls/young men and women can be included in policy discussions on child welfare

issues (e.g., meeting with parliamentarians, working with NGOs on advocacy campaigns)?

RESOURCES

[The Job that Remains: An Overview of USAID Child Welfare Reform Efforts in Europe and Eurasia](#) (USAID/E&E/DGST) (2009).

[At home or in a home? Formal Care and Adoption of Children in Eastern Europe and Central Asia](#), UNICEF Regional Office for Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States (CEE/CIS) (2010).

[Children and Disability in Transition in CEE/CIS and Baltic States](#), UNICEF Innocenti Research Center (2005).

[State Reports to the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child](#).

[Child Protection Resource Package](#), UNICEF CEE/CIS website.

[Best Practices in Inclusive Education for Children with Disabilities: Application for Program Design in the Europe & Eurasia Region](#) (USAID/E&E/DGST) (2010).

[Social Work Education and Practice Environment in Europe and Eurasia](#)

[TransMONEE Info](#): A searchable database of information from 2010 on indicators of child welfare for the CEE/CIS region, created by UNICEF.

[Adoption and Children: A Human Rights Perspective](#), Commissioner for Human Rights. Council of Europe (2011).

[Child Well-Being at a Crossroads: Evolving challenges in Central and Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States](#), UNICEF/ Innocenti Social Monitor 2009.

[Child Labour in Europe and Central Asia: Problem and Response](#), ILO International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) (2003).

[Don't Call Me a Street Child: Estimation and Characteristics of Urban Street Children in Georgia](#), UNICEF, (2009).

[The Impact of the Crisis on Women in Eastern Europe](#), Association for Women's Rights in Development (AWID) (2010).

[The number of single mothers in Russia has exceeded 10 million](#), Gender Informational Network of the South Caucasus (GINSC), 15 April, 2011. (Russian)

[Street Children: A Mapping & Gapping Review of the Literature 2000 to 2010](#), Consortium for Street Children (2011).

[Overview of the Child Trafficking Phenomenon in the Republic of Moldova](#), La Strada/Moldova (2010).

GENDER & DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the “Resources” section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.

WHY CONSIDER GENDER

Domestic violence is one of the most widespread and devastating forms of gender-based violence. Domestic violence is considered gender based because it is a type of abuse that is perpetrated against a person (female or male) as a result of unequal power relations that are themselves based on gender roles. Gender-based violence is caused by and reinforces inequalities between women and men.

Because gender discrimination leads to women’s disempowerment, females are more at risk for gender-based violence than men. The Council of Europe elaborates, “domestic violence is most often perpetrated by men against former or current intimate partners, although it is recognized that violence is also perpetrated by women and occurs in same-sex relationships.”¹ “Family violence” and “intimate-partner violence” are other terms used to describe this type of violence that occurs in the private sphere.

Domestic violence may be manifested in physical abuse (e.g., slapping, beating), psychological

abuse (e.g., verbal aggression, threats, intimidation) or sexual abuse (e.g., coerced sex), as well as manipulation and isolation of the victim. Economic abuse is a typical element of domestic violence and includes limiting the victim’s financial independence, controlling economic decisions, and controlling access to employment. Domestic violence is a series of abusive behaviors, beginning with intimidation and control and building to physical violence, but victims may experience several forms of abuse throughout/during the relationship. In extreme cases, domestic violence results in death.

Domestic violence is often accepted as a “normal” part of the private relations between men and women. This means that victims may be reluctant to speak openly about the problem and that professional groups (law enforcement or health care providers, for instance) are often unwilling to become involved. Combating domestic violence requires overcoming the view that domestic violence is a private affair and addressing the accepted roles of men and women.

USAID recognizes the impact of domestic violence across the various sectors of development work, including the areas of

“ Domestic violence needs to be understood in a wider social context which permits the perpetrators to assume the right to use violence as a means of exercising dominance and control.”

COUNCIL OF EUROPE, COUNCIL OF EUROPE DOMESTIC VIOLENCE CAMPAIGN.

“poverty reduction, access to safe migration, peace and reconciliation processes, safe and supportive education systems, the provision of appropriate health services, and promotion of the rule of law as well as equal rights and economic and political opportunities for women.”²

A useful framework for designing projects that comprehensively address domestic violence is through the “three P’s”—*preventing* domestic violence from occurring or escalating, *providing* protection to survivors of domestic violence and their children, and *prosecuting* perpetrators of domestic violence.

1. Council of Europe, “The Council of Europe Campaign to Combat Violence against Women, including Domestic Violence,” last modified September 2008.

2. Elisabeth Duban, *Toolkit for Integrating Domestic Violence Activities into Programming in Europe & Eurasia* (Washington, D.C.: USAID, JBS International, Inc., 2009).

GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

Domestic violence is a serious problem in the E&E region for the individual victims and their families as well as in terms of impeding progress toward development goals, such as women's equal participation in political, economic, and social activities.

Domestic violence is a widespread problem for the region, but comprehensive statistics, data, and research are limited.

An issue for the E&E region as a whole is the limited amount of official data on the incidence of domestic violence and lack of information about the true prevalence of the problem. National-level studies suggest that 20–30 percent of women and their children are affected by domestic violence; this is comparable to other world regions.³ A Council of Europe survey of member states, which includes Western European countries as well as countries of the E&E region, found that from one-fifth to one-quarter of all women in its member countries have suffered physical violence at least once in their adult lives. In the majority of cases, the perpetrator is a partner or ex-partner.⁴

As is true worldwide, females are the primary victims of

domestic violence in the E&E region, and most perpetrators are male. For example, official statistics in Georgia confirm that 87 percent of victims in reported cases of domestic violence from 2007 to 2008 were women.⁵

NGOs that work on the issue of domestic violence generally have considerable anecdotal information on the problem but lack the technical capacity and funding to carry out large-scale studies and surveys. Official data are usually collected through law enforcement bodies when victims make official complaints, but other data sources—such as hospital records or emergency room visits—are unavailable or not cross-referenced. It is also known that a large number of victims do not report violence through official channels, and this may result in underestimation of the extent of the problem or obscure some manifestations of domestic violence.

Domestic violence is recognized as a problem, but it is generally considered a private matter and victims may be stigmatized.

A key positive development in the region is an overall increase in attention given to the issue of domestic violence, both from the state and civil society. This has resulted in greater comprehension of the dynamics of abuse, the forms of domestic

violence, and the need to take preventive action. Gaps still remain, and societal tolerance and acceptance of domestic violence as an inevitable part of family life persists. Many victims and family members, as well as professionals in the law enforcement and health care systems, continue to view domestic violence as a private matter or a taboo subject. Such attitudes mean that victims feel shame or are considered responsible for the abuse and thus are reluctant to make use of formal channels to seek help. Victims themselves are influenced by prevailing societal attitudes that domestic violence is a private matter or that violence is justified under certain conditions (infidelity or failing to perform domestic duties, e.g.). Victims may blame themselves for abuse. Even in countries that have adopted laws that allow law enforcement to temporarily remove abusers from the home or that provide shelter for victims, many women still do not report violence or seek help through official channels. However, while victims may be reluctant to approach officials about domestic violence, the overwhelming majority is likely to inform family members. A national study in Georgia confirmed such trends. Eighty percent of respondents stated that domestic violence should only be discussed within the family. Only 2 percent of victims confirmed they approached police, medical professionals,

3. Ruth Rosenberg, *Domestic Violence in Europe and Eurasia* (Washington, D.C.: USAID, JBS International, Inc., Creative Associates International, 2006).

4. Council of Europe, "Campaign to Combat Violence against Women."

5. Elisabeth Duban, *Gender Assessment USAID/Georgia* (Washington, D.C.: USAID and DevTech Systems, Inc., 2010).

or NGOs for help, while 70 percent of victims stated they told family members about the violence.⁶

The most widespread and positive developments in the region concern measures aimed at prevention of domestic violence.

Most state-level efforts to address domestic violence in the region concern violence prevention and take the form of awareness raising. In several countries, governments have supported annual campaigns conducted in cooperation with NGOs and international organizations. Such efforts are very important, but consistent public education on the nature of domestic violence and the services that exist for victims is needed.

Outreach efforts have mostly targeted the mainstream population and focused on married women or women in long-term relationships. Outreach should be extended to minority women, which can include ethnic minority groups, women with disabilities, or sexual minorities. Further, specialized messages could be developed to target young women on the issues of relationship abuse (controlling behavior, verbal abuse, or dating violence), which is now recognized as part of the cycle of domestic violence.

6. Duban, *Gender Assessment USAID/Georgia*.



UFO STUDIOS

Domestic violence has been largely treated as a law enforcement concern and not an issue of public health or one related to corruption. Consequently, prevention efforts are focused on crime prevention and educating women about their rights. Such an approach may actually discourage women from seeking help if they are reluctant to involve the police.

At the practical level, the links between domestic violence and sexual and reproductive health problems—including poor birth outcomes and vulnerability to HIV—have been documented and are understood. However, health care reform has not reflected an overall policy to prevent and respond to cases of domestic violence.

An area of increasing prevention work in the region is the use of anti-domestic violence messages that target men—not as potential perpetrators of violence but as role models to promote equal and nonviolent personal relationships. In the E&E region, as is true worldwide, most men do not use violence nor are they tolerant of abuse directed at women. However, they do not always take action to express such views because “men may fear others’ reactions to attempts at intervention, have negative views of violence prevention itself, lack knowledge of or skills in intervention, or lack opportunities or invitations to play a role.”⁷ Initiatives to engage men in domestic violence prevention work in

7. Jamila Seftaoui, ed., *Mending Inequalities: Men and Gender Equality in the OSCE Region* (Vienna: OSCE, 2011).

the region (for instance, White Ribbon campaigns in Belarus, the South Caucasus, and Moldova) have demonstrated that men can be influential in shaping public opinion about domestic violence. Male public figures and men in leadership positions, including politicians, athletes, and entertainers, have particular influence in promoting anti-violence messages. Domestic violence projects that include the participation of men are still relatively nascent in the region but should be encouraged as a good practice.

Protection efforts have been expanded but are still inadequate to meet demand, and state support is insufficient. Given the gender-based nature of domestic violence, most services and responses have been organized around the typical victim—a woman—and thus the protection efforts described below focus on services for women and the children in their care. With greater understanding of other groups who may be at risk for domestic violence, a greater range of services may need to be developed.

Progress has been made in the E&E region to expand services for victims of domestic violence as well as their children. Many services now offered, including telephone helplines, shelter, crisis assistance, psychological support, counseling, and legal assistance, were unavailable just a decade ago.

Several good examples of cooperation between government and civil society groups to provide services for victims exist, as well as of government financing for the work of NGOs. State funding for services nonetheless remains inadequate to meet the needs of all victims.

According to a survey covering all E&E countries except Kosovo and Moldova conducted by the Women Against Violence Europe (WAVE) network, several countries have no national-level telephone helplines for women.⁸ Even in those countries with helplines, not all are free of charge or operate on a 24-hour basis. With the exception of Belarus, all countries have at least two shelters.⁹ Although the European Parliament recommends that one family place in a women's shelter be provided per 100,000 inhabitants, no state in the E&E region is meeting this requirement. Even in those countries where shelters are fully funded by the government, several thousand places for women are still considered "missing;" NGOs continue to play a critical role in filling the gaps where state services and funding are insufficient, relying on their own fundraising and

8. Deniz Kemik, "Country Report 2010: Reality Check on European Services for Women and Children Victims of Violence, A Right for Protection and Support?" (Vienna: Women Against Violence Europe, 2010).

9. Kemik, "Country Report 2010."

assistance from international donors.

Legal protections for victims and prosecution efforts vary across the region, but could be strengthened in all countries. How domestic violence cases are treated in the legal system varies by country in the E&E region. Some countries have adopted stand-alone laws that address domestic violence. Some have amended their criminal codes to provide a specific definition of the problem, while others have no legal definition of domestic violence, instead relying on general criminal law (e.g., articles on physical harm) to prosecute cases, or administrative law (e.g., disruptions of public order) to sanction perpetrators of violence.¹⁰

A small number of countries have adopted national action plans or strategies on combating domestic violence, which is an important indicator of progress. The existence of a legal definition of domestic violence facilitates greater education and training of legal professionals on the subject. Elsewhere, the legal understanding of domestic violence is low, and professionals involved in such

10. As of this writing, the following countries have either specific laws or criminal code provisions that refer to domestic violence: Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kosovo (UNMIK regulation), the Republic of Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia and Ukraine. Azerbaijan, Belarus, and Russia have not adopted legislation specifically on domestic violence, but draft laws have been circulated in some countries.

cases (attorneys representing victims, prosecutors, and judges) are unlikely to receive specific training on the issue.

In several E&E countries, the introduction of noncriminal remedies that allow for the temporary removal of the perpetrator of violence from the home is a very important development. Unfortunately, it is reported that the use of such provisions, and of the law in general, remains low. Attrition is also a common problem, meaning that the number of domestic violence cases decreases as cases progress through the legal system, often the result of the victim withdrawing the complaint or cases being dropped for procedural reasons. Further work should be done to identify barriers to women's accessing the legal process in cases of domestic violence and measures to improve access to justice.

In all countries, persistent issues such as lack of awareness of legal protections, a widely held belief among legal and other professionals that domestic violence is a private matter, staff turnover among police and the consequent need for continuous training, and limited resources for victims who seek legal remedies all contribute to the low level of cases that are actually brought to justice.

While there have been some limited efforts to address perpetrators of violence through counseling or other programs,

this field of programs for abusive men is not yet well developed in the E&E region.

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

Sex-disaggregated data

- What do official statistics reveal about the sex of victims and perpetrators of domestic violence? (Sources for this information include law enforcement records, calls to telephone helplines, client intake forms at shelters, and patient and emergency room records.)

Background and context

- Have any surveys been conducted that could suggest the prevalence of domestic violence in a given country and the characteristics of the problem?
- How is domestic violence addressed in the law, both in terms of providing protection for victims and prosecuting perpetrators?
- Are statistics available to track how domestic violence cases are managed by the legal system (e.g., comparing numbers of hotline calls, complaints made to police, prosecutors' records, cases brought to court, and judicial decisions)? At what stage(s) is attrition occurring, and how could it be addressed?
- Do the legal provisions that apply to domestic violence provide for noncriminal

sanctions, such as a temporary protection order?

- Do media outlets support anti-domestic violence campaigns on a regular basis?
- Do relevant professionals (law enforcement, medical and nursing staff, social workers, judges, etc.) receive specific training in risk assessment, and in how to identify and respond to cases of domestic violence? Who is conducting such training, how often, and what is the content?
- Are there any formal instructions or procedures for relevant professionals on how to respond to cases of domestic violence?

Gender roles and responsibilities

- Assuming the gender patterns typical in domestic violence cases, do domestic violence campaigns target women (e.g., with messages to overcome secrecy and stigma; information about services) and men (e.g., condemnation on the use of violence; calls for greater activism)?
- Are men as well as women involved in anti-domestic violence campaigns, from the planning stage to running the campaign?
- Does the government support awareness-raising campaigns on the topic of domestic violence? How often are such campaigns run, for how long, and where?

- What activities do NGOs carry out in connection with raising awareness?

Access to and control over assets and resources

- Are outreach materials in a format/tone that would reach men and women, as well as women belonging to minority groups? Are they distributed in locations accessible to and frequented by men and women equally?
- Do victims of domestic violence have access to protective services?
- What services currently exist in the country for the protection of victims of domestic violence and/or their children or other family members (e.g., telephone helplines, crisis centers, shelters, psychological and legal counseling, temporary protection orders, etc.)? How many such services exist? For each service, what is its capacity, hours of operation, average length of stay, etc.?
- Who provides these services—NGOs, state agencies, or both?
- How are such services funded?
- Are there programs for men who use violence in relationships? Obtain details about these programs.

- Do victims of domestic violence have access to free, or affordable, legal services? What organizations are providing such services?

Patterns of power and decision making

- Do victims of domestic violence, particularly young women or women in rural areas, have the right to make decisions about leaving the family home and living in a temporary shelter?
- Are there any mechanisms for domestic violence victims to be involved in policy discussions on responses to domestic violence (e.g., testimony during parliamentary hearings, expert working groups, NGO advocacy campaigns)?
- Is there evidence that programs that seek to empower women (e.g., through legal literacy, economic independence) lead to a decrease in incidents of domestic violence? Is there evidence that they might lead to an increase in domestic violence?

RESOURCES

[Council of Europe Stop Domestic Violence Against Women Campaign](#) site:

[Virtual Knowledge Centre to End Violence Against Women and Girls](#), UN Women.

[UN Secretary-General's Database on Violence Against Women](#), Country Pages.

[Reality Check on European Services for Women and Children Victims of Violence. A Right for Protection and Support?](#), Women Against Violence Europe (WAVE) (2010).

[Promoting Gender Equality to Prevent Violence Against Women](#), World Health Organization briefing in violence prevention (2009).

[Partnering with Men to End Gender-Based Violence: Practices that work from Eastern Europe and Central Asia](#), United Nations Population Fund (UNFP) (2009).

[The Crucial Role of Health Services in Responding to Gender-Based Violence](#) (2010).

[Toolkit for Integrating Domestic Violence Activities Into Programming in Europe & Eurasia](#). USAID (2009).

[Methods and Models for Mixing Services for Victims of Domestic Violence and Trafficking in Persons in Europe and Eurasia](#), USAID (2008).

[Domestic Violence in Europe and Eurasia](#), USAID (2006).

[Council of Europe Stop Domestic Violence Against Women Campaign](#), 2008.

[From Cairo to Beijing and Beyond: the Unfinished Agenda on Gender Equality in Eastern Europe and Central Asia](#). Elisabeth Duban, UNFPA (2009).

GENDER & TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS

This guidance note provides information about general trends in the region based on a synthesis of literature cited as references and in the “Resources” section, observations and research of gender experts, and contributions from sector experts in the E&E Bureau. Information presented here is a synthesis of data and trends for the E&E region as a whole, which represents a number of diverse countries, and so it is a good practice to substantiate any conclusions in the specific country context.

WHY CONSIDER GENDER

Trafficking in persons (TIP) refers to the recruitment, transportation, or transfer of people using force, fraud, or other forms of coercion and

deception for the purpose of exploitation. TIP is closely linked to other forms of illicit activity, such as illegal migration and smuggling of migrants, and is

recognized as a distinct crime and a serious human rights abuse.

The gender dimensions of TIP are related primarily to the different forms of exploitation that impact females versus males in the region as well as the distinct factors that make each sex vulnerable to trafficking. Considerable international attention has been devoted to better understanding and responding to TIP for the purposes of sexual exploitation, which primarily affects women and adolescent girls. Overall, women may be more vulnerable than men to being trafficked because they are more likely to face discrimination, poverty, and limited economic opportunities—and they become even more vulnerable as a result of natural disasters, wars, and political crisis and conflict. Men are also vulnerable to trafficking, most often into situations involving labor exploitation. Economic downturns or lack of economic opportunities, coupled with male gender role norms that emphasize responsibility for financially supporting their families often lead to increased pressure to migrate, which places men at risk.

Gender is thus an important consideration in planning



prevention efforts for TIP and a critical factor in designing services to assist victims. USAID's work in human trafficking complements that of the U.S. State Department's Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons, and is primarily focused on supporting efforts to prevent TIP as well as on protecting and assisting victims of trafficking (VoTs). A useful framework for thinking about projects that comprehensively address TIP is to examine the "four P's": prevention, protection, prosecution, and partnership.

GENDER ISSUES IN THE REGION

TIP has been especially acute in the E&E region, which is characterized by economic disparities within and among countries, relative ease in crossing many borders, proximity to the European Union, a relatively well-educated population facing high levels of unemployment resulting from the privatization and closure of state-run enterprises (among other factors), economic downturns; and, in some countries, armed conflict. Many E&E countries contend with organized crime, corruption, weak legal systems, and lack of expertise among government officials, all of which leave their citizens vulnerable to TIP. Some of the factors described above have distinct gender dimensions. For example, official unemployment and

economic inactivity rates are higher for women than for men in many countries across the region, and women often face higher levels of discrimination in the labor market. Men who work in specific sectors such as construction or the mining industry and unskilled laborers have also faced job losses in many E&E countries.

Statistics, data, and research on TIP are limited and focus on a narrow victim profile. While data collection on TIP has improved in the E&E region, such information is generally limited to statistics from criminal prosecutions and information gathered by NGOs either from calls to telephone hotlines or trafficked persons they have assisted. In the case of criminal justice data, information about victims and perpetrators is not always sex-disaggregated. Data collected by NGOs are generally based on information from shelters and crisis centers that are oriented toward assisting female victims, and so information about male victims is more limited. Profiles of victims and traffickers based on actual cases are rarely compiled or analyzed systematically, which complicates the identification of risk groups and trafficking mechanisms.

Understanding of the trafficking problem in the E&E region is based on a common victim profile that is itself reflective of prevalent gender expectations. The majority of trafficking

victims who are detected by authorities and later involved in criminal cases are adult women targeted for sexual exploitation.¹ The majority of men who receive assistance are trafficked for forced labor.² Cases have also been uncovered in which women were trafficked for labor purposes, and so it is important not to rely too heavily on characterizations of "typical" VoTs. Proper identification of trafficking victims, women and men as well as girls and boys, is crucial both for the provision of assistance and for prosecution.

Among children and youth, girls seem to be at greater risk for trafficking linked to sexual exploitation or child sex tourism. For example, in Moldova, 80 percent of minor VoTs are girls.³ Information on the trafficking of male children and young men for sexual exploitation is incomplete, but research suggests that such incidents do take place in the region.⁴ Boys

1. UNODC, *Global Report on Trafficking in Persons* (Vienna: UNODC, 2009).
2. See, e.g., International Organization for Migration (IOM), "Trafficking of Men—A Trend Less Considered: The Case of Belarus and Ukraine," IOM Research Series No. 36 (Geneva: IOM, 2008).
3. Viorelia Rusu and Tatiana Fomina, "Overview of the Child Trafficking Phenomenon in the Republic of Moldova" (Chisinau, Moldova: International Center for Women Rights Protection and Promotion, 2010).
4. OSCE/Office of the Special Representative and Co-ordinator for Combating Trafficking in Human Beings, *Combating Trafficking as Modern Day Slavery: A Matter of Rights, Freedoms and Security, 2010 Annual Report* (Vienna: OSCE, 2010).

may also be trafficked into child labor or begging.

The gender dimensions of trafficking have not been well integrated into anti-trafficking interventions. The role played by gender in trafficking in persons has not been well articulated in the region, and information on trafficked men and boys in particular is very limited.⁵ Gender-sensitive approaches are needed to better understand the vulnerabilities of men and women to trafficking, to identify their post-trafficking needs in terms of protection and assistance, and to better counter the demand for trafficked labor and services.

The few studies of trafficking of men suggest that many elements of the trafficking scenario are similar for men and women (demographic characteristics and educational background of VoTs, forms of abuse and control), but some characteristics of male victims differ from those of the typical female VoT. For the most part, male trafficking victims are adults (ranging in age from 20 to over 60),⁶ whereas identified female victims generally fall in a narrower and younger age range. In contrast to female victims, there are few single fathers among trafficked men, but a significant number do have

5. IOM, "Trafficking of Men."

6. IOM, "Trafficking of Men"; Ruth Rosenberg, "Trafficking of Adult Men in the Europe and Eurasia Region" (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2010).

dependent children. A significant difference has also been observed in recruiting practices, and men are much more likely to be recruited as part of a group of workers, often by an intermediary with whom the victim is not familiar. The recruitment process for men frequently mimics legal migration, and in some cases, men pay for their own travel. In contrast, female victims are frequently subjected to debt bondage in which the trafficker advances payment for travel and then extracts payment for the "loan." There have also been fewer cases of men being directly sold to traffickers, as often happens in cases of female sexual exploitation. In most cases involving men, the victims were transported to the destination country as promised and often were treated fairly well at first. Over time, however, abuses increased, including reduction of payment, restrictions on freedom, and violence. Known cases of trafficking in women often are characterized by more immediate exploitation and early use of violence and threats to control victims.

Demand reduction is a critical factor in combating trafficking in persons, but the gender dimensions of reducing demand for trafficked services and labor have received little attention. Demand for prostitution is closely linked to societal norms and gender roles, particularly around acceptable masculine behavior; notions of sexual

liberation, and perceptions of women as commodities.⁷ Studies suggest that awareness raising among men about the realities of women being trafficked into prostitution is insufficient to decrease demand for sexual services, but punishing those who procure the services of prostitutes rather than the prostitutes themselves has been shown to have a greater impact. Demand for exploitable and/or migrant labor often leads to increases in trafficked labor, even though there is rarely a demand for trafficked labor per se. Whether men's or women's labor is in demand depends greatly on the sector—for instance, whether labor is needed in construction (offering more jobs for men) or domestic and service work (offering greater jobs for women). The recent economic downturn and increasing need for care services, especially in Western Europe where the population is aging, may mean that the demand for women as care providers may continue to increase, with attendant risks for women who migrate for this purpose. Increased activity in the construction sector as the economic downturn eases in Eurasia may herald an increase in the number of men being trafficked to that region. Overall, it is important to support further study of the gender-

7. Ruth Rosenberg, "Tackling the Demand That Fosters Human Trafficking" (Washington, D.C.: USAID, 2011).

based patterns of demand for specific types of labor in order to anticipate shifts in the populations that could be at risk for labor exploitation and/or trafficking.

Activities aimed at TIP prevention have yielded some positive developments, but efforts could be expanded to more risk groups.

In terms of prevention activities, most efforts have focused on awareness raising (for the general population as well as for at-risk groups and professionals likely to encounter VoTs), employment (job skills training, small business support), and empowerment activities for women.⁸ While it is difficult to prove that the risk factors for trafficking have decreased, there are indications that some potential victims have gained greater understanding of risky situations and may take steps to protect themselves. Overall, societal knowledge of the existence of human trafficking has improved in the region,⁹ and awareness levels of TIP are generally high. Research has also suggested, however, that while many understand the issue, few see themselves as a likely victims and believe that TIP will happen to someone else. There also exists a need to improve awareness of the fact that

8. Steven Warnath, *Best Practices in Trafficking Prevention in Europe & Eurasia—Final Report* (Washington, D.C.: USAID, JBS International, Inc., Creative Associates International, 2009).

9. Warnath, *Best Practices in Trafficking Prevention*.

men are at risk for trafficking, and this may require adopting approaches and messages that appeal to and reach men directly.

Considerable prevention efforts have been aimed at women and girls who are considering work abroad and who are thus potential VoTs for sexual and labor exploitation. Several programs specifically target male and female residents of orphanages to raise awareness about trafficking risks. Other programs encourage safe migration overall and are gender neutral in their approach. Still, at-risk groups such as members of minorities (especially those in rural areas), children whose parents have migrated, people with disabilities, and the homeless (all of whom are particularly at risk for internal trafficking) have not been reached to the same extent. Less attention has been devoted to other aspects of prevention such as reducing demand, combating corruption, or understanding the links between TIP and gender-based violence.

Protection for TIP victims varies by country, and key groups have limited access to support services.

Provision of direct assistance to VoTs varies across the region. In many countries, shelters and crisis centers for victims of domestic violence also assist female TIP victims, and some countries also support shelters especially for VoTs. NGOs, with support from donors, generally still provide most

critical services for people at risk for being trafficked and for VoTs, such as predeparture assistance for migrants, and help before repatriation and after return to the country of origin for VoTs.¹⁰ Specialized services for male trafficking victims in particular, and for victims of labor exploitation generally, are underdeveloped in the region. For example, current shelter programs that focus on female VoTs are not easily adapted to mixed-sex accommodations, and medical assistance currently tends to focus on sexual and reproductive health issues, which are not the most pressing needs for men who have been trafficked and who often suffer from severe physical health problems as a result. Specific forms of psychological assistance may be needed for men who have different experiences of exploitation and may be more likely to view their situation as failed migration rather than trafficking.¹¹ Additional efforts to make sure that services reach men may also be needed because anecdotal reports from NGOs suggest that men are often more reluctant than women to seek services due in large part to dominant gender norms that depict men as strong, able to resolve their own problems, and not requiring help from others. Reintegration assistance should also take into

10. Warnath, *Best Practices in Trafficking Prevention*.

11. IOM, "Trafficking of Men."

consideration the influence of gender norms, for example, the notion of men as the traditional heads of household or the stigma that attaches to women who have been engaged in sex work.

Positive developments have taken place in facilitating prosecution of TIP, but cases are limited and difficulties in applying the law are common in many countries.

Perhaps the most significant areas of progress in the region are in prosecution and criminalization. The majority of countries have introduced a specific offense on TIP in legislation, and the number of trafficking convictions has increased annually. There is also increased training for law enforcement officials to detect and respond to trafficking cases.¹² Despite developments in legislation, practitioners in the region identify several issues that complicate prosecutions, for example, evidentiary issues (such as difficulties proving “exploitation”), reliance on victim/witness testimony, the lack of support for victims/witnesses, staff turnover in law enforcement posts (combined with a need for constant training), and complications in both national and cross-border cooperation. As noted above, prosecutions of labor trafficking cases and protection of the rights of male VoTs are very limited.

12. UNODC, *Global Report on Trafficking*.

KEY QUESTIONS TO GUIDE GENDER ANALYSIS

Sex-disaggregated data

- How many VoTs have been identified (by sex and age)? What percentage are female (or male)?
- What percentage of prosecuted trafficking cases involve labor exploitation? What is the percentage of prosecuted trafficking cases for sexual exploitation? How many cases of both types resulted in convictions?

Background and context

- Have any surveys been conducted that describe the characteristics of human trafficking in the given country?
- Are there laws, action plans, or coordination mechanisms outlining the government's response to TIP? Do they deal with both trafficking for labor and for sexual exploitation?
- Does the particular country have a National Referral Mechanism (NRM) or participate in a Transnational Referral Mechanism (TRM)? Does the NRM support the provision of services to meet the needs of female and male VoTs?
- Do relevant professionals (law enforcement, medical and nursing staff, social workers, judges, etc.) have the knowledge, skills, and capacity

to identify VoTs for both sexual and labor exploitation?

Gender roles and responsibilities

- Are there different “push factors” that may result in men and women being trafficked? Do any of these factors relate to gender stereotypes? (E.g., a stereotype that men are supposed to be the breadwinners of the family may result in men being especially willing to migrate if they are unemployed.)
- Have there been studies of the demand side of trafficking that include analysis of gender issues?
- Are men and women vulnerable to different types of trafficking (men for labor; women for sex, etc.), or are both men and women vulnerable to some forms of trafficking (e.g., labor)?
- Are males and females equally aware of the dangers of trafficking?
- Do current awareness campaigns in the country target both trafficking for labor and for sexual exploitation and address gender norms that may affect how men and women perceive risk?
- Have prior awareness campaigns been shown to be effective in changing the perceptions of both men

and women who may be vulnerable to trafficking?

- Do male and female VoTs need different assistance services, or can one assistance program effectively serve all victims? What about victims who are children or adolescents?
- Are there gender stereotypes that may work against acceptance of assistance on the part of male or female VoTs? (E.g., men may believe that they are supposed to be “strong” and that to ask for or receive assistance may be seen as a sign of weakness.)

Access to and control over assets and resources

- What types of awareness campaigns exist in the country? Who is being reached by these campaigns, and who is left out? Are men and women equally likely to have access to the content of these campaigns? Do men or women have more access to some of the types of media that are being used in these campaigns (e.g., the Internet)?
- Does the law provide for specific social services and witness/victim protection for VoTs? Do male and female

victims currently have equal access to such services?

- Are there sufficient spaces in shelters to provide assistance to both women and men?

Patterns of power and decision making

- Are there NGOs experienced in working with both male and female VoTs? Are any of these NGOs run by men?
- Are there any mechanisms for VoTs—female and male—to be involved in policy discussions around responses to trafficking (testimony during parliamentary hearings, expert working groups, NGO advocacy campaigns, etc.)?

RESOURCES

[Best Practices for Programming to Protect and Assist Victims of Trafficking in Europe and Eurasia](#), USAID (2008).

[Best Practices in Trafficking Prevention in Europe and Eurasia](#), USAID (2009).

[Combating Traffickers as Modern Day Slavery: A Matter of Rights, Freedoms and Security—2010 Annual Report of the Special Representative and Co-ordinator for Trafficking in Human Beings](#), OSCE (2010). Countering Trafficking in Persons, USAID <http://>

transition.usaid.gov/what-we-do/gender-equality-and-womens-empowerment/countering-trafficking-persons

[Corruption and Human Trafficking](#), Working Paper No. 3/2011, Transparency International (2011).

[Global Report on Trafficking in Persons](#), UNODC (2009)

[Methods and Models for Mixing Services for Victims of Domestic Violence and Trafficking in Persons in Europe and Eurasia](#), Surtees, R., & Somach, S. (2008).

[Stop Violence Against Women](#) website (section on Trafficking in Women), Advocates for Human Rights.

[Tackling the Demand That Fosters Human Trafficking](#), USAID (2011).

[Trafficking in Persons \(TIP\) Report](#), Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons, U.S. Department of State (annual publication).

[Trafficking in Persons](#), USAID (website).

[Trafficking of Adult Men in the Europe and Eurasia Region](#), USAID (2010).

[Trafficking of Men—A Trend Less Considered: The Case of Belarus and Ukraine](#), IOM Research Series No. 36, International Organization for Migration (2009).

[UNODC Russian Federation](#) (website).

[UNODC South Eastern Europe](#) (website).

OVERVIEW OF GENDER ANALYSIS FRAMEWORKS

In addition to USAID's Six Domains Frameworks, described in section 3 of this Toolkit, other organizations have developed methodologies for gender analysis. The following briefly summarizes some of the major gender analysis frameworks.

HARVARD ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK (GENDER ROLES FRAMEWORK)

- One of the earliest efforts to systematize attention to both women and men and their different positions in society, it was developed by the Harvard Institute for International Development with the USAID WID Office.
- Aims to demonstrate the economic rationale for investing in women and to assist in the design of more efficient projects.
- Consists of checklists and key questions to ask at each stage of the project cycle: identification, design, implementation, and evaluation.
- Organizes data collected in a matrix consisting of four components:
 - **Activity profile (who does what?)**
 - **Access and control profile (who has access to and control over resources used in activities?)**
 - **Analysis of factors that influence gender differences**
 - **Project cycle analysis (reflection on the effectiveness of the project in light of gender-disaggregated information)**

THE MOSER GENDER PLANNING FRAMEWORK

- Has the goal of freeing women from subordination and allowing them to achieve equality, equity, and empowerment.
- Links the examination of women's roles to the development planning process.
- Based on concepts of gender roles and gender needs. It distinguishes between women's practical and strategic gender needs. Meeting practical gender needs helps women in their current and immediate situation. Strategic gender needs, if met, would lead to transformations in gender power relations and imbalances.
- Examines women's "three roles"—productive, reproductive, and community management—and how they influence women's participation in development projects.

- Consists of six tools and aims to provide guidance on gender planning as a policy approach in its own right.

GENDER ANALYSIS MATRIX (GAM)

- Developed to determine how a particular development activity could affect women or men.
- Uses a participatory approach in which community stakeholders define and analyze gender differences.
- Intended to be used by the community for self-identification of gender issues.
- Analyzes project objectives at four levels of society: women, men, household, and community.

WOMEN'S EQUALITY AND EMPOWERMENT (LONGWE) FRAMEWORK (WEP)

- Argues that poverty reduction requires the empowerment of women.
- Defines women's empowerment as "enabling women to take an equal place with men, and to participate equally with men in the development process in order to achieve control over the factors of production on an equal basis with men."¹
- Envisions five progressive levels of equality, from lowest to highest welfare (equal access to material welfare), access (addressing discriminatory practices), "conscientisation" (equal understanding of gender roles), participation (equal participation in decision making), and control (equal control over decision making).
- Helps "planners to identify what women's equality and empowerment would mean in practice, and to determine to what extent a development intervention supports greater empowerment."²
- Employs a concept of three levels of recognition of women's issues in project design: negative (no recognition), neutral (women's issues are recognized but specific actions are not taken), and positive (women's issues are recognized, and the project aims to positively change women's status relative to men's).

SOCIAL RELATIONS APPROACH

- More broadly oriented than the Moser approach because it includes an analysis of how gender roles and inequalities are created and reproduced within various structures and institutions (namely, the state, the market, the community, and the family).
- Asserts that key institutions have rules, resources, people, power, and activities. These institutions operate according to their own "gender policies."
- Requires that analysis for planning examine which immediate, underlying, and structural factors led to inequalities and how these affect the men and women involved.
- Facilitates the design of policies and projects that enable women to work within these structures and institutions and also to change them.

1. UNDP Learning Resources Centre OHR/BOM, "Gender Mainstreaming Learning Manual and Information Pack" (New York: UNDP, 2001).

2. DevTech, Inc., "Gender Analysis Frameworks" (Washington, D.C.: USAID).

GENERAL RESOURCES

USAID Mission Gender Analysis

[Gender Equality & Women's Empowerment](#)

Statistics and Databases

[Data Catalog](#), World Bank

[Enterprise Surveys](#), International Finance Corporation and World Bank

[Financial Inclusion Data](#), World Bank

[Gender Equality in Europe and Commonwealth of Independent States](#)
(compilation of indicators), UNDP

[GenderStats](#), World Bank

[Social Institutions and & Gender Index](#), OECD

[Transmonee Database](#), UNICEF Regional Office for CEECIS

[United Nations Statistics Division: Statistics and indicators on women and men](#)

[The World Factbook](#), CIA

[The World's Women 2010: Trends and Statistics](#), UN Department on Economic and Social Affairs (2010)

Information and News Websites

[E&E Intranet](#) (USAID-only access)

[Social Transitions website](#)

[Wikigender site](#) (OECD)

[Gender Informational Network of the South Caucasus](#)

[Open Women Line](#)

Global and Regional Overviews

[World Development Report for 2012: Gender Equality and Development](#), World Bank (2011)

[The Global Gender Gap Report](#), World Economic Forum (2011)

[The MDGs in Europe and Central Asia: Achievements, Challenges and the Way Forward](#), UNECE (2010)

[UNDP Development & Transition Series Articles on Gender and Transition](#)

[From Cairo to Beijing and Beyond: The Unfinished Agenda on Gender Equality in EECA Regional Technical Meeting](#)

[Background paper](#)

[UN Economic Commission for Europe: Review of progress for the Beijing +15 Regional Review Meeting from Eastern Europe, the Caucasus and Central Asia and South-East Europe](#)

[Gender Issues in Europe & Eurasia: An Overview of the Literature](#), (2006) USAID

United Nations Human Rights Review

[Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women](#)

[Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women country-specific materials](#)

[Human Rights Council/Universal Periodic Review](#)

[Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights](#)

[Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights country-specific materials](#)

[Committee on the Rights of the Child](#)

[Committee on the Rights of the Child country-specific materials](#)

Gender Analysis Tools and Guidance from Other Organizations

[A Guide to Gender Analysis Frameworks](#)

[OECD Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment resources](#)

[GENDERNET Practice Notes](#)

[Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation \(SDC\) Gender Tool Kit—instruments for gender mainstreaming](#)

[BRIDGE Development-Gender Cutting Edge Packs](#)

[Gender Mainstreaming Tools Marketplace: An Annotated Resource Guide](#), UNDP

[Gender Manual: A Practical Guide for Development Policy Makers and Practitioners](#), Department for International Development, DFID (2002)

[Gender Matters in the OSCE: Toolkit for Gender Mainstreaming](#), Department for International Development, OSCE (2010)

[Guide to Gender and Development](#), AusAID

[Navigating Gender: A framework and a Tool for Participatory Development](#), Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland, Department for International Development Cooperation (2001)

[Online Training on Gender Learning and Information Module, Unit 1 “A conceptual framework for gender analysis and planning.”](#) International Labour Organization (ILO)

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