وكالة الأمم المتحدة لإغاثة وتشغيل
اللاجئين الفلسطينيين في الشرق الأدنى

UNRWA GENDER
ANALYSIS MANUAL

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PREFACE

Preface

UNRWA Mid Term Strategy (MTS), 2010-2015, highlights the major commitments of UNRWA through its Gender Policy adopted in 2007. These are:

✓ Implement the ECOSOC agreed conclusions on gender mainstreaming;
✓ Use targeted interventions where gender gaps are identified to achieve empowerment, access and participation;
✓ Achieve gender balance in terms of employment;
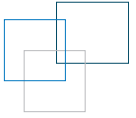✓ Give a strong leadership to ensure a gender perspective.

The MTS undertakes that gender analysis will be used to ensure that the needs of women, men, boys and girls are taken into account in all programmes and interventions. To that end, UNRWA commits that during the period 2010-2015 gender analysis will become routine, encompassing all aspects of its work.

To concretize this commitment, the UNRWA gender unit developed this manual, combining different elements of gender analysis . First of all, the manual draws on different resources to consolidate the main tools used in gender analysis in the context of problems analysis, needs assessments, planning in development and emergency. Secondly, the manual presents the different concepts of gender equality and gender mainstreaming and their evolution. Thirdly, the manual summarizes UNRWA programmes' gender mainstreaming strategies (developed in 2008) and summarizes the interventions identified to reduce the gender gaps in UNRWA programmes. Furthermore, the manual provides for each programme a checklist of the questions that need to be asked to make sure that gender is taken into account in any interventions within these programmes.

During the third annual Gender Taskforce meeting in October 2011, the UNRWA Gender Taskforce used some of the tools and worked on developing the various checklists. The reforms currently being developed in UNRWA could benefit from gender analysis as the different tools aid problem analysis, a better targeting of the most vulnerable and improved services for the Palestine refugees: women, men, boys and girls.

For the gender unit
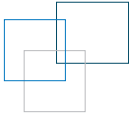**Sana Jelassi**
October 2011

Acknowledgments

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1. Introduction

UNRWA commitment towards Gender Equality

In 2007, UNRWA adopted its Policy on Gender Equality which states that *"as UNRWA staff, we are committed to accelerating efforts towards gender equality and empowerment of women. In making this commitment, we acknowledge that gender equality as well as the promotion and protection of the full enjoyment by women and girls of all human rights and fundamental freedoms are essential to strengthen humanitarian activities and advance development, peace and security."*

The policy emphasises UNRWA's commitment to gender equality as a strategy to advance development, peace and security for the Palestine refugees.

Furthermore it specifies that a twin track strategy will be used where gender mainstreaming will be combined with *"….targeted interventions for women and girls as a tool to bridge historical gaps in empowerment, participation and access to services"*. This is in line with one of the principles of the ECOSOC agreed conclusions (1997/2) that stipulates *"gender mainstreaming does not replace the need for targeted, women-specific policies and programmes or positive legislation…"*.

What is Gender Analysis?

Gender analysis examines the differences in women's and men's lives, including those which lead to social and economic inequity, and applies this understanding to policy development and service delivery. Gender analysis looks at the underlying reasons for these differences such as the socially constructed roles that women, men, girls and boys have. However, life experiences, needs, issues, and priorities vary for different groups (dependent on age, ethnicity, disability, income levels, employment status, marital status, sexual orientation and whether they have dependants, as well as gender) and thus different strategies may be necessary to achieve equitable outcomes for women and men and different groups of women and men.

Gender analysis is part of a wider drive towards gender mainstreaming, that is, building a gendered perspective into all aspects of development and all aspects of the UN's work. The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) agreed conclusions (1997/2) define gender mainstreaming as *"the process of assessing the implications for women and*

Introduction

men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality."

Why use Gender Analysis?

Firstly, gender analysis allows projects to be more efficient. All UNRWA's services, and the problems that they respond to, have a gendered dimension. Reducing poverty, increasing school achievement and attendance, and improving health will be less effective if practitioners and managers do not take into account the ways in which both the problem and the possible intervention are deeply embedded in the gendered relations within families and communities. For example, many of these problems affect one gender disproportionately or are rooted in expected gender roles. Understanding this gendered dimension comes from gender analysis, as does the ability to use this understanding to plan a project appropriately.

Secondly, and definitely no less importantly, gender analysis allows projects to contribute towards greater gender equity by empowering women and increasing their participation in their communities. Promoting gender equity is a promotion of fundamental human rights.

When Gender Analysis is used?

Gender analysis needs to take place early in the planning process so that an understanding of gender role and power relations is build into the project. In fact, any problem-solving intervention should include gender analysis and include data on the gender issues within the situation analyzed.

Who uses and applies Gender Analysis?

All projects and interventions managers and developers have to use Gender Analysis.

The Gender Focal Point system, adopted by the agency as key component of the accountability framework[1] for the realization of UNRWA Gender Equality Policy, has a
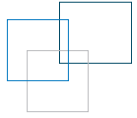
key role in spreading the use of Gender Analysis.

It is the responsibility of the Gender Focal Point in each programme and field to provide the management team with adequate knowledge to ascertain that department policy, procedures and programming build on gender analysis[2].

How to use Gender Analysis?

The current manual compiles the tools used in Gender Analysis and adapts them to UNRWA use.

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[1] Memorandum from UNRWA Commissioner-General, 18 June 2007 on the adoption of UNRWA Gender Equality Policy.
[2] UNRWA Gender Focal System terms of reference (2007)

2. Evolution of Concepts

The distinction between 'gender' (the differences of men and women rooting from social constructed roles and education) and sex (biological differences between men and women) was first made by psychologist and sexologist John Money and was adopted by the growing women's movements in the 1970s.

Women in development (WID)

Concern over gender, or at least the role and treatment of women, also began to enter the field of development at this time. Ester Bosrups' pioneering 1970 work, *Women's Role in Economic Development* highlighted women's role in farming in Africa, a fact previously ignored by development organisations. Women were recognized to have been left out of many development programmes and were seen as able to contribute to increased economic productivity. Women came to be specifically targeted by programmes in areas such as income-generation projects in the name of efficiency. This approach was known as Women In Development (WID).

However, the WID approach often rested on insufficient understanding of gender relations and ignored men entirely. In several high-profile cases, programmes aimed at women's development were inefficient, or even counter-productive, because of under-analysed gender dynamics in family and community relations. Underlying structural inequalities in areas such as land ownership, access to credit, markets and skills prevented the success of many income-generating projects. Furthermore, 'women's programmes' became simply 'added-on' to other programmes and there was a concern about the ghettoisation of gendered issues in development.

Gender And Development (GAD)

In order to combat these issues the development community began to move towards a new approach, known as Gender And Development (GAD), which planned to mainstream gender into all aspects of development work and that recognised men as well as women as gendered beings whose gendered concerns would also need to be included for women's empowerment. GAD also emphasised the differences in women's situations based on age, ethnicity, nationality, religion and other factors; women are not a homogenous group and homogenous policies would never be successful. Gender analysis emerged
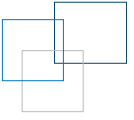
as part of this drive for deeper understanding of the context in which projects would be operationalised. Moreover, instead of WID's concern with overall economic development, GAD's focus was more on gender parity as an aim in its own right.

Gender Mainstreaming

Various concepts were associated with GAD, among them gender mainstreaming. The latter was articulated in the Beijing Platform for Action from the Fourth United Nations Conference on Women in 1995. Therefore the United Nations system adopted this approach to mainstreaming gender. In 1997 the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) agreed conclusions established some important overall principles for gender mainstreaming. Gender mainstreaming is defined in the conclusions as *"the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality."*

In the aftermath of the Fourth UN conference on women, gender mainstreaming was considered as the panacea. It was supposed to be: "a strategy which aims to bring about gender equality and advance women's rights by infusing gender analysis, gender sensitive research, women's perspectives and gender equality goals into mainstream policies, projects and institutions[3]."

Twin Track Strategy

However GAD has been criticised, both on the grounds of how difficult it is to achieve mainstreaming and that, where successful, mainstreaming can exclude women's strategic needs. As a result, many organisations (including UNRWA) have instituted twin-track strategies whereby they run women-specific, targeted programmes alongside gender mainstreaming programmes. These women-specific programmes target areas in which women and girls are particularly disadvantaged or discriminated against. Moser argues that women-specific programmes work to empower women and girls while mainstreaming works towards gender equality, thus the twin-track strategy allows organisations to meet both objectives.
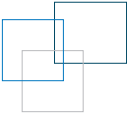
3. Related UN References

As mentioned above, gender mainstreaming was articulated in the Beijing Platform for Action from the Fourth United Nations Conference on Women in 1995 and in 1997 the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) agreed conclusions established some important overall principles for gender mainstreaming. Furthermore, the General Assembly twenty-third special session to follow up implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action (June 2000) enhanced the mainstreaming mandate within the United Nations and, in 2006, the UN established a "system-wide policy on gender equality and the empowerment of women: focusing on results and impact".

ECOSOC has adopted several resolutions on gender mainstreaming in the last decade, including 2010/29 which *"requests the United Nations system, including its agencies, funds and programmes, within their respective mandates, to continue mainstreaming the issue of gender... including mainstreaming a gender perspective into all operational mechanisms"*. The resolution goes on to detail measures such as *"ensuring that managers provide leadership and support, within the United Nations system, to advance gender mainstreaming, strengthening monitoring, reporting and evaluation so as to allow system-wide assessment of progress in gender-mainstreaming, and using existing training resources, including institutions and infrastructure, to assist in the development and application of unified training modules and tools on gender mainstreaming and to promote the collection, analysis and use of data disaggregated by sex and age during programme development and evaluation of gender mainstreaming in order to assess progress towards achieving gender equality and empowerment of women"*.

Mandates for gender mainstreaming have been developed in all major areas of work of the United Nations, including disarmament, poverty reduction, macro-economics, health, education and trade. One of the most high profile developments has been Security Council Resolution 1325, adopted in October 2000, which outlines the importance of giving greater attention to gender perspectives in peace support operations.

Also in 2000, the Millennium Summit of world leaders met at the UN and produced the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), eight goals for reducing poverty by 2015. Goal 3 is about prompting gender equality and empowering women. The goals are interdependent and the achievement of Goal 3 will depend on progress made towards the other goals and vice versa.

Other international instruments have also proved useful in this process, including the Convention on Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) which was adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1979 and remains the most comprehensive and detailed international agreement on women's human rights. Data from the periodic reporting on CEDAW can be used as a source of information in gender analysis.

[3] Mainstreaming Gender in Development: A critical review (2005). Fenella Porter and Caroline Sweetman. Oxfam Focus on Gender Series.

4. Gender Analysis Tools

Various tools were developed and are with associated with gender analysis. Broadly, the tools allow us to conduct the gender analysis by providing information on questions such as:

- What roles and responsibilities do men and women have? What do these entail in terms of time commitment and need for mobility?
- What resources do men and women have access to? Who controls access to these resources?
- How much do men and women participate in decision making? Which decisions do they make? What constrains further participation?
- What needs do men and women have? How do they think it is best to meet those needs?

This section gives a number of different tools for gender analysis that provide frameworks for finding out the information we need to answer these questions.

Depending on the situation and the project/intervention to be developed, some frameworks may be more appropriate than others and some may also be used in conjunction with others.

4.1. The Harvard Analytical Framework, also known as the Gender Roles Framework

The Harvard Framework was one of the earliest gender frameworks, having been developed by the Harvard Institute of International Development in collaboration with USAID's Women In Development Office in the early 1980s. It approaches gender analysis as means of increasing the efficiency of development programme; by mapping gender divisions of labour and resources it aims to demonstrate the important role that women play in economic productivity.

The framework consists of three interrelated components:

- an **activities profile**, listing the tasks men and women do (disaggregated by age, ethnicity, class etc) and where and when these tasks are performed. Activities are grouped into the three areas of productive activities, reproductive or household activities and social/political/religious activities
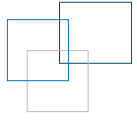
Activities	Women and girls	Men and boys
Production Activities Agriculture: Activity 1 Activity 2, etc. Income Generating: Activity 1 Activity 2, etc. Employment: Activity 1 Activity 2, etc Other:		
Reproductive Activities Water related: Activity 1 Activity 2, etc Fuel related: Food preparation: Childcare: Health related: Cleaning and repair: Market related: Other:		
Social Religious Political Other:		

Source: UNDP Learning and Information Pack: Gender Analysis 2001 reproduced from March, C, Smyth, I. Mukhopadhyay, M. (1999) *A Guide to Gender-Analysis Frameworks,* Oxfam, Oxford

- an **access and control profile**, listing the resources needed to carry out the above activities and the benefits that result from them. Resources include political and social resources such as education as well as material and economic resources such as land or capital.

	Access		Control	
	Women	**Men**	**Women**	**Men**
Resources Land Equipment Labour Cash Education/training, etc. Other				
Benefits Outside income Asset ownership Basic needs (food, clothing, shelter etc) Education Political power/prestige Other				

Source: UNDP Learning and Information Pack: Gender Analysis, 2001 reproduced from March, C, Smyth, I. Mukhopadhyay, M. (1999) *A Guide to Gender-Analysis Frameworks*, Oxfam, Oxford

- an **influencing factors profile,** which identifies the factors that affect the division of labour and resources. These may include general economic conditions (such as poverty levels, income distribution, infrastructure etc), institutional structures (such as government bureaucracies), demographic factors, community norms and social hierarchy (such as family/community power structure and religious beliefs etc), legal parameters, political events (internal and external), national attitude to refugees and attitude of refugees to development/assistance workers.

The Harvard Framework has been successful in that it assists in making women's labour visible to those designing projects and programmes. Moreover, it illuminates the inequality women often face in accessing, and especially controlling, resources. The distinction made between access and control shows gender inequality particularly starkly. By looking at control of resources the way is also paved for discussions of power relations, albeit not the original intention of this framework.
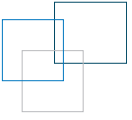
However, the simple structure of the Harvard Framework tends to simplify the complex social issues involved in gender and development and does not allow room for considering the ways in which men and women's roles and activities cooperate and interrelate. Some have criticised the approach of Harvard Framework for being too focused on efficiency and material resources and insufficiently aware of the social dynamics of gender inequality, thus not providing much guidance on how to change socially entrenched gender inequality.

Moreover, the Harvard Framework relies on detailed knowledge of a situation for it to be effective and this may not be available at early planning stages of a project. It is also difficult to use over a large region where circumstances may differ considerably. Furthermore, it has been criticized for not being participatory

4.2 The Moser Gender Planning Framework

This framework was developed by Caroline Moser to address the fact that, in her view, gender planning is both "technical and political in nature". The framework includes six tools:

1. **Gender roles identification.** This tool maps gendered division of labour within the household by examining the activities all women and men, girls and boys, over a twenty-four hour period. Moser identifies a triple role for low income women: **productive** work (income generation and the production of goods and services for the consumption of the household), **reproductive** work (bearing and rearing children, domestic tasks that maintain household members such as cooking, cleaning, and caring for the sick and elderly) and **community** roles (provisioning and maintaining resources used by everyone). All of these roles for women are often underappreciated because they tend to be non-paid and because productive and community roles closely relate to reproductive roles which are themselves undervalued.

2. **Gender needs assessment**. Here Moser uses Maxine Molyneux's 1984 distinction between practical gender needs and strategic gender interests/needs. **Practical gender needs** are those identified by women in their daily lives and which would improve living conditions such as safe access to water, better maternal health care or a cash income. However, addressing only practical gender needs is unlikely to address gender inequality. **Strategic gender interests/needs,** on the other hand, do just that. These may include equal pay, legal rights, changing gendered division of labour and ending sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV). This is not a clear cut distinction in many cases but a
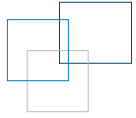
continuum of needs from practical to strategic.

3. **Disaggregated control of resources and decision-making within a household.** This identifies who controls the household's resources, who makes decisions about those resources and how those decisions are made.

4. **Balancing of roles.** This tool considers women's workload from their three roles and how they balance their responsibilities. It endeavours to ensure that any intervention will not add to that workload.

5. **WID/GAD** policy matrix. Assessing the extent to which programmes fit into WID or GAD policy approaches.

6. **Involving women, gender aware organisations and planners in planning**. This tool tries to ensure that women participate in this process and that it addresses the needs that they themselves experience as opposed to needs that project planners may perceive them as having.

WID to GAD Policy Matrix ➔

Issues	Welfare	Equity	Anti-Poverty	Efficiency	Empowerment
Origins	Earliest approach: -residual model of social welfare under colonial administration modermisation/ accelerated growth economic development model	Original WID approach: -failure of modernisation development policy-influence of Boserup and First World feminists on Percy Amendment. -declaration of UN Decade for Women.	Second WID approach: -toned down equity because of criticism -linked to economy Redistribution with Growth and Basic Needs	3rd and now predominant WID approach: -deterioration in world -Third World -policies of economic stabilisation and adjustment rely on women's economic contribution to development	Most recent approach: -arose out of failure of equity approach -Women's feminist writing and grassroots organisations.
Period most Popular	1950-70: but still widely used.	1975-86: attempts to adopt it during and since Women's Decade.	1970s onwards: still limited popularity.	Post 1980s: now most popular approach.	1975 onwards: accelerated during 1980s, still limited popularity

Purpose	To bring women into development as better mothers: this is seen as their most important role in development.	To gain equity for women in the development process: women seen as active participants in development.	To ensure poor women increase their productivity: women's poverty seen as problem of underdevelopment not of subordination.	To measure development is more efficient and more effective: women's economic participation seen as associated with equity.	To empower women through greater self-reliance: women's subordination not only seen as problem of men but also of colonial and neocolonial oppression.
Needs of women met and roles reorganised	To meet PGN* in reproductive role, relating particularly to food aid, malnutrition and family planning.	To meet SGN** in terms of triple role-directly through state top down intervention giving political and economic autonomy by reducing inequality with men.	To meet PGN in productive role, to earn an income particularly in small -scale income generating projects.	To meet PGN in context of declining social services by relying on all 3 roles of women and elasticity of women's time.	To reach SGN in terms of triple role-indirectly through bottom up mobilisation around PGN as means to confront oppression.
Comment	Women seen as passive beneficiaries of development with focus on reproductive role. Non-challenging therefore still widely popular especially with government and traditional NGOs.	In identifying subordinate position of women in terms of relationship to men, challenging, criticised as Western feminism, considered threatening and not popular with government.	Poor women isolated as separate category with tendency only to recognise productive role; reluctance of government to give limited aid to women means popularity still at small-scale NGO level.	Women seen entirely in terms of delivery capacity and ability to extend working day. Most popular approach both with governments and multilateral agencies.	Potentially challenging with emphasis on Third World and women's self-reliance. Largely unsupported by governments and agencies. Avoidance of Western feminism criticism, means slow significant growth of underfinanced voluntary organisations.

Source: UNDP Learning and Information Pack: Gender Analyisis, 2001 reproduced from C. Moser (1993) Gender Planning and Development, Routledge

This framework is successful at making all work visible to planners and the interrelationships of different forms of work. Moreover, it helps address issues of social and political inequality through the exploration of strategic gender needs, as well as recognising the likelihood of institutional and political resistance to changes in gender roles.

However, Moser's framework has been criticised for failing to address differences of age, class, ethnicity etc, and therefore treating women as a homogenous group. Moreover, this framework does not take into account men's gendered need or the ways in which they may intersect with women's.

4.3 The Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM)

The GAM was developed by A. Rani Parker in 1993, specifically to aid communities and grassroots workers in identifying gender issues, challenging assumptions and searching for solutions. It can be used for a number of different purposes from forming part of transformative gender training to being used as a participatory planning tool.

The GAM examines each project objective in terms of four levels of society (women, men, household, community) and in terms of four areas of impact (labour, time, resources, culture).

	Labour	Time	Resources	Culture
Women				
Men				
Household				
Community				

Source: UNDP Learning and Information Pack: Gender Analysis, 2001 reproduced from March, C, Smyth, I. Mukhopadhyay, M. (1999) *A Guide to Gender-Analysis Frameworks*, Oxfam, Oxford

The GAM is simple and allows beneficiaries themselves to participate in identifying gender issues and thus having their views on gender challenged. It also includes men in its gendered analysis which is positive both in terms of fully understanding the community's gendered needs and in terms of planning interventions that include or target men.

On the other hand, GAM does need an able facilitator to guide the process, and to
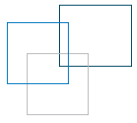
ensure that women's gendered interests are fairly represented when it comes to men's (since women may feel constrained in speaking out if the process takes place alongside men).

4.4 The Women's Empowerment Framework (WEP)

Sara Hlupekile Longwe developed the Women's Empowerment Framework (sometimes referred to as the Longwe method), arguing that women's inequality is a result of oppression and exploitation and therefore development means overcoming all forms of gender inequality. Poverty will only be addressed through women's empowerment.

The WEP Framework consists of five levels of empowerment that women can achieve and the first tool assesses to what level a project is operating. The levels are hierarchical and therefore projects that focus on the higher levels are more likely to deliver women's empowerment than those only operating at the lower levels. These five levels are:

1. **Welfare:** Equal material wealth (income, food supply, health care) for men and women.
2. **Access:** Equal access for women and men to the factors of production (land, credit, labour, training, marketing facilities, and public services) and equal opportunities in life. Usually this is achieved, at least in part, by abolishing discriminatory laws.
3. **Conscientisation:** Both genders understand the concept of gender and how it affects lives. The gendered division of labour should be fair and equal and have the approval of both men and women.
4. **Participation:** Women participate equally with men at all levels, including in development projects.
5. **Control:** Women and men reach a fair balance of control over resources. This is achieved through women's conscientisation and mobilisation.

Sector	Projects	Welfare	Access	Conscientisation	Participation	Control
Agriculture						
Education and Training						

Commerce and Industry						
Women's Projects						

Source: *The Oxfam Gender Training Manual*, Oxfam UK and Ireland, 1994.

The second tool involves an assessment as to the level of recognition that women's equality has received in the design of a project. There are three levels of recognition:
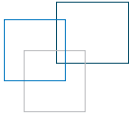
1. **Negative.** No reference to women's issues (defined by Longwe as anything relating to equality with men) in the project objectives. The project will probably have a negative impact on women by worsening inequality.
2. **Neutral.** Although women's issues are included the project is unlikely to actually improve equality of women.
3. **Positive.** An active interest is shown in women's issues and with improving women's position relative to men.

	Levels of recognition		
Levels of equality	**Negative**	**Neutral**	**Positive**
Control			
Participation			
Conscientisation			
Access			
Welfare			

Source: *The Oxfam Gender Training Manual*, Oxfam UK and Ireland, 1994.

The WEP framework is useful in that it can be used for planning, evaluation and monitoring, or training, and is therefore a versatile tool.

However, Longwe's concepts of power relations are simplistic, looking at men and women's relationship only in terms of equality (and therefore excluding consideration of systems of rights, claims and responsibilities between men and women, as well as ways in which they cooperate and support one another) and viewing women as one, homogenous group. Moreover, the hierarchical levels of empowerment falsely suggest

that this is a linear and clear-cut process.

4.5 The Social Relations Approach Framework (SRA)

The SRA was developed by Naila Kabeer at the Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex, UK. Instead of developing specific and technical tools, it is based on 5 key concepts:

1. **Development is increasing human well-being,** key elements of which are survival, security and autonomy. Economic productivity is insufficient as a goal for development.
2. **Social relations determine rights,** responsibilities, claims and roles. Kabeer understands social relations in terms of how groups are positioned in relation to resources. Social relations are constantly changing.
3. **Institutions produce inequality,** including gender inequality. There are four levels of institutions: **state, market, community, family.** Kabeer defines an institution as a framework of rules for achieving particular economic or social goals and organisations as the specific structural forms that institutions take. Institutions can be considered according to their key aspects: **rules** (how things get done), **activities** (what is done), **resources** (what is used/produced), **people** (who is in/out, who does what) and **power** (who decides and whose interests are served).
4. Institutions operate according to different gender policies. Kabeer identifies 3 categories:
   - **gender-blind policies** which fail to distinguish between men and women and therefore are likely to be biased in favour of existing gender relations and to exclude women.
   - **gender-aware policies** which are divided into **gender-neutral policies** (use knowledge of gender differences in context to meet the practical needs of men and women without disturbing gender relations) and **gender-specific** policies (use the same knowledge to meet the needs of men or women without addressing division of resources and responsibilities of each gender)
   - **gender-redistributive policies** which aim to transform the existing distribution of resources and responsibilities.
5. Analyses of a situation need to examine where inequality is caused **by immediate, underlying and/or structural factors** and address it appropriately in their intervention.

Analysing causes and effects

Long-term effects	
Intermediate effects	
Immediate effects	
Core Problem	
Immediate causes at -household -community -market and/or -state	
Underlying causes at -household -community -market and/or -state	
Structural causes at -household -community -market and/or -state	

Source: UNDP Learning and Information Pack: Gender Analysis, 2001 reproduced from March, C, Smyth, I. Mukhopadhyay, M. (1999) *A Guide to Gender-Analysis Frameworks,* Oxfam, Oxford

The SRA provides a dynamic picture of the broader processes of poverty and inequality that puts gender right at the centre of development. It allows links to be made between what is going on at the grassroots level and at the national level. However, it has been criticised for being too complex for easy institutional use and for minimising agency of beneficiaries by focusing on institutions which sideline questions of individuals' abilities to affect change.
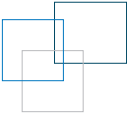
5. Gender Analysis Tools for Emergencies
As UNRWA programmes and services encompass emergency interventions we include here tools that are used in a humanitarian context. The 3 following tools are intended to bridge the gap between the developmental gender analysis tools used above and the tools of emergency and humanitarian context.

5.1 Capacities and Vulnerabilities Analysis Framework (CVA)
The CVA is intended for use in humanitarian disasters and for disaster preparedness. It was developed from an analysis of thirty NGO responses to disaster by Mary B Anderson and Peter J Woodrow (Harvard International Relief and Development Project) and outlined in Rising From the Ashes: Development Strategies in Times of Disaster.

People's response to a disaster depends upon their **capacities, vulnerabilities and needs**. Capacities are existing strengths built up over time that help people cope in the event of a disaster or help protect them from it. Capacities can be **material and physical** resources (land/climate features, health, skills, housing, water and food supply, access to capital etc), **social** resources (structures such as families and kinship groups, social and political organisations etc) or **beliefs and attitudes** (religion, a people's history of crisis, expectation of emergency relief etc). Vulnerabilities are also a long term phenomenon, those factors that weaken people's ability to cope with emergencies and may make them more susceptible. Like capacities, they can be material and physical, social and organisational , or attitudinal and motivational. Needs are different to vulnerabilities because they are immediate requirements for survival and can be addressed with practical, short-term interventions such as relief food or emergency shelter, whereas vulnerabilities need to be addressed by strategic, long-term development.

The CVA is interested in capacities and vulnerabilities and differentiates them by gender. Women often suffer more and different vulnerabilities to men because of they frequently suffer a lower social and economic status before the disaster. During an emergency gender roles may change rapidly and the CVA can document that if it is done over a period of time. Not all women (or all men) will experience the same capacities and vulnerabilities, though, and the CVA also disaggregates by other factors such as race, caste, ethnicity, age and social class.

The CVA is useful in disasters but can also be used in terms of long-term development

	Vulnerabilities	Capacities
Physical/Material		
Social/ Organisational		
Motivational/Attitudinal		

	Vulnerabilities		Capacities	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Physical/Material				
Social/ Organisational				
Motivational/Attitudinal				

|	Vulnerabilities			Capacities		
	Rich	Middle	Middle	Rich	Middle	Middle
Physical/Material						
Social/ Organisational						
Motivational/Attitudinal						

All three tables from The Oxfam Gender Training Manual, Oxfam UK and Ireland, 1994 reproduced from *Rising from the Ashes*, Andersen and Woodrow, Westview Press 1989

planning because it highlights the long-term capacities and vulnerabilities of people. If applied over time, changes in the situation can be documented. It is reasonably flexible in design and can be applied at different levels from small communities upwards.

However, the CVA was not actually designed as an instrument of gender empowerment and there is a danger that amongst the various forms of data disaggregation gender analysis will be lost. Moreover, it has been criticised as quite difficult to be used in a participatory way although alterations to allow it be seem feasible.

5.2 People-Oriented Planning Framework (POP)

POP is an altered form of the Harvard Framework to be used in emergencies where people have suffered displacement. It was devised by Mary B Anderson and the UNHCR Senior Coordinator for Refugee Women following the adoption by UNHCR of a Policy on Refugee Women. It is used to assess the changes in circumstance that men and women have suffered as a result of displacement; who has gained, who has
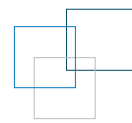
suffered and where these changes have occurred.

The process involves using the same tools as for the **Harvard Framework** (that is **an activities profile, a resources access and control profile and an influencing factors** profile), filling them in for the **current situation as well as for pre-displacement**. In the influencing factors (also called the determinants profile or refugee population profile) it is important to include demographic data on refugee and host populations. Participation by all displaced people is necessary to get an accurate picture of needs.

POP was designed specifically for emergencies where people are displaced but could be adapted to emergency planning where populations have stayed in place. It allows the collection of a data profile on the social, economic and gendered situation of refugees using a fairly simple process which can be easily taught. It shows change over time which is important and can help identify indicators to monitor whether the gap between men and women in increasing or decreasing.

However, POP is more difficult to use for groups that are not homogenous; it would be necessary to separately run the process for each identified group which would become complicated. The conditions of displacement may also make swift collection of this kind of participatory data difficult.

5.3 Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) Gender Marker
The IASC Gender Marker4 is required on all Consolidated Appeals Processes (CAPs) and other humanitarian appeals and funding processes. The gender marker aims to make funding more effective and gender sensitive and is in line with reports form the UN Secretary-General and Security Council Resolution.

The gender marker is a tool that **codes on a scale of 0-2 the extent to which a development project meets the needs** of women, men, girls and boys and whether it will further **gender equality**.
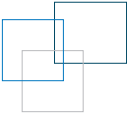
GENDER MARKER	DESCRIPTION
GENDER CODE 0 *No visible potential to contribute to gender equality*	Gender is not reflected anywhere in the project sheet or only appears in the outcomes. There is risk that the project will unintentionally fail to meet the needs of some population groups and possibly even do some harm. These projects are considered gender-blind.
GENDER CODE 1 *Potential to contribute in some limited way to gender equality*	There are gender dimensions in only one or two components of the project sheet: i.e. in needs assessment, activities and outcomes*. The project does not have all three: i.e. 1) gender analysis in the needs assessment, which leads to 2) gender-responsive activities and 3) related gender outcomes *Where the gender dimension appears in outcomes only, the project is still considered gender-blind.*
GENDER CODE 2A – MAINSTREAMING *Potential to contribute significantly to gender equality* A gender analysis is included in the project's needs assessment and is reflected in one or more of the project's activities and one or more of the project outcomes. Gender mainstreaming in project design is about making the concerns and experiences of women, girls, boys and men an integral dimension of the core elements of the project: 1) gender analysis in the needs assessment which leads to 2) gender- responsive activities and 3) related gender outcomes. Gender mainstreaming in project design promotes the flow of gender equality into implementation, monitoring and evaluation	**GENDER CODE 2B – TARGETTED ACTION** *Project's principal purpose is to advance gender equality* The gender analysis in the needs assessment justifies this project in which all activities and all outcomes advance gender equality. All targeted actions are based on gender analysis. Targeted actions are projects that assists women, girls, boys or men who have special needs or suffer discrimination. Most targeted actions are single-sex interventions responding to the disadvantage, discrimination or special needs of one sex or a sub-group of one sex. Other targeted actions can specifically aim to advance gender equality, such as projects that are designed exclusively to provide a gender assessment/baseline for the sector response or a project where all activities contribute to women having equal participation as men in particular sector activities.

Source: IASC Gender Marker FAQ 2012

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[4] IASC put in place an electronic training on gender in emergency settings. It can be accessed at this page: http://oneresponse.info/crosscutting/gender/Pages/Training.aspx

6. Gender Mainstreaming in UNRWA services

6.1 The Health Programme

a. Global commitment to gender equality in health services provision

UNRWA provides health services consistent with the global commitments to gender equality, such as the relevant Millennium Development Goals (specifically 3, 4 and 5). Other international instruments include the Convention on the Rights of the Child (specifically article 18), the ECOSOC Resolutions (1997 and 2006) and the Beijing Platform for Action. In this UNRWA follows the lead of the World Health Organization which is taking a gender-based approach to its work.

b. Situational analysis and identified gaps

Gender disaggregated data is now available for all records involving child preventative care, non-communicable disease clinics and inpatient care. Availability of disaggregated data for curative services is planned. Gender disaggregated data is a crucial tool in understanding the different needs and challenges faced by women, men, girls and boys.

Palestinian refugees have a lower infant mortality and maternal mortality rate than host populations and 88% of Palestinian refugee women are covered by postnatal care, compared to only 31% of women at the national level. Problems still exist however, including early pregnancy (before the age of 18) which increases the likelihood of infant or maternal mortality. Preconception care has been integrated into the life cycle approach being taken to patient care. At the moment it is aimed mainly at women but should be available to both spouses.

Other attempts to improve maternal and infant health include family planning services which allow women to avoid too early, too late, too frequent and too close pregnancies. The program has had some success and there is a steady increase in contraception use and a steady decline of the fertility rate and maternal and infant mortality.

Women face danger aside from childbearing, however; many women are exposed to domestic violence, either from husbands, parents or brothers. Figures are hard to come by but a number of studies suggest high rates of physical, verbal and sexual violence (including marital rape). Killings in defence of 'honour' also endanger women's lives in UNRWA's five fields. The health care system is typically the first and sometimes

the only institution women victims of violence come into contact with. However there are difficulties with providing assistance from clinics due to biased attitudes of medical officers, an absence of medical guidelines, practices of anonymity and lack of sufficient training.
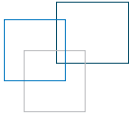
The staffing structure of UNRWA health centres generally reflects traditional gender roles with women dominating professions such as nursing but poorly represented as specialists, dental surgeons and medical officers. In accordance with the UN policy on gender equity and equality, the UNRWA Health Department has been encouraging the recruitment of female staff into various positions.

c. Interventions to be developed and priorities

1. Gender-sensitive HRM and better balanced workforce achieved
2. Gender biases in access to health care evaluated
3. Gender orientated operational research within the programme expanded
4. Family planning and preconception care provided to women and men as standard
5. Gender-based violence and related psycho-social problems are addressed at primary health services

d. Checklist to ensure gender is taken into account:

- Are all statistics disaggregated?
- Is there equal access to health care for women and men, girls and boys?
- Do men and women make equal use of health care? Is one gender less likely to report some problems e.g. men and mental health?
- Are some problems related to gender likely to go unreported by all e.g. GBV and sexual abuse?
- Do mortality and morbidity rates differ between men and women? Is there a gender difference in the incidence of some diseases?
- Are men and women exposed to different occupational hazards?
- Does the project mainly emphasize women's health in terms of their role as mothers? Is there a need for a broader focus on women's health?
- Are the cultural obstacles to women and girls receiving some services such as family planning? Within the couple/family who makes decisions about fertility and how are they made?
- Is women and girls' nutritional level as high as men and boys'?
- Is the health workforce gender balanced? Does the availability of medical officers/

nurses of their own gender affect the willingness of men and women, girls and boys to seek treatment and accept advice?

6.2. The Education Programme

a. Global commitment to gender equality in education services provision

UNRWA provides education within the framework of international instruments on gender equality in education. The most important of these came out of the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) which integrated the gender issue into the new concept of Education for Sustainable Development. In order to fulfil the third Millennium Development goal (achieving gender equality in education by 2015), the Summit's concluding report suggests that the existence of gender inequalities in education in general, and the subordinate position of women and girls in particular, are often not a result of deliberate policies of exclusion but rather of the persistence of unchallenged social norms regarding accepted gender roles. These social norms must be addressed.

Other relevant instruments exist, including on the provision of education in emergencies. The Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) suggests three minimum standards for all children and adults affected by crisis that are grounded within the Convention of the Rights of the Child and the UN's commitments to Education for All:

- Educational instruction should be learner-centred, participatory and inclusive
- Access to education should be made a priority issue along with women's participation in community consultation and education support
- Attention should be paid to the content of the curriculum and the recruitment and support of women teachers

b. Situational analysis and identified gaps

An equal number of boys and girls have been enrolled in UNRWA schools since the 1960s (although in some fields such as Gaza and Syria girls' enrolment is currently slightly lower). However, families tend to place less emphasis and value on the education that girls receive and expect that their futures will be rooted in the domestic sphere. This can also be seen by the fact that more men than women enrol in university and vocational training. Early marriage contributes to girls' drop-out rate but more boys fail to complete their schooling citing either economic reasons (needing to support family) or lack of satisfaction with school experience.

UNRWA's education programme is not, at present, adequately challenging constricting gender roles. Text books and educational materials often contain gender stereotypes. Although UNRWA produces supplementary educational enrichment materials in areas such as tolerance and human rights, gender stereotypes have not been addressed through this material. Moreover, gender biases and stereotypes are perpetuated by the teaching style of some teachers.

Furthermore, the needs of girls have not been fully addressed in the specific educational programmes either. The 2006 Campaign for Safe and Stimulating Schools attempted to reduce corporal punishment in schools but neglected the fact that girls more often face verbal abuse from teachers. The Schools and Community Participation projects have not produced needed extra-curricular activities for girls. In contrast, boys' needs have been addressed more fully; for example, the Gaza Schools of Excellence Programme has particularly targeted underperforming boys. However, girls and boys were able to participate equally in the Gaza Summer Games.
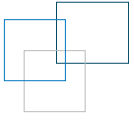
In terms of gender balance in staff, there has been a trend towards the feminization of the teaching profession as recruitment on the basis of gender has been replaced by recruitment on the basis of ability. However, few female staff break the glass ceiling to access managerial positions.

c. Interventions to be developed and priorities
1. Gender-sensitive HRM and better balanced workforce achieved
2. Parity in enrolment maintained and gendered drop-out reasons identified
3. TVET enrolment and targeting of girls improved
4. Measures to combat stereotyping and inequalities implemented
5. Confidence levels and participation of girls and boys increased
6. Special projects and curriculum enhancement address the causes of gender inequality.

d. Checklist to ensure gender is taken into account:
- Are all educational statistics disaggregated (including enrolment, drop-out rate, test scores etc)?
- Are studies conducted on the reasons for girls and boys dropping out of school? Are projects targeting these different reasons?
- Is there a difference in educational attainment based on gender and is it being

addressed?
- Does the curriculum include gender stereotypes?
- Do girls and boys have equal access to vocational training programmes?
- Are girls encouraged to consider the different specializations at university?
- Are schools girl-friendly? Do girls feel safe and understood at school?
- Is sexual violence in schools detected and addressed?
- Do parents support their sons' and daughters' education equally?
- How does education affect marriage prospects? Is the effect different for girls and boys? Does this affect parent's attitudes to their sons' and daughters' education?
- If girls are married early do they have access to education?
- Does the social context allow women to make full use of their education?
- Is the education workforce gender balanced? Are there equal roles for female and male teachers?
- How is the school environment in boys/girl schools?
- How does learning achievement differ in boys/girls and co-educational schools and why?
- Are boys and girls taught about reproduction?
- Are there equal roles for men and women in parents' committees?
- Is teaching gender sensitive? Are boys and girls encouraged equally or are certain behaviour/qualities expected from boys/girls?

6.3. The Relief and Social Services Programme
a. Global commitment to gender equality in relief services provision
UNRWA's RSS programme provides services that are in line with UNDP's gender-sensitive approach to poverty alleviation. UNDP prioritises capacity development and the use of gender disaggregated data for poverty assessments. This facilitates the assessment of women's progress in terms of the Millennium Development Goals, prompting employment strategies that are gender-sensitive.

b. Situational analysis and identified gaps
The RSS programme has adopted a twin-track approach to gender mainstreaming. Firstly, the activities of a network of 65 Women's Programmes Centres provide refugee women with awareness raising, advice on rights and laws, skills training and small credit provision in order to enhance their socio-economic status and thus increase their participation in the development of themselves, their families and community. However,

although 46% of Special Hardship Cases are women, they rarely participate in activities at the programme centres; there gaps that still need to be bridged.

Secondly, the RSS Department embarked on the process of mainstreaming gender equality concerns into all activities, policies and procedures. Following this step, the Department is adopting new gender sensitive policies through the revision of various instructions and guidelines to ensure that the needs and concerns of all men, women, boys and girls are addressed. The most prominent example is that some of UNRWA's services are being extended to include the husbands and descendents of refugee women married to non-refugees (MNR), which is a significant step towards reducing the gender gap in service provision. Also, the Relief Services Instructions and Eligibility and Registration have been gender-sensitized and revised. Furthermore, staff and volunteers have received gender training and gender has been integrated into the training of social workers.

C. Interventions to be developed and priorities

1. RSSP sex-disaggregated base-line data established and collected on regular basis
2. The technical capacity of RSSP's field-based TOT on gender strengthened and increased in number
3. Gender concepts introduced to all RSSP staff and local community volunteers
4. Gender gaps within RSSP sub-programmes and activities identified and measures to bridge the gaps introduced
5. RSSP policies, guidelines and instructions are gender sensitive and gender responsive
6. RSSP gender-sensitive indicators developed
7. Women's and girls' needs and concerns are mainstreamed into all RSSP services and activities

d. Checklist to ensure gender is taken into account:

- Are all statistics disaggregated? Are there area/location with specific gender gaps?
- Who has the right to be registered?
- Who is eligible for services?
- Who collects the information? Is it done in a gender balanced manner? For example, use of male and female social workers.
- Who provides the information? Head of family (female or male)
- Who benefits from cash assistance?
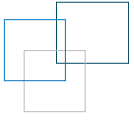
- How different is women's employment rate as compared to men's?
- What obstacles do women face in finding employment?
- Do women face restrictions on mobility (physical, cultural, social etc) that prevent them from accessing all the assistance or employment available to them?
- What kinds of employment do men and women do? Is stereotyping a problem?
- Do men and women receive equal pay for equal work?
- What roles do men and women have in the household? Do cultural expectations of who should work outside/inside the home affect employment in practice?
- Who controls household resources and how are financial decisions made?
- Does working outside the home expose women to sexual harassment/abuse or GBV – either in the workplace or as a result of shifting gender roles in the household?
- Do job-creation schemes represent men and women equally?
- Do poverty-alleviation schemes take into account gender-needs and different kinds of households e.g. female-headed?
- What is the level of organisation of women, men, youth etc? Are the vulnerable using informal networks in the community for support and does this differ by gender?
- Is the time and place services are provided adequate to both genders? Is equal access provided to women and men through CBOs? Is there access for people with disabilities (women and men)?
- Is the social services workforce gender balanced?
- Who take the management roles in CBOs?

6.4. The Microfinance and Micro-entrepreneurship Programme

a. Global commitment to gender equality in microfinance services provision

UNRWA is guided by the United Nations Capital Development Fund (UNCDF)'s view that "achieving the twin goals of gender sensitivity and financial sustainability is possible provided that Microfinance institutions are guided by a strong, strategic vision for both". UNCDF also stresses that, although progress is being made, more needs to be done to understand the needs of women and design products to meet those needs.

b. Situational analysis and identified gaps

Products offered are mostly gender-segregated in that the Solidarity Group Lending Product (SGPL) is only available to women and the Micro Enterprise Credit (MEC) Loans

are available to men only in Gaza. Not all clients are happy with these arrangements, in particular many women would prefer individual loans. The UNCDF recommends that where possible, full equitable participation of women and men in mixed-gender programmes is desirable.

UNRWA is also considering supplementing gender-segregation of products with gender-sensitive marketing and outreach based on a better understanding of men and women's real needs rather than assumed gender roles. It is clear that making services generally available does not necessarily mean that they are accessed by women; loans officers must be proactive in seeking out women clients. At the minimum it must be ensured that inequalities are not being perpetuated through MMD policies.

MMD is planning to introduce a new savings product which is expected to be of particular interest to female clients since research has shown that they tend to be in charge of managing household finances. Women are also likely to be amongst the poorer segment of the population and therefore need protection against personal crisis. However, while the product should be targeted to women's needs it should not only be accessible to women.

MMD employs 243 people of whom 69% are male and 31% female. There has been some difficulty retaining female loan officers and, in general, women have not been promoted at the speed of their male colleagues. MMD is making efforts to increase gender balance.

c. Interventions to be developed and priorities
1. Gender-sensitive HRM and better balanced workforce achieved
2. Loan officers trained in targeting women and other marginalised groups and further research undertaken
3. Product development based on gender-analysis and gender perspective included in impact and market research.

d. Checklist to ensure gender is taken into account:
- Are all statistics disaggregated?
- Do men and women differ in their patterns of credit use (e.g., type of loans, number of loans, interest rates, arrears, defaults, amounts borrowed, effective use)?
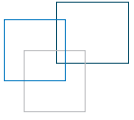
- Are there significant numbers of women farmers, enterprise owners, producers, workers, or household heads in the client population?
- Do women and men have separate credit unions or savings and loan groups?
- Does the beneficiary population have access to finance from both formal and informal sources? Are there differences in access for women and men?
- If women's access to credit is more restricted than that of men, how does this relate to women's property rights and ability to provide collateral? What are other constraints on women's access to credit?
- Will the project change existing patterns of relative access to credit for women and men?
- Who is able to participate in the decision making process, who decides and who benefits? Women may participate but not necessarily reap the benefits

6.5. The Infrastructure and Camp Improvement Programme

a. Global commitment to gender equality in infrastructure services provision

The most significant global commitment in this area is the United Nations Housing Rights Program (UNHRP), launched in 2002 as a joint initiative between UN-HABITAT and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR). This programme comes out of the Habitat Agenda, ratified by all UN Member States, which states that *'Within the overall context of an enabling approach, Governments should take appropriate action in order to promote, protect and ensure the full and progressive realisation of the right to adequate housing'*. Paragraph 46 of the Habitat Agenda outlines commitments to gender equality in human settlements development. This involves:

- Applying gender-sensitive analysis to policies, programmes and projects.
- Incorporating a gender perspective in the creation of conceptual and practical methodology, development and evaluation, including the development of indicators for all resource management mechanisms, production techniques and infrastructure development.
- Collecting, analysing and disseminating gender-disaggregated data and information on human settlements issues, including statistical means that recognize and make visible the unremunerated work of women, for use in policy and programme planning and implementation.
- Formulating and strengthening policies and practices to promote the full and equal participation of women in human settlements planning and decision making

b. Situational analysis and identified gaps

The Housing and Camp Improvement Unit are dedicated to community participation and including residents' views in their projects. Focus groups representing all social groups, including women, are being set up. This participation approach has been shown to be particularly important in emergency situations and women are keen to be involved. Women's involvement may be more accepted due to the likely shifts in gender roles during a crisis. Women also have specific safety and cultural requirements during an emergency.

Refugees report particular dissatisfaction with the level pf privacy in camps and the lack of public spaces. These are particular problems for women and especially for those who are unmarried and teenage girls under pressure to preserve their 'honour'. Improving living conditions has been shown in studies to directly improve women's physical and mental health, more so than for men who spend less time in the home.

Gender analysis has been used in specific projects such as the improvement of Neirab and Ein el Tal camps in Syria to ensure that women, men, girls and boys all benefit. A special emphasis was placed on safe spaces for women and girls outside the house, women's participation, and vulnerable groups such as male bread-winners who have recently lost work and female-headed households.

c. Interventions to be developed and priorities

1. Gender-sensitive HRM and better balanced workforce achieved
2. All planning and monitoring based on asset mapping and equal participation
3. Context-specific and gender-sensitive approach to development, design and location of community and public facilities and spaces adopted (including street lighting, restrooms, playgrounds and save access).
4. Include women and girls in maintenance of public facilities and shelters as well as in environmental projects when designing infrastructure (water, sewage, roads)
5. Community participation and consideration for gender needs integrated into emergence response

d. Checklist to ensure gender is taken into account:

1. Are all statistics gender disaggregated?
2. What are the specific needs of men, boys, women and girls in terms of infrastructure and housing?
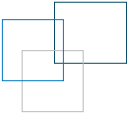
3. Are women's views and needs being heard and being included into the design of facilities?

4. How many female-headed households have had their shelters repaired/rebuilt?

6.6. The Emergency Programme

a. Global commitment to gender equality in emergency services provision

Amongst the UN tools that have been developed to mainstream gender into emergency preparedness and action is new *Gender Handbook in Humanitarian* Action from the Inter-Agency Standing Committee. This handbook shows that gender analysis allows a better understanding of the population affected by the crisis, what they need and what they can do for themselves. Gender analysis therefore improves effectiveness and efficiency of programmes.

b. Situational analysis and identified gaps

Lessons have been learned from the Nahr el Bared camp crisis in terms of planning and response to acute emergencies. There had been insufficient gender-sensitive preparedness before the emergency and that this led to a chaotic immediate response with insufficient appreciation for the diverse and gendered needs of the displaced population. Moreover, there appears to have been a lack of coordination in gathering information on the displaced population and confusion amongst agencies of the meaning of gender that left some needs unaddressed (e.g. gender-based violence and vulnerabilities of men). Women were excluded from decision-making, information-flow and participation which resulted in unsuitable displacement centres (lack of street lighting etc) and increased inequality especially in the area of hiring (men were being hired as day labourers to help with rebuilding).

The emergency programme also responds to long term emergencies such as currently exist in the oPt. Measures here include cash for work programmes and in both fields attempts are made to maximise the number of female job-holders. Social security net programmes also involve providing food parcels to refugees, including women married to non-refugees and their children (as part of UNRWA's attempts to phase out this discrimination in eligibility). The psycho-social care programme helps to provide positive coping mechanisms in these difficult circumstances and are used particularly by women and children.

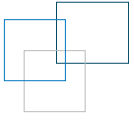### c. Interventions to be developed and priorities

- Establish a roster of gender-aware UNRWA emergency staff and of UN gender advisors
- Gender-sensitize emergency preparedness, contingency plans, emergency appeals and fundraising
- Tools and guidelines on gender-sensitive emergency response developed
- Gender analysis and assessment carried out during all emergency situations
- Develop indicators for measuring the gender-sensitivity of emergency operations

d. Checklist to ensure gender is taken into account:

- Are all statistics disaggregated?
- Is emergency accommodation sensitive to women's gendered needs? Is there public lighting, access to separate sanitation etc?
- Are women's strategic needs addressed as well as practical ones? For example, has sufficient consideration been given to preventing GBV?
- Are gender-appropriate non-food items being provided?
- Is food aid being provided equally and in such a way that women can access it?
- Does it meet the needs of girls, boys, men and women of all ages?
- What is the effect of food aid on household power dynamics?
- Are men feeling emasculated by displacement and reliance on aid? How is this translating into family relations? Is there a danger of increased GBV?
- Are women's views on services being sought as well as men's? Is this being done in such a way that they feel free to express their needs and desires?
- Do women have as much information as men about what is going on and what assistance is being offered?
- In terms of prevention, are women as informed as men on action to be taken, e.g. evacuation plans?

6.7. The Human Resources Programme

The HR department is committed to achieving a gender balanced workforce by challenging gender biases in some jobs and increasing the number of women in senior and professional positions. One of the ways that this will be implemented is by targeted recruiting including gender-sensitive interview techniques and vacancy advertisements that specifically invite qualified women to apply. Unless the department is gender balanced, an equally qualified female candidate will be preferred.

Another technique is to help women already working in UNRWA to develop their skills and move up into higher positions. This can be achieved through the use of specialised training workshops to help women develop managerial skills. Mentors for women and men working in areas that have not reached gender parity may also prove effective.

Thirdly, efforts will be made to provide a more gender-sensitive and family-friendly workplace through staff training and performance management that does not penalise workers for family commitments. The feasibility of flexible working will be explored.

The target is for women to represent:
- 30% of the workforce G12-G15 by 2015
- 30% of the workforce G16 and above by 2015
- 50% of the International workforce from P2-P4 by 2015
- 50% of the International workforce from P5 and above by 2015

UNRWA will maintain gender-disaggregated statistics on staff appointments and promotion, and ensure parity in participation in training, conferences, workshops and seminars. Field Offices and Programmes report every quarter on the number of men and women across the field office/department, the number of men and women in managerial positions and the number of men and women newly recruited. A gender scorecard is prepared half yearly by the HR department for the whole agency.

The HR Gender Equality policy is applicable to all employees across all UNRWA offices and fields of operation including contractors, vendors and providers.

#### d. Checklist to ensure gender is taken into account:
- Are all statistics disaggregated?
- Are staff gender balanced? If so, is there gender balance at each level or are female staff clustered in lower status positions?
- Do female staff have equal access to training and other professional development?
- Does one gender have a much higher rate of turn over? If so, why is this?
- Are some positions seen as gender specific / attract mainly applications from one gender? Why is this?
- Are women specifically invited to apply in job vacancy announcements?
- What proportion of applicants are women? What might encourage/discourage one gender to apply?

- How successful were those female applicants compared to their male colleagues?
- Is the interview panel gender balanced? Does the recruitment process favour (intentionally or otherwise) one gender?
- Do UNRWA's policies allow staff to be parents and work at the same time? Are there working maternity and paternity leave systems in place? Is nursing leave in place and can men claim it? Is there space and time for women to breast feed? Are their kindergartens?
- Is there equal access to flexi-hours?
- Due to cultural obstacles there are very few women in unions. Women may not feel comfortable making speeches. Are there things HR can do to make female staff more comfortable doing that? Training?
- Do we know the needs and desires of staff members? Do men want to be nurses and feel they can't apply? Or are they socialised not to want to?
- Is the performance of men and women evaluated equally? Is there a bias due to disproportionate numbers of male supervisors?
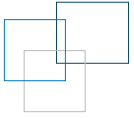
7. Glossary

Care Economy – the work done, paid and unpaid, in caring for the current and future labour force. This refers to the work women often do in the home, such as raising children, cooking, cleaning, caring for the sick and elderly. Because this work is usually unpaid (and low status even if salaried) its necessity for social reproduction is frequently overlooked.

Empowerment – the process by which women are able to take control of their own lives, control relevant resources and play a meaningful and equal role in their families and community. Women must organise and mobilise themselves, based on an understanding of gender, to overcome gender discrimination.

Equal Opportunities – the absence of barriers for participation in social, political and economic activities. This can also be relevant to areas other than gender (for example disability or addressing ethnic discrimination).

Feminisation of Poverty – a term referring to the fact that the majority of the very poor are women and that women have more difficulty escaping poverty than men do. In development and emergency policy female-headed households have received considerable attention as families needing assistance.

Gender – the differences between men and women, boys and girls, that are based on social construction rather than biology. Because gender is learned from society, it will differ in different cultures and can be renegotiated.

Gender Analysis – understanding gender and including it in the planning process. The goal is to aid equality between genders by understand what their situation is before the intervention (including needs) and how the intervention will change that situation. Without gender analysis projects may fail or misbehave by making the situation of one group worse.

Gender And Development (GAD) – an approach that grew out of the failures of the Women in Development movement to bring real change to women in the developing world. Gender And Development is an approach that involves mainstreaming gender concerns into all aspects of development and understanding that women do not exist

in isolation but that their gender identity, roles and concerns are shaped in relation to those of men. Men may also need to be included in gendered programmes and their gender perspective should certainly be included in planning. The Gender And Development approach was articulated by the Beijing Platform for Action.

Gender Awareness – an awareness of the concept of gender and the role it has in affecting daily lives. This is reflected in programme planning by gender analysis.

Gender Blind – an approach that assumes that gender is not important or relevant and therefore does not include it in analyses or planning. This can lead to difficulty achieving successful and efficient programs.

Gender Division of Labour – the work that people do that is assigned by gender. For example, women often do more domestic work such as cooking, cleaning and raising children, while earning money outside the home is often seen as men's job. Although women increasingly work outside the house it is frequently in jobs that are lower paid and lower status and their domestic burden of work is rarely reduced or shared by a partner. This means that women often do a greater share of the labour but, since men's work tends to be better respected and paid, men reap more benefits.

Gender Disaggregated Data – collecting data in such a way that it records men and women separately, thus allowing the differences in their needs and behaviour to be made apparent. Gender disaggregated data is a crucial tool in gender analysis of a situation.

Gender Equality – the idea that men and women should be treated the same way and gender should not be a reason for discrimination or special treatment. However, because men and women are not starting from an equal footing, equal treatment will not lead to equity.

Gender Equity – the idea that the end result of an intervention should be that men and women's lives are equitable and that using policies that target one or the other can be useful in order to get to that point because men and women's lives are not the same and such large gender gaps remain.

Gender Inequality – any situation where women and men do not receive equal
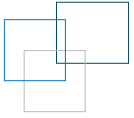
treatment, equal benefits or exercise equal control over resources. This can take the form of **Structural Gender Inequality** where a system of gender discrimination is embedded in public and social institutions or even enshrined in administrative rules and laws.

Gender Gap – the differences in opportunities that men and women experience that are based on their gender. There are gender gaps in all areas of life from economic participation and income generation to community participation and political decision making.

Gender Mainstreaming – the process of putting gender analysis at the heart of programmes. Gender should be central to the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of a programme. Gender mainstreaming came to the fore as a result of the Beijing Platform for Action and concerns that previous development strategies (such as Women in Development) had allowed gendered concerns to be 'ghettoised'. However, gender mainstreaming has faced numerous difficulties in effective implementation and, as a result, there has been a move towards a twin-track strategy in recent years. This means that, while gender mainstreaming is still pursued, it is complemented by gender-specific programmes aimed at closing gender-gaps.

Gender Relations – the relations and power distribution between men and women. These relations are often based upon traditional gender roles. Gender relations are fluid, however, and can change. While gender relations may be antagonistic, the full spectrum of relations, including cooperation and interdependence of men and women, must be recognised and included in programme planning to prevent programme misbehaviour.

Gender Roles – the social roles that are assigned based on gender. Gender roles determine what activities and behaviour is socially acceptable for each gender in a given culture or society. Gender roles differ based on age, class, race, ethnicity, and religion, amongst other factors, so that even amongst just one culture men and women are not homogenous groups. When the political, economic or social environment changes, for example during economic crisis, conflict or displacement, gender roles shift in response to the new context.

Gender Stereotypes – the representations of women and men (particularly in books,

films and the media) occupying traditional gender roles. Gender stereotypes support and reinforce the gender status quo by portraying it as 'normal' and 'natural'.

Informal economy – the economy which exists alongside the formal, regulated economy and includes illegal and semi-legal activities. Many women are drawn into the informal economy. Sometimes this may be in areas such as commerce where women are entrepreneurs and run their own business. Often, however, women end up working in fields such as manufacturing and domestic service; low-paid, low-status jobs that lack legal protection and therefore leave them vulnerable to poor working conditions, underpayment, sexual abuse and other dangers. There are multiple reasons why women are at risk from these forms of exploitation, ranging from potentially limited access to education and skills (having been kept at home to help raise younger siblings, for example, or removed from school for early marriage) to limited mobility (the need to work from home doing piece-work because of children or because cultural norms do not permit women to travel or work outside the home) or discrimination (male employers may not believe even well-qualified women are fit for the job or expect them to prioritise their domestic commitments).

The informal economy may also refer to work done for payment in kind, such as labour exchanged in agricultural work or in care of children. These forms of work are as much social as economic arrangements and often take place amongst friends and neighbours.

Masculinity – men and boys are as much gendered beings as women and girls and have their own social roles and requirements. Understanding the pressures that men are under as a result of their gender is important for addressing women's concerns and challenges, but also for aiding men and boys in their own right. There are situations (for example, often in refugee situations and instances of displacement where gender roles are rapidly changing) where some experts have referred to a 'crisis in masculinity' and where gender-specific programmes to assist men may be appropriate. An example of this may be the drop-out rate of boys from UNRWA schools.

Patriarchy – a society in which men dominate the control of resources at all levels of society. Patriarchy is supported by patriarchal ideology, a system of beliefs around male superiority which is often justified in terms of biology, tradition or religion.
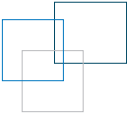
Practical Needs and **Strategic Needs** – Maxine Molyneux identified a continuum of women's needs from the practical to the strategic. Practical needs are those necessary for the improvement of quality of life in the short term (such as the need for income, access to schooling for children or housing repair) and do not challenge the status quo gender relations. Strategic needs, on the other hand, are what is needed to bring about structural change and empowerment of women. These may be less easily identified and be based on a longer term view.

Sex – the differences between men and women that are based on biology, for example, that women can bear children.

Twin Track Approach, also known as a **Dual Strategy** – an approach that arose from the failure of gender mainstreaming to really close the gaps that exist between women and men. A twin track approach mainstreams gender but also has specific programmes targeting women (or, in some cases, men) to close the gaps between men and women's opportunities, resources and experience.

Women In Development (WID) – an approach that developed in the early 1970s in response to the perceived failure of previous development approaches to reach women in the developing world, or even to appreciate the potential that might be achieved by targeting women. Women In Development policies focused on women only, specifically for income-generating and anti-poverty projects. Gender analysis tended to be limited, as did consideration of strategic needs, resulting in considerable project failure or misbehaviour.

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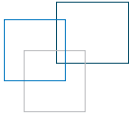
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