



Thematic Guidelines



Integrating a Gender Perspective
into Vulnerability Analysis

Gender

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Prepared by Claudia Ah Poe

For any questions, queries and feedback please contact the following:

Claudia Ah Poe, VAM Officer

claudia.ahpoe@wfp.org

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Introduction

The World Food Programme's efforts towards achieving and promoting gender equality in its programs are reflected in WFP's Gender Policy (2003-2007) and Enhanced Commitments to Women (ECW). The organization committed itself to mainstream a gender perspective into all programming activities and to produce sex/gender-disaggregated information (see ECW VI). This provided the rationale for the joint PSPG-VAM initiative to elaborate technical recommendations on how to mainstream a gender perspective in Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping (VAM)¹. The development of this practical guide is a follow-up to this initiative (Figure 1) and also forms part of the overall technical guidance materials for food security and vulnerability analysis prepared by VAM in 2004.

The objective of the guidelines is to provide guidance to VAM Officers and Focal Points on how to mainstream a gender perspective into the design, implementation and analytic phases of VAM studies. Although generating gender disaggregated data is a key first step in mainstreaming gender into VAM analyses, integrating a gender perspective entails much more including analyzing how gender roles and relationships between genders are causally related to food insecurity and vulnerability.

The key challenge is to identify how a gender perspective can be used to enhance WFP/VAM's ability to answer the five key questions that guide all WFP/VAM studies:

1. Who are the food insecure?
2. How many are they?
3. Where do they live?
4. Why are they food insecure?
5. Does food aid have a role to play?

The guidelines focuses on providing practical recommendations on how to modify primary data collection tools used for comprehensive vulnerability and food security studies in order to incorporate a gender perspective and generate relevant information on gender and gender relationships. Many of the recommendations constitute the very basic requirements while others are tailored for more advanced studies. Much of the guidance is also applicable to other analysis and assessments activities within WFP, such as food security monitoring or emergency needs assessments.

What these guidelines *can* do:

- Introduce key conceptual frameworks, concepts and terms needed to integrate gender analysis/a gender perspective into WFP/VAM food security and vulnerability studies
- Provide illustrative examples of:
 - indicators that can be used to facilitate gender analysis
 - food security and vulnerability indicators disaggregated by gender
- Describe how to incorporate gender concerns into all aspects of primary and secondary data collection exercises
- Provide examples of qualitative and quantitative data collection tools for community and household level data collection that integrate gender concerns into existing food security and vulnerability data collection tools
- Describe how gender and gender relationships can be integrated with the analysis and presentation of data on food security and vulnerability.
- Provide checklists to help ensure that gender concerns are incorporated into all aspects of WFP/VAM studies

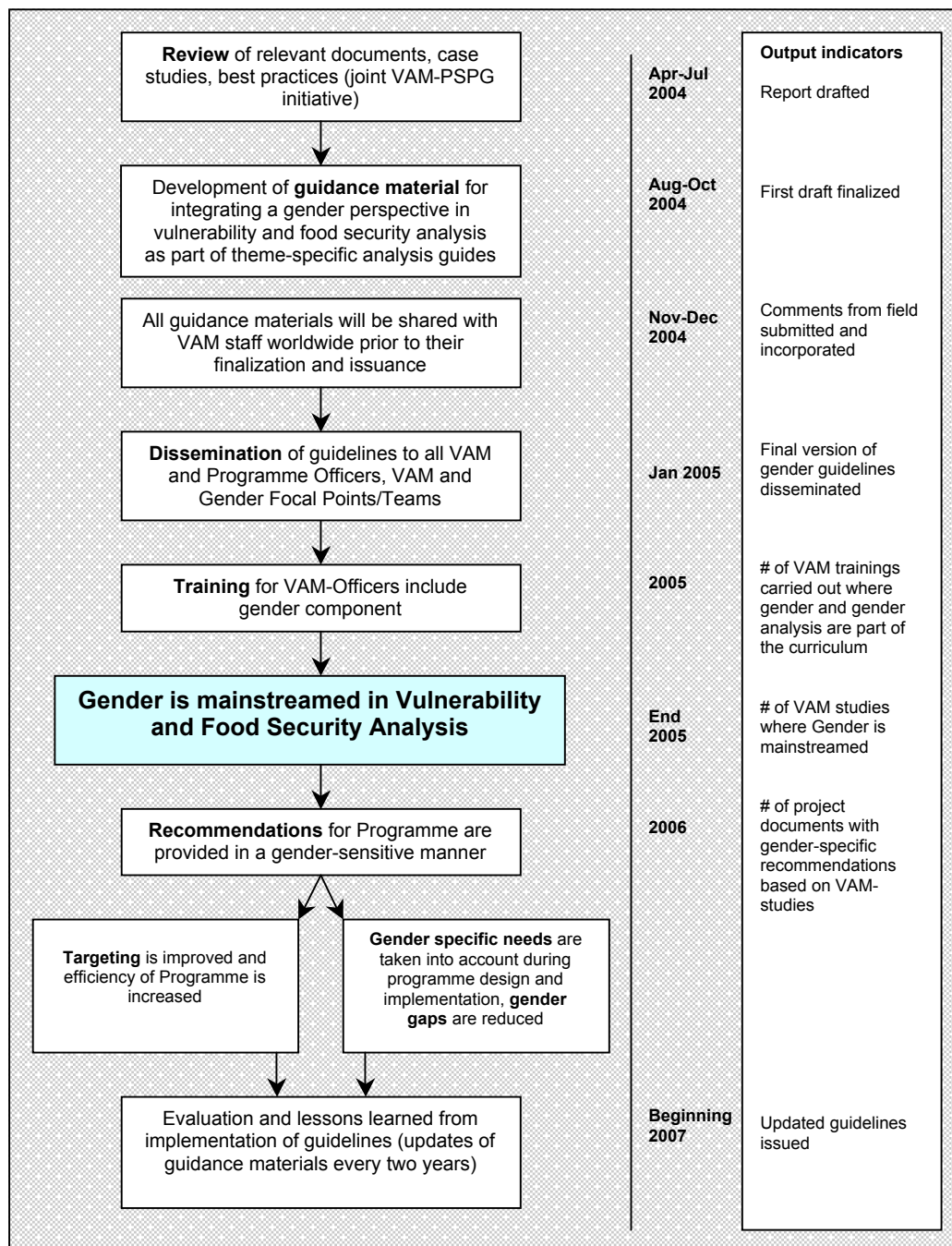
What these guidelines *cannot* do:

- Provide a detailed conceptual description of VAM's approach to analyzing food security and vulnerability (see Household Food Security Profiles guidelines)
- Prescribe which, among the variety of qualitative and quantitative data collection methods, are most appropriate for particular settings and information needs

¹ See PDPG/VAM: Mainstreaming Gender in Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping (VAM). Rome, 2004.

- Provide a detailed description of the pros and cons of various sampling methods (see Sampling guidelines)
- Provide step by step instructions for analyzing quantitative and qualitative data on food security, vulnerability, and gender (including software choices and use)
- Replace or contradict the existing guidance materials provided by WFP on gender and its incorporation into WFP activities
- Be used as a stand alone guide for conducting WFP/VAM food security and vulnerability studies
- Create expertise in gender analysis

Figure 1 - Framework for mainstreaming a gender perspective in VAM



Section I - Basic concepts, frameworks, and indicators

The term **gender analysis**¹ covers a broad array of techniques and methods aimed at explicitly incorporating a gendered perspective in the analysis of a given topic. For WFP/VAM, the primary topics of interest are food security and vulnerability.

1.1 - Gender analysis and WFP/VAM food security and vulnerability studies

Mainstreaming gender analysis into WFP/VAM food security and vulnerability studies means much more than simply providing gender disaggregated data (e.g. defining who is food insecure and/or vulnerable by gender). It means bringing a gender perspective to bear on the range of issues related to food security and vulnerability. Accordingly, the effective integration of gender analysis into WFP/VAM food security and vulnerability studies entails exploring how gender and gender relationships are causally related to food insecurity and vulnerability. Although the application of gender analysis will undoubtedly vary by context, an illustrative list of general issues related to the 5 key questions outlined in the introduction includes:

Avoiding assumptions

Although the term gender has often been misinterpreted as focussing on women, a gender perspective requires a comparative analysis of men and women, as well as the relations between them.

Assumptions concerning the relationship between gender and vulnerable groups are inappropriate prior to the analysis of the particular context under study and run the risk of introducing bias into the research design.

- Understanding the social construction of gender roles as they relate to all aspects of food security (availability, access, and utilization) and food aid interventions.
- Understanding how gender affects access to food and other resources
- Understanding how gendered division of labour and decision-making power is related to food availability and access
- Understanding variability of food consumption, health, and nutrition by gender and how these factors affect food utilization men and women (boys and girls)
- Analyzing how the benefits of food aid interventions can be effectively targeted to both men and women and used to promote gender equality
- Anticipating any negative impacts interventions may have on women or men, or on gender relationships

Challenges of incorporating a gender perspective in different settings

In some of the settings in which WFP/VAM operates, gender disparities are obvious and inform and shape everyday life. In these settings, the challenge is to bring a gender perspective to the analysis of food security and vulnerability, while respecting local culture.

In other settings, gender disparities are more subtle. The challenge in these settings is designing studies that are sensitive enough to capture less obvious differences between genders, inequity in gender relations, and the relationship of these factors to food security and vulnerability.

Finally, applying a gender perspective to WFP/VAM food security and vulnerability studies demands that a gender sensitive approach be taken during research design, data collection, data analysis, and, ultimately, program planning. This requires an explicit sensitivity to the varying needs of men and women, including making an effort to include men and women in all stages of the research and

sensitizing enumerators and other research team members to gender issues relevant to the context in which a study is being conducted (see Section II).

1.2 Gender analysis frameworks

Several existing conceptual frameworks provide examples of how a gender perspective can be applied to studies of food security and vulnerability.

¹ The WFP Gender Glossary provides definitions for all relevant terms used in the context of gender and gender analysis: <http://home.wfp.org/gender/genderglossary/>.

1.2.1 - DFID Gender analysis framework

DFID² has developed a gender analysis framework that describes the key issues to consider for four areas of enquiry: gender roles, assets and livelihoods, power and decision-making and needs analysis.

Roles and responsibilities:

- What do men and women do?
- Where (location/patterns of mobility)?
- When (daily and seasonal patterns)?
- Productive roles (paid work, self-employment, and subsistence production)
- Reproductive roles (domestic work, child care and care of the sick and elderly)
- Community participation/self-help (voluntary work for the benefit of the community as a whole)
- Community politics (decision-making/representation on behalf of the community as a whole)

Assets:

- What livelihood assets/opportunities do men and women have access to and control over?
- What constraints do they face?
- Human assets (e.g. health services, education)
- Natural assets (e.g. land, natural resources)
- Social assets (e.g. social networks)
- Physical assets (e.g. infrastructure)
- Economic assets (e.g. capital/income, credit)

Power and decision-making

- What decision-making do men/women participate in?
- What decision-making do men/women usually control
- What constraints do they face?
- Household level (e.g. expenditure decisions, use of savings)
- Community level (e.g. decisions on the management of community water supplies)

Needs and priorities:

- What are women's and men's needs and priorities?
- What perspectives do they have on appropriate and sustainable ways of addressing their needs?
- "Practical" gender needs (e.g. in the context of the existing gender roles and resources, such as a more convenient water point to save women time and energy)
- "Strategic" gender needs (i.e. requiring changes to existing gender roles and resources to create greater equality of opportunity and benefit)

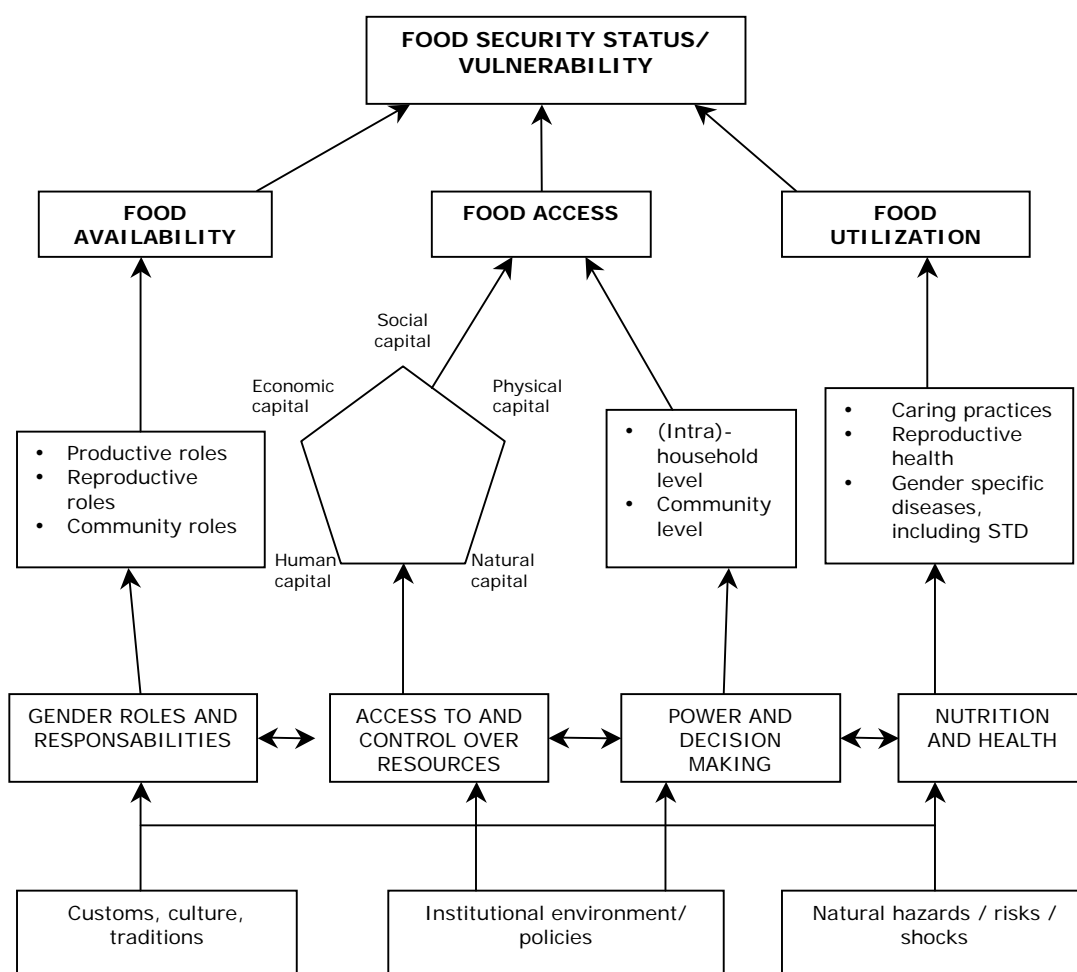
1.2.1 Gender analysis integrated in WFP/VAM food security framework

Figure 2 illustrates how the components found in the DFID framework can be incorporated into the existing framework for food security used by WFP/VAM (and others)³. Specifically, the framework outlines how the issues raised in the DFID framework affect the three components of food security: food availability, food access, and food utilization.

² DFID Infrastructure Department

³ See Household Food Security Profiles guidelines for a more detailed discussion of the food security framework used by WFP/VAM.

Figure 2 - Gender within the food security framework



1.3 - Gender Sensitive Indicators⁴

Gender sensitive indicators used in food security and vulnerability studies have the function of identifying gender-related differences and inequalities within a given population. These indicators compare the situation of males to that of females, and depict the relative advantage/disadvantage of one gender in comparison to the other. Gender-sensitive indicators measured over time can also demonstrate variable changes in outcomes for each gender, as well as changes in gender relations and progress in reducing gender inequalities.

An illustrative list of generic, quantitative indicators that can be used to incorporate gender analysis into food security and vulnerability studies is provided in Table 1. Examples of their application in developing specific indicators are also provided (right hand column). These indicators provide a useful tool for ensuring that sex-disaggregated quantitative data are generated during primary data collection exercises and allow for gender analysis to be incorporated into the overall food security and vulnerability analysis (the issue of analysis is taken up in detail in Section IV).

⁴ See also CIDA: Guide to Gender-Sensitive Indicators. Quebec 1997, 9-13.

Table 2 - Gender-sensitive indicators

Indicator	Formula	Interpretation	Example
Female share of a total	$\frac{\#(females)}{\#(females + males)} * 100$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 50% indicates gender equality. • < 50%, females are underrepresented, • > 50% males are underrepresented 	Share of women participating in political meetings at the community level
Ratio between females and males	$\frac{\#(females)}{\#(males)}$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • "1" indicates gender equality • The closer to "0" the more females are underrepresented, • Values > 1 indicate that males are underrepresented. 	The ratio between girls' and boys' school enrolment rates (x girls per 1 boy)
Female characteristic as percentage of male characteristic	$\frac{mean\ female\ characteristic * 100}{mean\ male\ characteristic}$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 100% indicates gender equality • The closer to 0% the more females are disadvantaged compared to males, • Values > 100% indicate that males are disadvantaged. 	Average earnings of women as percentage of average earnings of men
Gender gap (% difference between # of females and males versus the total # of males in the same population)	$\frac{(\#males - \#females) * 100}{\#males}$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 0% indicates gender equality • The closer to 100% the more females are "disadvantaged", • Values below 0% indicate that females are "advantaged" 	Differences in school enrolment between boys and girls. Differences in access to (or control over) productive assets between men and women

1.4 - Gender analysis using secondary data sources

WFP/VAM has made a commitment to the use of secondary data sources (e.g. pre-existing data sources) in its food security and vulnerability studies as a means of reducing costs/resources and avoiding duplication of efforts. Several data sources produced by UNDP provide aggregate data on gender and development.

Annual Human Development Reports (HDRs) produced by UNDP provide a general overview on the status of gender equality across countries and regions at the national level. Since 1995 the Human Development Index (HDI), also produced by UNDP, has also been complemented by the gender-related development index (GDI) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM). The GDI compares women's and men's life expectancy, educational attainment and income, while the GEM concentrates on gender differences in income, access to jobs classified as professional and technical and administrative and managerial, and the percentage of parliamentary seats held by women and men.⁵

Some National Human Development Reports (NHDRs) produced by UNDP country offices also provide GDI and GEM information at the sub-national levels.⁶ These composite indices provide a useful source of secondary data that are often useful as a complement primary data collection exercises. Increasingly, data and reports produced by NGOs, governments, and other partner agencies are incorporating gender issues and yielding gender disaggregated data. Although the data quality and utility vary substantially from source to source, WFP/VAM studies should seek to identify and take advantage of these existing sources where they are timely, have appropriate coverage/aggregations of data, and adhere to accepted data collection methods and techniques (e.g. sampling, etc.)

⁵ For more information see, http://hdr.undp.org/docs/statistics/indices/technote_1.pdf and http://hdr.undp.org/reports/global/1995/en/pdf/hdr_1995_ch3.pdf.

⁶ National Human Development Reports can be accessed on the following website: <http://hdr.undp.org/nhdr/>.

Additional sources of secondary data can be found on the following agency websites:

1. Population data:

Census information websites:

www.un.org/Depts/unsd/demog/cendate/index.html

www.census.gov/ipc/www/cendates

- *Actual population data best found in-country*

2. Global datasets are available at UN and World Bank:

<http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/products/dyb/dyb2.htm>

<http://home.developmentgateway.org/DataStatistics>

- *But usually more data can be found on governmental statistical sites.*

3. Data on food security access – income and expenditure surveys

- World Bank www.worldbank.org
- Asian Development Bank <http://www.adb.org/Statistics/default.asp>
- African Development Bank <http://www.afdb.org/en/statistics>
- Inter-American Development Bank <http://www.iadb.org/>
- UNDP Human Development Reports www.undp.org/hdr
- National statistics bureaux

4. Data on utilization (health and nutrition)

- Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) www.measuredhs.com
- Multi-Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) www.childinfo.org
- UNICEF www.unicef.org
- World Health Organization www.who.int/en
- UNAIDS www.unaids.org
- National Ministries of Health
- NGO and INGO partners in-country

Section II - Gender sensitive survey design and implementation

As indicated previously (Section 1.1), applying a gender perspective to WFP/VAM food security and vulnerability studies demands that a gender sensitive approach be taken during research design, data collection, data analysis, and, ultimately, program planning. This requires an explicit sensitivity to the varying needs of men and women, including making an effort to include men and women in all stages of the research and sensitizing enumerators and other research team members to gender issues relevant to the context in which a study is being conducted.

2.1 - Study preparation

Prior to primary data collection, a literature review and secondary data analysis is often used to identify existing information that can be used to supplement and complement primary data collection and identify key issues identified by previous studies that can be incorporated into the current study.

The literature review is used to examine the food security policy context and institutional environment and to produce a summary of the nature and dimensions of food security and vulnerable populations within a given country or region. The literature review can also be used to identify factors that shape gender relations, such as cultural beliefs, values and practices, religion, education, politics, legislation, economic situation and demographic factors. Generating this type of broad overview prior to primary data collection provides a much needed contextual background for tailoring generic data collection tools and designing gender-sensitive questionnaires that are appropriate for use in primary data collection in a particular setting.

As indicated earlier, secondary data sources should be used to supplement or complement primary data collection for all WFP/VAM studies. In addition to the UNDP data sources mentioned in Section 1.4, Demographics and Health Surveys (DHS), Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS), and a variety of other national and regional survey data may be available for the country under study. To the extent possible an effort should be made to identify sources of gender-disaggregated data for various sectors such as demography, health, education, and employment. Where secondary sources do not provide this information, information gaps, including the lack of gender-disaggregated data, should be identified. To the extent possible these gaps should then be addressed during primary data collection.

2.2 - Selection of survey teams, composition and training

When interviewing candidates for the overall coordination of a VAM study, questions should be asked that help identify the candidate's attitude concerning gender and gender equality. Preference should be given to candidates who not only possess specific skills and experience relevant to the study, but also show a positive attitude towards the advancement of gender equality. Although members of field teams do not need to have a technical background in gender analysis per se, it is crucial that enumerators are sensitized to the importance and rationale behind collecting sex-disaggregated data and phrasing questions in a way that allows for an analysis of the relationship between gender, food security and vulnerability. This is even more important for facilitators applying qualitative tools such as focus group discussions (FGDs) and participatory rural appraisal techniques (PRA). Hence, a basic understanding of gender issues should be incorporated into enumerator training prior to the data collection phase. If the study is to be carried out in cooperation with implementing partners or Government counterparts, their knowledge on operational and methodological aspects of applying a gender perspective should be assessed. Where general awareness is low, training prior to data collection may be required.

2.2.1 - Gender balanced research teams

Having both men and women as enumerators/facilitators can improve data quality, particularly where community discussions (FGDs, PRAs, key informants) are being used and/or gender-related topics will be discussed. In many settings, male and female respondents also react and respond differently to same sex and different sex enumerators. This suggests that for household surveys, a balanced mixture of male and female

enumerators will minimize the extent to which bias is introduced due to enumerator gender. Where group discussions are to be held separately for men and women, same sex discussion facilitators are likely to contribute to a relaxed and open discussion. Finally, having both men and women on the research team, including management positions, sends a clear message to the communities and partners WFP works with that our commitment to gender is equally applicable to WFP.

2.3 - Study design

Food security and vulnerability studies that wish to integrate gender analyses are best served by a combination of qualitative and quantitative data that are collected at multiple aggregations: household, community, and district (or other administrative unit) level. The most commonly used methodologies used in collected quantitative and qualitative data at these aggregations during VAM studies are:

- Household surveys – primarily aimed at generating quantitative data, but may also include limited qualitative data collection.
- Community discussions or interviews - primarily aimed at collecting qualitative data through key-informant interviews, community interviews, focus group discussions (FGDs) and other participatory rural appraisal (PRA) techniques.
- Discussion or interviews with local (district) authorities – primarily aimed at collecting qualitative data through key informant interviews.

Collecting different types of data (qualitative/quantitative) at various aggregates (household, community, district) allows information gained from each source to be verified and triangulated. This approach also ensures that data that are unique to each source/level are captured. Furthermore, data collection from each source may be staggered so that information from one source can be used to improve the data collection tools used when collecting data from other sources. For example, information gained during qualitative data collection at the community level may inform the household survey, ensuring that key aspects concerning gender in the local context are incorporated into the household questionnaire.

2.3.1 - Household surveys

Household surveys are necessary for quantifying existing gender gaps and the varying degrees of vulnerabilities of women and men in a given population based on a sample from that population. Household surveys normally employ structured interviews with closed-ended questions and are aimed at assessing food availability and access to food through purchase, production, exchange/barter, gifts or food aid, food consumption levels and additional information on household demography, education, health, migration and displacement, livelihood activities, expenditures and other factors presumed to have a relationship with food security and vulnerability. If combined with probability sampling methods, these surveys yield data that can be converted into quantitative indicators that in turn can be used to describe the population with known and definable degrees of error.

In each questionnaire sex, age and relationship to the household head (see 3.1) of the main respondent should be indicated to be able to determine possible biases introduced during the data collection process (e.g. only male or only female respondents). This will also assist with the identification of different perceptions of men, women and age groups during analysis. The type of household (female/male single headed, widow/widower headed, children-headed, polygamous) should also be captured by survey tool to allow for analyses comparing the variable outcomes among each of these household types.

To the extent possible, all questions concerning food security and vulnerability that are included in household surveys should be designed in such a way to differentiate between the experiences of women and men (girls and boys) where applicable. Doing so provides some valuable information about intra-household differences that can be masked by surveys that treat households as a single, homogenous unit. Specific information needs, tools and example questionnaires that can be used during household surveys are presented in Section III.

Quantitative indicators produced by household survey data can be used to measure the existence or depth of gender inequalities related to food security and vulnerability. These data may provide some insights into the causes of these inequalities (to the extent appropriate questions are included in the household survey).

2.3.2 - Community discussions or interviews

Discussions or interviews with community members (FGDs, community questionnaires, key informant interviews, and other PRA techniques) provide an opportunity to explore male-female relationships and the relationship between food security, vulnerability, gender relationships and existing inequalities and gaps. The qualitative data generated provides key insights for understanding the underlying causes and reasons for inequalities identified during household surveys and allows for further elaboration of the causal mechanisms suggested by quantitative data.

The collection of community data is most effective when discussions (regardless of the particular technique employed) are held separately with sub-groups within the community. Although sub-groups may be defined using a number of criteria (wealth groups, livelihoods, age groups, etc.), holding separate discussions with men and women provides an opportunity for different voices and perspective to be heard. This approach is particularly important where gender disparities are likely to affect the willingness of men and women to participate equally and express themselves in joint discussions. Even in settings where joint male/female discussions are appropriate, facilitators must remain alert to ensure both men and women actively participate, are heard, and able to express themselves freely.

Examples of gender-sensitive qualitative methodologies, including descriptions of FGDs, key informant interviews, and various PRA techniques, are provided in Section III.

2.3.3 - Discussions or interviews with local authorities

District level data captured through key informant interviews with district authorities will yield qualitative data about the perceptions and opinions of government officials. These meetings may also be used to identify secondary sources of quantitative and qualitative data at the district level.

Key informants at the district level usually include district authorities, politicians, professionals and representatives of civil society. They are often exclusively men, which may lead to perception biases. It is therefore important to include knowledgeable women in the list of persons to be used as key informants. Women's organization or women's affairs offices often provide suitable candidates.

Findings from key informant interviews with district authorities should be cross-checked in the analysis with the information collected at lower administrative levels (community and household) to assess whether the empirical reality at the community and household level is openly acknowledged by decision makers. Discrepancies between the perceptions of authorities and the reality at the household and community levels are themselves important findings, allowing for an assessment of whether awareness of gender-related differences and inequalities exist among key decision-makers.

2.4 - Sampling

For household surveys employing probability sampling methods, selection based on gender or gender of the head of household could be inappropriate and may introduce bias into the results, unless gender is used as a criterion for stratifying the sample⁷. However, as indicated in Section 2.3.2, purposively sampling by gender or stratifying a sample by gender (selecting separate samples of men and women) is appropriate when selecting participants for inclusion in focus group discussions and other community data collection exercises.

⁷ See WFP/VAM Sampling Guidelines for a detailed discussion of sampling and stratification strategies.

2.5 - Timing of fieldwork

Appropriate timing is crucial for ensuring that women and men are able to participate as respondents in all types of data collection exercises. Although communities are busy throughout the year, there may be periods when their workload is slightly less burdensome. Similarly, the availability of community and household members is influenced by the daily pattern of agricultural work, income generating and household activities of men and women. For example, women may not be able to attend meetings during evening hours due to domestic responsibilities. Also special events such as market days, public holidays, social festivals and election campaigns should be taking into account when scheduling fieldwork.

Section III - Gender sensitive data collection methods/tools

This section illustrates how methods, tools and instruments that are commonly used in VAM studies can be modified to generate gender disaggregated data and explore the relationship between food insecurity, vulnerabilities, and gender inequalities. The proposed tools are presented in a generic format, meaning that they must be adjusted to the context and local conditions where the study is being conducted.

3.1 - Household surveys

The following table provides definitions that are used in the successive modules which contain information needs for integrating a gender perspective into VAM household surveys. The modules are those typically included in VAM household surveys and provide a description and rationale for disaggregating information by gender in each category.

<p>A household is a group of people who constitute a consumption unit. At least once a day they share a meal from a common pot (local context should be used). A household is not a homogeneous decision-making unit. Members have individual, productive and entrepreneurial roles. Often there are gender-based claims on household resources and outputs for the satisfaction of basic needs.</p> <p>The head of the household is usually the main income earner and/or decision-maker in the household.</p> <p>A nuclear family is a group consisting of parents and their children (biological and/or adoptive).</p> <p>An extended family is a household comprised not only of parents and children, but also of relatives such as grandparents, aunts, uncles and cousins living in the same house or compound.</p> <p>A polygamous household is one in which a person (usually a man) has more than one spouse simultaneously.</p> <p>Access refers to women and men's opportunities to obtain or use resources (food, credit, technology, etc.), or services (education, health, etc.).</p> <p>Control refers to the capacity to make decisions over a resource or situation, usually through ownership or seniority.</p> <p>Productive work produces goods and services for consumption by the household or for income.</p> <p>Reproductive work involves the bearing and rearing of children and all the tasks associated with domestic work and the maintenance of all household members. These tasks include cooking, washing clothes, cleaning, collecting water and fuel, caring for the sick and elderly. These activities are usually unpaid.</p> <p>Community management role includes provisioning and maintenance of resources which are used by everyone, such as water, healthcare, education. These activities are normally unpaid and carried out in the free time of people.</p> <p>Community politics role comprises political activities at the community level.</p> <p>Gender gap is the disparity (measured quantitatively) between women and men, and girls and boys, in their access to resources, education, health, services or power.</p> <p>Non-erosive coping includes insurance mechanisms, in other words risk minimizing and loss management practices such as changes in cropping and planting practices, collection of wild fruits, migration etc.</p> <p>Erosive coping is the disposal of productive assets including reproductive livestock, agricultural tools, etc.</p> <p>Non-coping or destitution comprises distress migration or displacement, prostitution</p> <p>Practical gender needs are related to the traditional roles that women, men and children play in society. Activities which address the practical needs of women include: a) reducing their workload; b) improving their health; and c) increasing their incomes, among others</p> <p>Strategic gender needs question the traditional roles that women and men play in society. They are responses to inequalities in decision-making positions and long-term benefits</p>

Respondent information

Information requested	Description/Rationale
Sex, age and relationship to the head of household of the main respondent	This represents an easy way to collect sex-disaggregated information. In this way, all the information collected can be triangulated and associated with the sex and age of the respondent

Module 1 – Household demography

Information requested	Description/Rationale
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sex and age of the head of the household 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is important to record the age of the household head, for example in some cases, the number of <i>de facto</i> female-headed households can be underestimated (for example a male child is indicated as household head)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Type of household: male household head with spouse, nuclear, extended, polygamous, single female-headed/single male-headed, child-headed (applicable boxes should be marked) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Certain types of households are often perceived to be more vulnerable than others. By collecting precise data on household type this hypothesis can be verified and their prevalence in can be estimated
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reasons for single headed households: single mother, widow/er, spouse migrated permanently, spouse migrated temporarily, separated/divorced, wife within a polygamous family 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Female headed households are often more vulnerable than male headed households, however their degree of vulnerability varies depending on reasons why they are considered single-headed. Also male single headed households should be taken into consideration
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In cases of polygamous families, age of the woman interviewed and husband, total number of all wives. Indicate if she was the first, second, third, forth... wife who got married to the same husband 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The status and decision-making power of wives in polygamous families is likely to vary according to how many other women are present in the family, age difference her and her husband, and if she was the first, second, third, fourth.....wife
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The sex and age of each household member, and the presence and number of pregnant and lactating women, should be recorded as well as the number of males and females by age that can write and read. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The composition of household is important for many indicators, for example dependency ratio or child pregnancies.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> If individual data is requested for each household member (e.g. education level, migration status, health status etc.) it is important to note down the sex of each person listed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This type of information is very detailed, however, a separate database on individual level has to be created

Module 2: Migration/displacement

Information requested	Description/Rationale
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> For each individual migrant: sex, age, destination, length of period away, reasons for migration (labour, education, health, security etc.), sending remittances yes/no 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Migration can have major impacts on gender relations, workloads, responsibilities for the left family members in the home community especially if one sex is more prone to search for work elsewhere. If migrant remits money this can have a positive impact on economic welfare of family left behind and also is an indication that family ties are still intact.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Numbers and sex of household members displaced, reasons for displacement Numbers and sex of resettled household members 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This information helps to assess gender-related displacement is taking place/took place in a community

Module 3: Household assets and land ownership

Information requested	Description/Rationale
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Access to and control of over various household and farming assets: bed, table, bicycle, hoe, axe, radio, etc. Use codes for household members: 1= men only, 2=women, 3=both women and men. • Access to/control over livestock: cattle, oxen, goats, sheep, poultry etc. Use codes listed above • Access to and control over land for cultivation, vegetable gardens, orchids, etc. Use codes listed above. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is important to distinguish between "use of" and "control over" a resource. Often women have access to land, seeds and/or credit, but do not have the decision-making power over that resource, or title to ownerships.

Module 4: Income sources

Information requested	Description/Rationale
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • List all sources of household incomes and indicate who participates. Use pre-prepared activity codes for household members: 1= men only, 2=women, 3=both women and men, 4=boys, 5=girls, 6=both boys and girls, 7=men and boys, 8=women and girls, 9=everybody, 10=nobody 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It should be acknowledged who contributes with which activity to the household income, this can also be an indication for the skill level women and men have obtained
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation of women in income generating activities inside their homes, inside their villages and outside their villages 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In sex-segregated societies it is important to assess if and where women are able to contribute to the household income. This is a sign for their mobility outside their homes. It could also be an indication for the vulnerability of a household when women are "forced" to work outside their homes where cultural constraints exist

Module 5: Activity profiles/division of labour

Information requested	Description/Rationale
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • List productive, reproductive and community related activities and indicate who participates. Use pre-prepared activity codes for household members: 1= men only, 2=women, 3=both women and men, 4=boys, 5=girls, 6=both boys and girls, 7=men and boys, 8=women and girls, 9=everybody, 10=nobody 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This activity profile helps to understand workloads and multiplicities of roles played by different members of the household. It makes the productive role visible that women play in families and also provides indication if men share domestic activities.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Time allocation in hours of family members (by age and gender) in activities such as subsistence agriculture, cash crop production, domestic work and care taking, collecting firewood and water, wage labour, community work, as well as leisure/free time. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This data facilitates comparisons between workloads and physical activity levels of women and men. It can provide information about the energy requirements and who in the family is in need of extra food, who works more in terms of hours, who does the physically hardest work, who has the most leisure time.

Module 6: Education (formal and informal)

Information requested	Description/Rationale
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> For both GIRLS and BOYS, the number in the family between 6 and 14, how many of those attend primary school, reasons for not attending school, by gender. For both GIRLS and BOYS, the number in the family between 15 and 18, how many of those attend secondary school, and reasons for not attending school. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> With these information proxies for school attendance rates and gender gaps can be calculated. Further gender-specific reason for non-attendance can be analyzed
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number of men over 14 in the household, and how many can read and write Number of women over 14 in the household, and how many can write and read 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Literacy rates and gender gaps can be calculated
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Access to informal training and extension programmes can be analyzed by gender 	

Module 7: Access to markets and health services

Information requested	Description/Rationale
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Distance to and time required to reach the nearest permanent market, name family members who regularly visit this market (code) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> This information is a proxy for mobility of different household members
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Distance to and time required to reach the nearest basic health centre/traditional healer/doctor/hospital, name family members who have access to these services (code) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Access to health services can be analyzed by gender

Module 8: Food consumption

Information requested	Description/Rationale
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number of meals eaten yesterday (or on a typical day) by men, women, boys and girls (< 15 years) in the family Sequence of family members eating food using codes: 1=men, 2=women, 3=both men and women, 4=boys, 5=girls, 6=both boys and girls, 8=men and boys, 9. women and girls, 10=all together. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The intra-household food consumption is an important factor. There are some cultural rules which govern which members receive food first and in which types. For example, in some societies women eat last after children and men. In addition, foods such as meat are often reserved for men only.

Module 9: Health and nutrition

Information requested	Description/Rationale
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Current breastfeeding status by age and gender; Duration of breastfeeding by gender. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breastfeeding and weaning practices can have life-long impacts on the health of children, in some societies girls are disadvantaged.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Prevalence of malnutrition (wasting, underweight, stunting) by gender 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It is very important to investigate gender differences (by age groups) of the various manifestations of malnutrition.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Age of mothers in the household, their age when they first gave birth, number of pregnancies and number of living children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Indicators for reproductive health and ability of women to decide when and how many children they have
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Availability of reproductive health services (clinic, TBA) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Access to reproductive health facilities

Information requested	Description/Rationale
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Awareness of HIV & AIDS, communication channel, knowledge of different types of preventive measures. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> If data is stratified by sex of respondent, differences in awareness levels of women and men can be noted. Generally HIV & AIDS has many implications on gender-relationships.

Module 10: Risks and coping strategies

Information requested	Description/Rationale
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Existence of different types of security problems (e.g. land mines, violence, fighting, petty crime etc.) name family members who are mostly affected using pre-prepared activity codes and codes for household members, where applicable. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Although both women and men are affected by violence or security issues, often men and women are targeted for different reasons. For example women are particularly vulnerable to physical attacks and sexual harassment when they have to walk long distances to collect water or firewood or in situations of displacement. Men and boys might be vulnerable to forced conscription or be physically attacked because of their affiliation to certain political or social groups.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> List different types of coping mechanisms (non-erosive coping, erosive coping and non-coping) and indicate who is actively involved, who benefits and who is negatively impacted using codes for household members where applicable. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Men and women have different resources available to them and often will use different strategies to manage external shocks. In general men have greater control over resources and greater mobility and thus more options. Female headed households are likely to have fewer options available with some women resorting even to prostitution. Other factors influencing coping capacity are wealth, age, and education level.

Module 11: Decision making

Information requested	Description/Rationale
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Participation of different household members on expenditures for food and non-food items: health, education, productive assets, social obligations, alcohol, etc. Participation of different household members on productive investments and savings using codes for household members. Decision making on children's education, selection of partners for marriage (when applicable), size of family using codes for household members. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To gain a better understanding of intra-household decision making processes and resource allocations
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Participation in political meetings at the community level, using codes for household members. Participation in different types of organizations and clubs (e.g. agricultural-, credit, women-, youth-, church groups) Use codes for which household members participate 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To determine to what extent are women, men and adolescents politically/socially active in their communities, what is their level of organizational capacity

Module 12: Constraints and intervention preferences

Information requested	Description/Rationale
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> List constraints/problems/needs and ask one man and one woman of the household to rank those ones which are relevant to them (ideally interview the household head and spouse separately) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Women and men play different roles, have differential access to and control over resources and face different types of constraint, and have different needs and priorities. When planning interventions, it is often assumed that household members have the same needs and women's needs are often not expressed. A more in-depth analysis distinguishes between practical/ strategic gender needs
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> List intervention options (e.g. health, education, infrastructure, etc., or FFE, FFT, FFW, MCH, etc. depending on context) and ask women and men, if possible separately, which three they would prefer in order of importance 	

3.2 - Community discussions

There are a variety of methods, tools and techniques to choose from when interviewing community leaders, community members, or groups of community members. The choice of a particular method, tool or technique will depend on objectives and scope of the study (e.g. different methods are better suited to collecting different types of information), time availability, financial constraints and the capacity of team members.

Although a detailed discussion of each of the possible methods, tools, and techniques and their relative strengths and weaknesses is beyond the scope of these guidelines (see WFP's guide on Participatory Techniques and Tools), this section provides an overview and examples of the most common methods used in VAM studies: key informant interviews, community questionnaire, focus group discussions (FGDs) and a selected number of participatory (rural) appraisal techniques (PRA). The discussion focuses on how a gender perspective can be integrated into each of these approaches. The information on key informants is equally applicable to community key informants (see 2.3.2) and key informants who are local authorities (see 2.3.3)

3.2.1 - Key informant interviews

Key informant interviews are aimed at obtaining information from community residents who are in a position to 'know the community' well. The person or persons selected to be key informants are selected purposively on the basis that they have broad knowledge of the community, its services, and its people or a unique perspective on these issues to offer. Key informants are especially useful for obtaining an overview of community assets, services, social structures, customs, problems, constraints and important events. Key informants should be able to offer an informed view based upon their knowledge, experience and perspective. Semi-structured interviews employing an interview guide or open ended questions are normally used to guide the discussion.

Because key informants offer inherently subjective information, it is important to interview a diverse mix of informants and compare the findings between them. Community leaders, community group leaders, health personnel, teachers, religious leaders often serve as valuable key informants. However, from a gender perspective, it must be ensured that both female and male key informants are interviewed. In addition to information gained from these interviews, separately discussing key issues with community leaders reduces their opportunity to dominate discussions with community members. Therefore, concurrent timing of key informant interviews and community FGDs allows maximizes the diversity of opinions to be heard.

Table 4 includes a list of questions that can be incorporated into key informant interview guides or semi-structured questionnaires to ensure that a gender perspective is incorporated (see 3.2.2 for a description of the table)

3.2.2 - Focus group discussions (FGDs)

Focus group discussions provide an effective means of assessing perceptions and opinions of community members on a variety of topics related to food security and vulnerability, including the role of gender in each topic. As discussed in 2.3.2, FGD's are most effective

when discussions are held separately with sub-groups within the community. Although sub-groups may be defined using a number of criteria (wealth groups, livelihoods, age groups, etc.), holding separate discussions with men and women within each group defined by one or more criteria provides an opportunity for different voices and perspective to be heard⁸. This approach is particularly important where gender disparities are likely to affect the willingness of men and women to participate equally and express themselves in joint discussions. Even in settings where joint male/female discussions are appropriate, facilitators must remain alert to ensure both men and women actively participate, are heard, and able to express themselves freely.

Each focus group discussion usually involves between 6 and 8 individuals or respondents per community discussion. One research team member serves as the facilitator, stimulating discussion, focussing it on the issues listed in a written interview guide and ensuring that all respondents participate actively. Another research team member serves as a note-taker, freeing the facilitator to focus on the discussion at hand. A structured or semi-structured interview guide should be used to maximize the degree to which the discussions held with different groups can be compared. It is also important to keep in mind that the goal is not only to get answers to issues listed on the interview guide, but to spur discussion between community members about these issues. Sometimes this generates a consensus of opinion. Other times community members disagree. Both are informative.

The following tables include questions that can be incorporated into FGD interview guides or semi-structured questionnaires to ensure that a gender perspective is incorporated. The questions are sub-divided by themes. Although these or similar questions can be incorporated into either FGDs or key informant interviews, the left column indicates which of these methods is particularly well suited to the type of questions being asked

• *Livelihoods/employment*

Method	Questions	Comments
Key informant or Focus Group Discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are the major economic activities and which groups are mainly involved? • Who is involved in agricultural labour, when, which activity? • What are the wage labour opportunities for men in this community? What are the wage labour opportunities for women in this community? What do women/men, girls/boys usually earn per hour? • How long does it take to collect water? Who is responsible for it? What are the constraints? • What are the different reproductive work activities (see 3.1) and who is responsible for each? • Are women and/or men constrained by security issues? If so, in which ways? 	Alternatively, the seasonal calendar tool differentiated by gender and age could be applied (see Section 4.2.2)

⁸ It is important to use multiple criteria in defining groups for discussion, combining gender with at least one more criterion related to the topic under study (livelihoods, wealth groups, age groups).

• *Land ownership and inheritance practices*

Method	Questions	Comments
Key informant	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can both men and women access land? • Can both men and women own land? • Who owns the land in polygamous families? • Can both men and women inherit the land? • When a couple separates, is the woman entitled to keep family assets (i.e. land)? • When the husband passes away, can the wife maintain access to land for cultivation? • When the husband passes away in a polygamous family who maintains access to agriculture land? 	Often, land title and tenure tend to be vested in men, either by official law or by customary/traditional law. Usually women farm smaller and more dispersed plots and land-shortage is common among women. Especially single female headed households are vulnerable, if women are not entitled to cultivate or own land

• *Access to markets, credit and services*

Method	Questions	Comments
Key informant or FGD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do both men and women of the community regularly visit markets? If not, why? • Who buys and who sells which types of products? 	Women are often less mobile than men, both because of their child care and household responsibilities and socio-cultural norms that limit their access to public space
Key informant	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can women and men access credit? • If yes, do they pay the same interest rates? 	Due to education and mobility, social and cultural barriers and collateral requirements they cannot fulfil (such as lack of land titles), women may have less access to formal financial services.
Key informant	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do women and men have access to extension/veterinarian services? 	Women farmers may have less contact with extension services than men, especially in segregated societies.

• *Education*

Method	Questions	Comments
Key informant or Focus Group Discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By gender, how many children of primary school age are enrolled and attending? • What are the different reasons why boys and girls are not enrolled and attending school? • By gender, how many children of secondary school age are enrolled and attending? • What are the different reasons why boys and girls are not enrolled and attending secondary school? 	Helps to identify communities or instances where there are differences in enrolment by gender. Often girls that were enrolled in primary school are then taken out of school when they are older, due to cultural or economic reasons.

• *Nutrition and health*

Method	Questions	Comments
Key informant or FGD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Which are the diseases/illnesses that affect women? Which diseases affect men? • Which diseases affect girls/boys/children? 	This is especially important where HIV is prevalent.
Key informant Focus group	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are there differences in accessibility to health care services? • Which people/groups cannot access them and what are the reasons? 	Women may be restricted in their movements and thus do not receive proper antenatal care from professionals during pregnancy.
Key informant or FGD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are there dietary restrictions applied to pregnant and lactating women due to cultural taboos? 	In some societies gender specific food taboos can reduce women's access to nutritionally important food sources during pregnancy.

• *Migration/displacement*

Method	Questions	Comments
Key informant or FGD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Which groups migrate most frequently (mostly men, mostly female, mixed)? If both sexes migrate are their differences in terms of destination, duration and reasons for migration? 	Migration can impact gender relations, especially if men are more prone to migrate leaving the family behind.
Key informant or FGD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Are there gender-specific reasons for displacement? (e.g. violence targeted against women or men) 	This information helps to assess whether gender-related displacement occurred in a community.
Key informant or FGD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> If communities host immigrants, refugees or IDPS, do these differ from community in terms of social structure, skill sets, education, asset ownership, intra-household and gender relationships, food consumption habits, etc? 	In dynamic situations such as displacement, it is important to try to capture change in men's and women's activities and responsibilities.
Key informant or FGD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have responsibilities of men and women changed due to displacements? 	Further, interactions between hosting and displaced communities could result in changing gender relationships in both population groups

• *Risk and vulnerability*

Method	Questions	Comments
Focus Group	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Are all members of this community equally affected by constraints/risks? And if not, what are the characteristics of those at high risk and low risk? 	This question may generate reference to groups disaggregated by sex, but also by age, ethnicity, socio-economic status, caste, or others.
Focus Group	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Do women in this community apply different risk management or coping strategies than men? 	Coping strategies present a complex issue. It is most likely that strategies applied to cope with an acute food security problem are the same for men and women while differences could be identified when referring to risk management or coping strategies to prevent or mitigate an existing problem.
Focus Group	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What are the main problems identified by men and women in this community? What are their causes and who is most affected? How are they affected? What are the consequences? What solutions have been tried so far to overcome the problem? What are the disadvantages and advantages of each solution? 	Instead of coping strategies, questions on men's and women's perception of main problems and opportunities could be used. Alternatively a set of given problems/constraints could be ranked by participants differentiated by men and women (see Section 4.2.2)

• *Intervention preferences and priorities*

Method	Questions	Comments
Focus group discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What are the preferred interventions/priorities (food and non-food) for this community? Why? 	This question should be asked separately to groups of men and women. Alternatively a ranking exercise could be carried out.

3.2.3 - Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) techniques

Participatory techniques can be used as a method unto themselves or, perhaps more commonly in VAM studies, as part of a FGD or key informant interview. These techniques allow community members to actively participate as researchers into the causes of their own food insecurity and vulnerability, rather than merely responding to a set of questions

posed to them. Not only do these techniques allow community members a more substantial role in assessing the issues they face, their active involvement in problem identification often provides unique insights into issues related to food insecurity, vulnerability, and gender that we, as external researchers⁹, simply do not see because of our own preconceptions and biases.

As with other methods discussed in these guidelines, a gender perspective must be explicitly incorporated into participatory techniques to ensure that the perspectives of men and women are included. This can be accomplished by using PRA techniques in groups separated by gender or by using techniques that ensure that both men's and women's perspectives are taken into account.

The most common PRA tools/techniques used during VAM studies are, community mapping, activity calendars, and proportional piling and ranking exercises. Table 2 provides an overview of these and other PRA tools that may also be applicable during VAM studies. A discussion of how each can be modified to incorporate a gender perspective is provided in Sections 3.2.3.1 through 3.2.3.5. For more information on each technique/tool and a comprehensive description of the range of tools available see WFP's guide on Participatory Techniques and Tools. Finally, it should be noted that several of these methods may also be applied at the household level as part of a household survey. For example, proportional piling provides an easy to use and interpret means of quantifying estimates of household expenditure.

Table 2 - Overview of PRA techniques/tools relevant to VAM studies¹⁰

Tool	Objective
Community Mapping	Indicate spatial distribution of roads, forests, water resources, institutions, can be used to identify women's and men's access to various community assets/resources and services
Activity calendars	Assess division of labour or workload of women and men in a specified period (day/month/year/season)
Mobility mapping	Understand gender differences in terms of contact of men and women with the outside world and plotting the frequency, distance, and purposes of mobility
Access and control over resources	Indicate access to and control over private, community and public resources by sex
Decision-making matrix	Understand intra-household decision-making on various topics
Income and expenditure mapping	Understand how men and women participate in the management of the household budget, which source of income are attributed to male respective female household members and who controls which type of expenditures
Trend lines	Gain insights in women's and men's perceptions of significant changes of certain factors over a specified period of time
Ranking exercises	Identify and prioritizing problems/constraints as experienced by men and women

3.2.3.1 - Community mapping exercises

Community mapping exercises are often used to "warm-up" participants and to gain basic knowledge on the spatial distribution of houses, community assets and services, natural resources, and other features that are geographically dispersed. It is often the case that knowledge of particular features in the community varies by gender. For example, if women are responsible for collecting water, they will be better informed on how far sources of water are located and how long a return trip to get water takes. In mixed groups, it may be advantageous to identify access/use of key community assets and services by identifying that as accessed primarily by males, primarily by females, or both

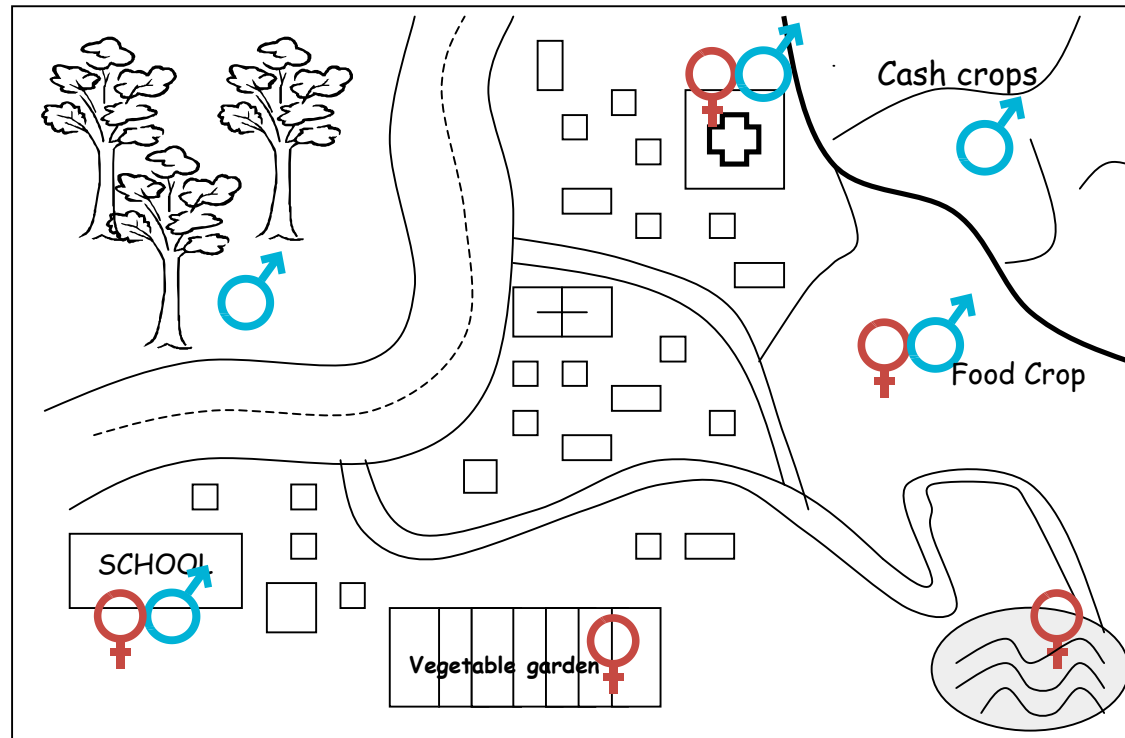
⁹ The term external here refers to anyone who is not a community member.

¹⁰ This overview and the tools described below are based on RUAF: PRA Tools for Studying Urban Agriculture and Gender, 2004.

after a comprehensive community map has been drawn. A second step may involve similar exercise to identify who has control/decision-making power over the asset or service. If security is an issue, men and women can be asked to identify where in the community security is of the biggest concern for them.

Figure 3 provides an example that illustrates access to different resources varying between female and male community members (e.g. men are responsible for income-generating cash-crops while men and women share the responsibility for cultivating food crops). The main water source is located fairly far away and has been identified as a “female” asset (e.g. females responsible for water collection). This distance has obvious implications for women’s workloads.

Figure 3 - Community asset map differentiated by gender (based on usage)



3.2.3.2 - Activity calendars

A gender-disaggregated activity calendar is a visualization of the gender (and age) division of labour during a day, month, season or year. The objective is to gain insights into the type of activities (productive, reproductive and communal) implemented by various household members during a specific time period. Seasonal activity calendars can be used to assess gender division of labour and the workloads of women and men, girls and boys by seasonality. The aim in using seasonal calendars is to gain insights into who does what and workload divisions amongst men and women to allow for more gender sensitive programming that avoids overburdening women and men. In constructing calendars, women, men and adolescents – either separated into different groups or in mixed groups – can discuss who is responsible for which activity using symbols representing different groups (Figure 4). Participants should start by drawing a chart divided by month, season or local events.

Figure 4 - Seasonal activity calendar differentiated by age and sex

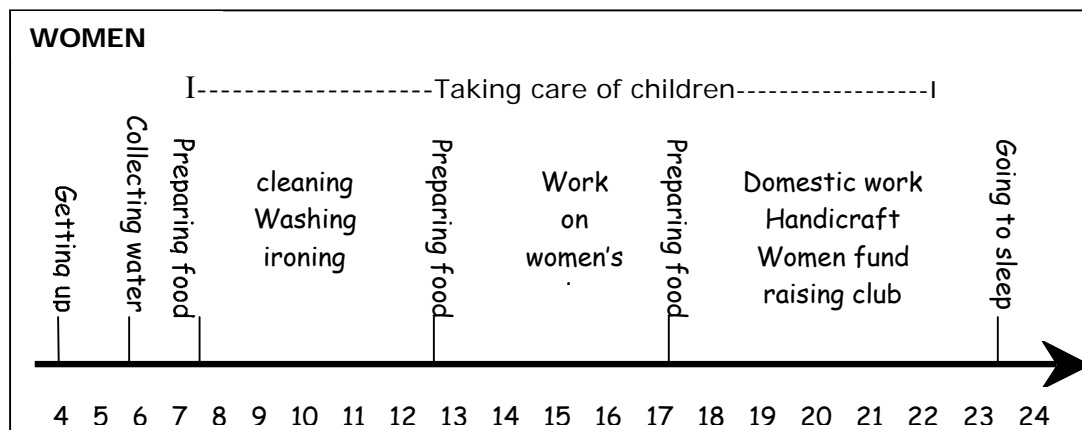
Activity	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Planting of crops												
Irrigation of crops												
Harvesting of crops												
Other farm labour												
Small livestock												
Large livestock												
Migrating for work												
Domestic work												
Care taking												
Collecting water												
Collecting firewood												
Community work												

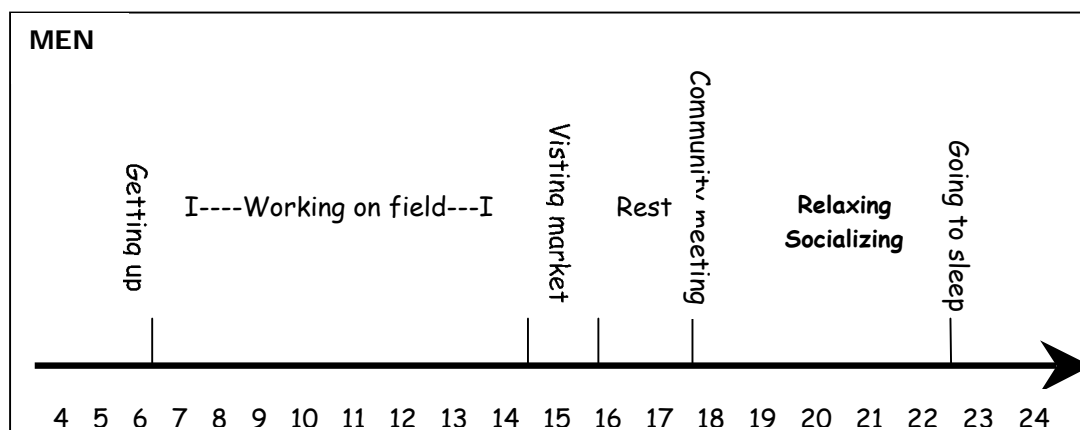
Daily activity profiles identify daily patterns of activity based on gender (e.g. division of labour on an hourly basis) and provide an easy to interpret overview of the daily workloads of men and women during a typical working day (e.g. how long they work and when they have spare time for social and development activities). For this exercise it is best to divide the group into separate groups for males, females (as well as girls and boys if present). Depending on the context, it may be appropriate to develop activity charts for different seasons (e.g. dry and wet season or agricultural cycles).

- Adult men
- Boys (<14)
- ◻ Elderly men (60+)
- Adult women
- Girls (<14)
- ◐ Elderly women (60+)
- ☀ Everybody

In Figure 5, women work longer and more fragmented hours than men do, as they are often involved in three different roles: reproductive, productive and community work. This scenario is not atypical and is often referred to as triple role or multiple burdens.

Figure 5 - Daily activity calendars differentiated by sex





3.2.3.4 - Access to and control over resources and services

This tool identifies the different assets or resources that women and men have access to and control over within a community. Access¹¹ means that a person can use and benefit from a resource, while control means that the person owns the assets with full control over how it can be used and who can access it (see Figure 6). This analysis helps to understand power relationships between women and men in a given community. The exercise can be used in a mix group as well as in separate groups (e.g. male/female). Separate groups allow for an assessment of how men and women differ in their views on who has access and control over which asset. Figure 7 is the product of a similar exercise concerning services (e.g. who has access and who has no access to various institutions and services).

Figure 6 - Access to and control of resources matrix differentiated by sex

	Access to assets/resources and services Who uses them?			Control over assets/resources over services Who decides on their use?		
	Men	Women	Men and Women	Men	Women	Men and Women
Land			X	X		
Forest			X			X
Water		X				X
Crop	X			X		
Livestock	X			X		
Money			X	X		
Work (on-farm)			X	X		
Work (off-farm)	X			X		
Food			X		X	

Figure 7 - Access to services differentiated by sex

	Access to services					
	Men	Women	Men and Women	Boys	Girls	Boys and girls
Health centre			X			X
Traditional healer			X			X
Primary school						X
Secondary school				X		
Markets			X			
Credit/loans	X					
Training		X				
Extension	X					
Development projects	X					

¹¹ See Section 3.1

3.2.3.4 - Decision-making matrix

A decision-making matrix can be created to gain a better understanding on how decision-making power is distributed between household members. It is created by listing the different issues on the vertical axis and the decisions-makers on the horizontal one. Figure 8 provides an example.

Figure 8 - Decision-making matrix differentiated by sex

Decisions	Male				Female	Comments/ explanations
		Male dominates	Equal influence	Female dominates		
Who decides what food to buy?			X			
Who decides what food to cook?					X	
Who decides which food crops to grow?		X				
Who decides which cash crops to grow?	X					
Who decides what part of harvest is sold and how?		X				
Who decides what animals products are sold and how?	X					
Who decides to buy equipment and tools	X					
Who decides to take a loan?		X				
Who decides to buy or to rent additional land?			X			
Who decides to buy more animals?		X				
Who decides the size of the family?			X			
Who decides whether a child goes to school or not?			X			
Who decides whether an ill family member goes to a health clinic/traditional healer?				X		

3.2.3.5 - Income and expenditure mapping

Income and expenditure flows of selected households are mapped in order to understand how men and women participate in the management of the household budget, which source of income are attributed to male respective female household members and who controls which type of expenditures. Each household should be represented by one woman and one man. In polygamous households, either the senior wife participates or one is chosen by the husband or other wives to represent them.

Female and male participants should be divided into two separate groups. Then participants are asked to name all common sources of income. A matrix is drawn on the ground, or on a large piece of paper, with all sources along the vertical matrix and the names of the participants along the horizontal axis. Each participant receives 50 little stones or sticks, which represent the total income for the whole household for the year. Each participants is then asked to take out as many stones that corresponds with their contribution to the total household income (income that they personally generate) and to distribute these stones in the matrix across the income sources (many stones if they contribute a lot, less stones if they contribute little, no stones if they do no make money from that particular source). Once all partners had their turn, the scores for each income source is counted and ranked. Figure 9 provides an example.

In this example men generate a higher income in all categories except for handicrafts and sales of firewood where women dominate. Men are more involved in the selling of cash crop, while both men and women engage in the selling of food crops.

The same procedure can be repeated for expenditures. Now the vertical axis represents categories of expenditures. Participants should collect that part of the 50 stones that they personally spent and to distribute these stones across the categories. This exercise provides important insights into intra-household decision-making and preferences. In the example provided in Figure 10, women are spending less and they tend to spend a higher proportion of their income on food items, education and health.

Figure 9 - Income mapping differentiated by sex

Sources of income	Man A	Man B	Man C	Men total score	Woman A	Woman B	Woman C	Women total score
Sales of food crops	○○○ ○○○ ○○	○○○	○○ ○○ ○○ ○○	21	○○○ ○○	○○○ ○○○ ○○○ ○	○○	17
Sales of cash crop	○○○ ○○○	○○○ ○○○ ○○○ ○	○○ ○○ ○○ ○○ ○○	26		○○		2
Sales of firewood					○○○ ○○○ ○○		○○○ ○○	13
Sales of livestock or animal products	○○○ ○○○ ○○○	○○○		12		○○		2
Skilled wage labour		○○○ ○○○ ○○○ ○		10				0
Unskilled wage labour	○○○ ○○			5		○○○		3
Petty trade		○○		2			○○○ ○○	5
Handicrafts					○○○		○○○ ○○	8
Remittances	○○		○○ ○○ ○○ ○○	12			○○○	3
Pension schemes			○○ ○○ ○	5				0
Total score	30	28	35	93	16	17	20	53

Another secondary exercise can be used to gauge the ability of the community to cope with shocks. Tell the participants to pretend that a severe problem/shock has arisen (drought, insecurity, etc.) and ask them to remove several stones to show how they would save money to cope with the crisis situation. Count the scores of savings per expenditure category and sex, and discuss with the participants the impacts of such crisis situations and the ways different people within the community cope with such crisis.

Figure 10 - Expenditure mapping differentiated by sex

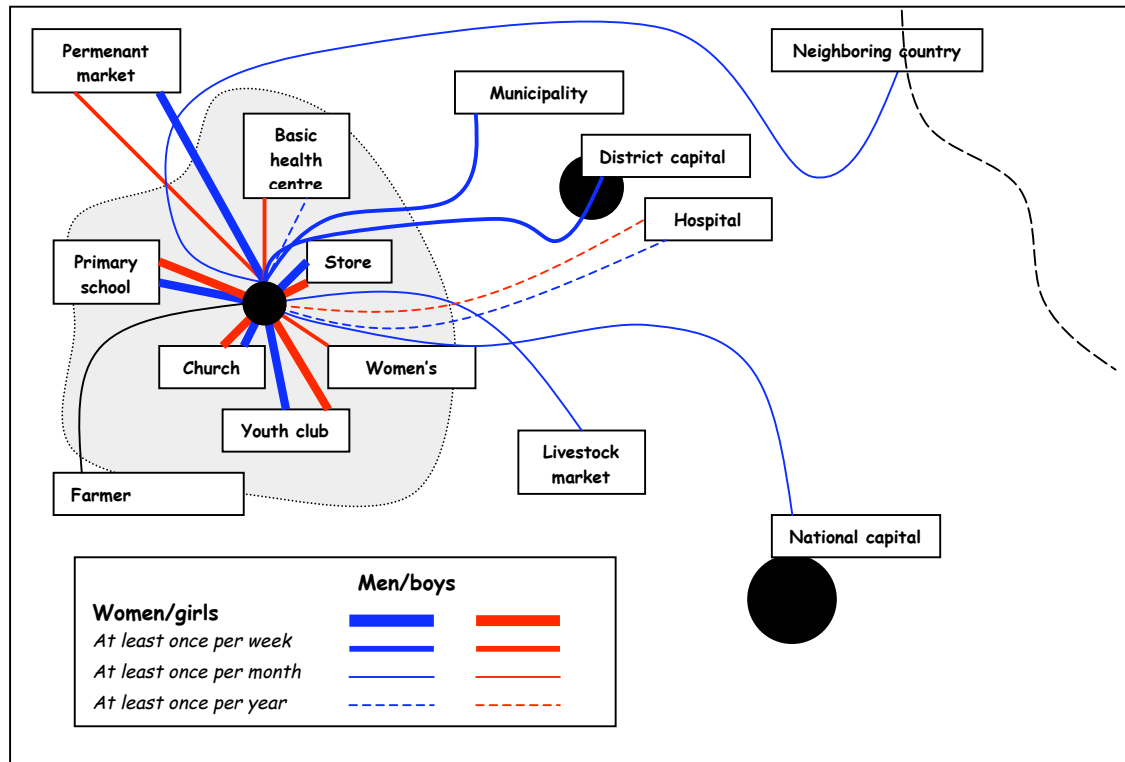
Expenditures in the past months	Man A	Man B	Man C	Men total score	Woman A	Woman B	Woman C	Women total score
Food	○○○ ○○	○○		7	○○○ ○○○ ○○○ ○	○○○ ○○	○○○ ○○○	21
Clothing/shoes		○○		2	○○○		○	4
Soaps/detergents/ household items		○		1	○○	○	○	4
Health care (medical services, drugs)		○○○ ○○		5	○○	○○	○○○	7
Education/school fees		○○○		3	○○○ ○○	○○ ○○	○○ ○○	13
Seeds and agricultural tools	○○○ ○○	○○○ ○○○ ○○○ ○	○○○ ○○○ ○○○ ○○○	27			○	1
Rent/lease of building or land	○○○ ○○ ○○○			8				0
Fines or debts	○○ ○○			4				0
Donations/social contributions	○○○		○○○ ○○	8	○○○		○○ ○○	7
Transportation	○○○ ○○	○○○		8				0
Tobacco and alcohol	○○○ ○○	○○○ ○○ ○○○	○○○ ○	12				0
Savings			○○○ ○○	5	○○			2
Total score	35	34	26	95	27	12	20	59

3.2.3.6 - Mobility maps

Mobility maps show systematically the movements of men and women inside and outside their community. First participants are requested to draw a map of all locations within and outside the community they visit regularly. They can use different colours of markers and lines styles to indicate how often they go there. The map can be useful in order to identify issues and problems related to gender differentiated access to land, education, health care, political decision-making, etc.

The example provided in Figure 11 shows that both women and men regularly visit community services, such as stores, and health centres. The further away locations are from the community (municipality, district capital, capital, and foreign country) the less likely it is that women of this community go there. This may have implications on women's access to employment markets and localities where political and decision-making processes are taking place. This finding should be used to discuss the implications of restrictions on women's movement (why, what impacts does this have on women's opportunities/participation in political process, etc.).

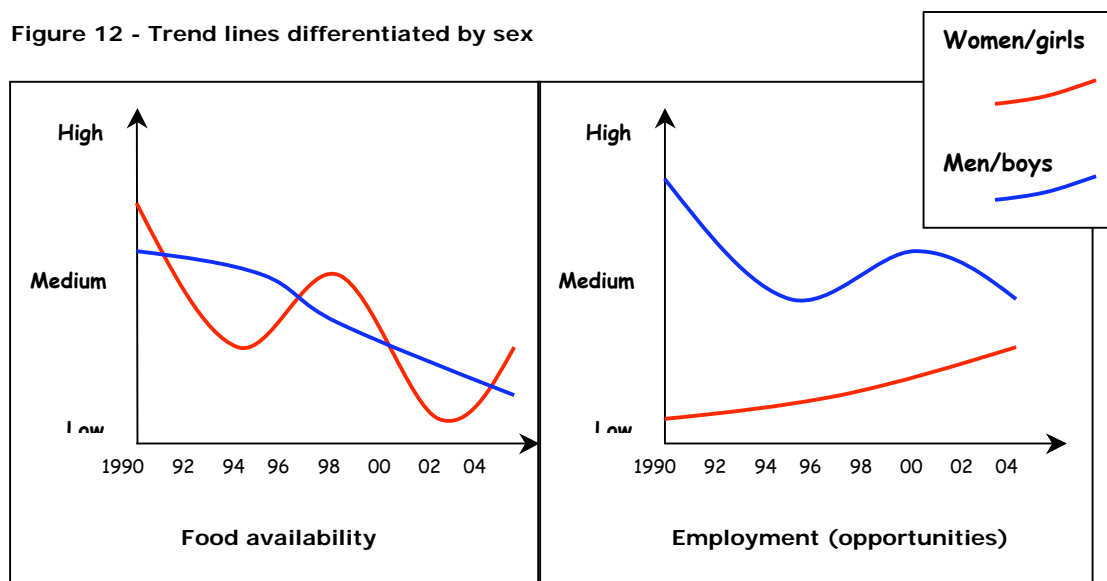
Figure 11 – Mobility map differentiated by sex



3.2.3.7 - Trend lines

Trend lines can be used to gain insights in women's and men's perceptions of significant changes in certain factors over a specific period of time (e.g. during the course of one year or over the past 5 years, etc). Trends can be visualized in terms of quantity (more or less, amounts, prices) and quality (better, worse). In the context of food security studies, examples of trends that can be analyzed include food availability, prices for food crops, employment opportunities, availability of water, and incidence of diseases. A gender perspective requires carrying out this exercise with men and women separately and allows for the clear identification of differences in conditions (or perceptions) of life for men and women. Figure 12 provides an example of the results of a trend lines exercise with the results for men and women overlaid for comparison.

Figure 12 - Trend lines differentiated by sex



The left graph in Figure 12 shows a general downward trend in terms of food availability. While the curve of men is falling steadily since 1990, the curve drawn by women fluctuates from year to year with a general downward trend. A possible explanation might be that women, who are often the principal food managers within households, are more aware of fluctuating market prices for food products or events that caused limited food availability.

The graph on the right hand side shows the developments in the labour market for women and men. Here, women have less employment opportunities than men. However, over time opportunities have increased for females and decreased for males. This could be caused by a change of skills-sets required on the labour market. Another possible interpretation could be that women were forced to enter the labour market to compensate for income loss of their husbands. Although these analyses are plausible, it is necessary to present the results to participants for discussion, allowing them to explain modify the trends illustrated in the graphs and provide explanations for observed trends.

3.2.3.8 - Ranking exercises

Ranking exercises are used to define priorities, preferences, problems, solutions, constraints, or even intervention preferences. They are usually carried out with groups of men and women separately. One possible approach is to prepare a list of items to be ranked and then have the members voting by distributing a defined number of little stones across the items to be ranked (Figure 13). The example (Figure 13) shows that women and men put different weights to existing problems or constraints. Education/literacy is the top problem perceived by women, while men in this example are more concerned about crop failure. Although priorities need not differ between men and women, they often do.

Another approach to ranking is called **pair-wise ranking**. In this approach ranking is done in pairs (this is a higher priority than that, this is a lower priority than that) until all issues are sequentially ranked. Participants may revise the ranking once all priorities are listing in order.

Figure 13 - Ranking exercise differentiated by gender

	Female Respondents				Total score	Rank	Comments
	A	B	C	D			
Lack of education/literacy	00000	000	0000	00	14	1	
High price of food items	00	00000	0	0	9	2	
Health problems	0		00	00	5	3	
Water quality/quantity	0		00	0	4	4	
Lack of training opportunities	0		0	0	3	5	
Security		0		0	2	6	
Crop failure				0	1	7	
Lack of employment		0			1	7	
Lack of finances/credit				0	1	7	

	Male Respondents				Total score	Rank	Comments
	A	B	C	D			
Crop failure	000000	00	000	00	13	1	
Lack of employment	00	000	0	000	9	2	
Lack of education/literacy		000	0	00	6	3	
Health problems		0	000		4	4	
Water quality/quantity		0	0	0	3	5	
Lack of finances/credit	0		0		2	6	
High price of food items	0			0	2	6	
Security				0	1	8	
Lack of training opportunities						/	

Section IV - Analysis of gender-disaggregated information

Qualitative and quantitative data analyses are complex, iterative processes that do not lend themselves well to step by step descriptions or prescriptive guidelines. As such, these guidelines will not attempt to provide analytic templates. However, some important points can be made concerning how to utilize gender disaggregated data, collected using the methods, techniques, and tools described in section 3, to answer the five guiding questions that guide all WFP/VAM studies:

1. Who are the food insecure?
2. How many are they?
3. Where do they live?
4. Why are they food insecure?
5. Does food aid have a role to play?

4.1 - Quantitative data analyses

Quantitative data can be used to generate estimates for various indicators among different groups within the population for comparative purposes. Key comparisons from a gender perspective include comparing individual level indicators between men and women, and comparing household level indicators between male-headed and female-headed households. However, food security and vulnerability analyses rarely use gender as the sole criteria for defining groups for analysis (although such estimates are likely to be generated for reporting purposes) because the distinction between male/female or male-headed household/female-headed household rarely defines homogenous groups. Rather, gender should be viewed as a cross-cutting theme that can be combined with other criteria for comparative purposes¹².

For example, when looking at the percentage of food expenditure as a percentage of total expenditure (a proxy indicator of food insecurity), an initial comparison may be made between male-headed and female-headed households. However, a more complex analysis may incorporate one or more additional variables to define groups for comparison (e.g. multivariate analysis). In the example, an additional variable 'primary source of livelihood' is added in order to compare between households involved in cash crop production and those that are subsistence farmers. The result is four groups for comparison.

	% total expenditure for food (sample size)	
	Male Headed Household	Female Headed Household
Cash crop production	50% (232)	55% (145)
Subsistence farmers	60% (367)	80% (101)

This simplistic example serves to illustrate the way in which gender, when combined with other factors, can be integrated into food security analyses. In the example, not only are we able to assess the independent relationship between livelihood source and % of total expenditure spent on food and gender of the head of household and % of total expenditure spent on food, but we are able to assess the interaction between these two independent variables and the % of total expenditure spent on food (e.g. the dependent variable). In this initial analysis it appears that female-headed households that are subsistence farmers are the most food insecure (as measured by mean % of total expenditure spent on food).

Estimates for categorical variables are normally presented as percentages or prevalence, whereas continuous variables are presented as means or medians. Continuous variables can also be converted into categorical variables (e.g. percentage below or above defined thresholds). Statistical techniques are then used to determine whether or not the differences between groups (defined by gender, other criteria, or a combination of these independent variables) are statistically significant (e.g. the differences found between groups represented in the sample population provide enough evidence to suggest that a true difference exists between these groups in the population).

¹² See VAM Guidelines for creating household food security profiles for a detailed description of multivariate statistical techniques used in WFP/VAM studies

4.2 - Qualitative data analysis

As discussed throughout these guidelines, many issues related to gender, gender relationships and their connection to food security and vulnerability are most effectively explored through qualitative methods (e.g. community discussions, key informants, PRA exercises). As a result, an in-depth gender analysis will rely heavily on the analysis of qualitative data to generate an understanding of how gender intersects with other factors related to food security and vulnerability.

In addition, qualitative data analysis can be used to complement and support the results found during quantitative data analysis (and vice versa). Quantitative data analysis can be used to identify the existence or depth of food insecurity and vulnerability among different groups and the relationship of gender to these outcomes. Quantitative data may also be used to **test hypotheses** concerning the causes of these negative outcomes and the extent to which gender appears to be a causal factor. However, qualitative data is critical for **generating hypotheses** about the underlying causes of food security and vulnerability and the relationship of gender to these outcomes.

Qualitative data analysis may be used to develop hypotheses to be tested subsequently with quantitative data or qualitative data analysis may be used to investigate or verify associations found between variables during quantitative analysis that lack clear causal relationships. For example, an analysis of quantitative household data suggests a gender gap with respect to school attendance. Although analysts may posit reasons as to why this may be, qualitative data collection and analysis is needed to explore the issue in more depth with the community and can be used to gain insight into the underlying factors and reasons why the gap exists and why the gap varies in different areas. Clearly, the capacity to link quantitative and qualitative information from various sources is crucial for getting an overall understanding of food security and vulnerability, as well as the relationship of gender and gender relationships to these outcomes.

4.3 - Gender analysis and program/intervention design

Integrating gender into qualitative and quantitative data analysis not only provides the information needed to develop comprehensive household food security profiles¹³, it also provides insight into how to design and implement gender-sensitive programming. For example:

- **Food distribution** - During general food distributions entitlements are often issued in women's names. However, women do not always have control over the food once they have left the distribution site. Information on intra-household decision-making and control over resources will improve a general understanding of what happens once food is distributed, to what extent women are able to control it, and how it can potentially benefit the entire household.
- **School feeding** - In areas of wider gender gap in terms of school enrolment (often girls have lower enrolment than boys), understanding the reasons why one group is not sent to school are fundamental for assessing the appropriateness of 'take-home' rations as an incentive for school attendance for pupils of a particular gender.
- **Food-for-work** - It is important to consider intervention preferences differentiated by gender when designing food-related interventions. For instance, if women identify time spent on water collection as a major constraint, this information could be used to advocate for the involvement of specialized partner organizations or the government counterparts. Alternatively, food-for-work activities may be considered (construction of water pumps) as a means of reducing women's burden by building key community assets.
- **Food-for-training** - Where a gendered analysis of employment opportunities suggests a lack of marketable skills for one gender or the other, this information can be used to develop appropriate food-for-training programs aimed at addressing gender-specific skill deficiencies.
- **Maternal-child health/Nutrition programs** - If caring or feeding practices are found to be different for boys and girls, an understanding of why these discrepancies exist is critical for designing appropriate incentives can be used to encourage more equity.

¹³ See Household Food Security Profiles guidelines

Section V - Data presentation: visualization of results

A variety of data presentation techniques can be used to highlight findings concerning the relationship between gender, gender relationships, food security and vulnerability. Narrative descriptions, tables, charts, graphs and maps are the most commonly presentation forms that appear in WFP/VAM studies. Each type of data presentation has advantages and disadvantages and the choice between them should be driven

5.1 - Summarizing/presenting findings from qualitative data

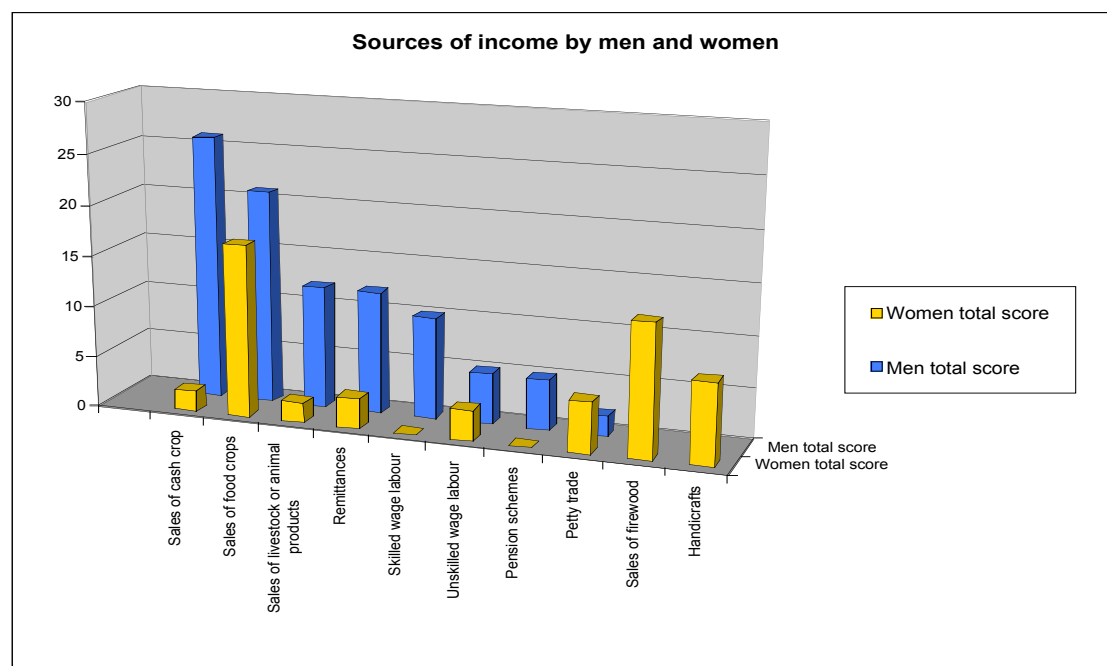
As discussed throughout these guidelines, much of the data related to gender and gender relationships is likely to be qualitative in nature. As such, much of these data will not lend themselves to numeric summary and will rely on narrative description. However, several presentation techniques can be used to bring key issues and points to the attention of readers within narrative descriptions.

Bold or underlined text within narrative descriptions, when used in moderation, serves to highlight key findings. Similarly, bullet points can be used to:

- Highlight multiple issues related to a common theme
- May use numbers or letters to rank or quantify these issues
- May use other characters for unranked issues
- Can be indented to clearly associate these issues with a narrative description.

Figures and tables also provide a means of conveying findings from qualitative data analysis. Tables highlighting key issues are particularly helpful for making comparisons between groups. Groups can be defined by any number of characteristics, including gender. However, these tables should present summaries of data collected during community discussions or key informant interviews, rather than the raw data tables produced during data collection exercises.

Maps are useful for displaying spatial information, such as the distribution of community assets and a depiction of who (men, women, or both) have access to and control over these assets. Graphs, although used primarily to convey quantitative information, can also be used to depict qualitative findings that involve numeric scores, rankings or weighting. The results showing various sources of income for men and women taken from a proportional piling exercise are presented in the chart below.



5.2 - Summarizing/presenting findings from quantitative data

Although some analytic outputs from quantitative data should be presented in narrative form, comparisons between various groups are best presented as tables, graphs (bar graphs, pie charts, etc.), and charts. Presenting summary information in a format that is easy to understand by decision-makers will require trial and error as to what type of graph, table, map, or chart best conveys the key findings. Presenting gender differences and gender gaps can be achieved using any or all of these methods. However, maps are particularly useful for visualizing spatial distribution. For all comparisons between groups, the sample size in each group should be noted, usually in brackets.

Below are some examples of quantitative data presented in different formats.

Table 3 - Literacy rates by districts and sex (n=12,391)

Literacy rates by district	Men above 14 years	Women above 14 years	Total	Gender gap
District A	94.1	83.5	88.9	0.11
District B	79.2	62.0	69.9	0.17
District C	86.2	80.1	83.0	0.06
District D	91.9	74.8	83.4	0.17
District E	90.2	64.4	77.2	0.26
Total	90.6	77.1	83.7	0.14

Tables are good for presenting information on a small number of groups (Table 3 depicts males compared to females in five districts), but should not be used for comparing groups defined by more than two variables and/or analyses that entail 10 or more groups or variables because large numbers of cells and/or columns are difficult to interpret.

Figure 15 - Intervention preferences differentiated by sex

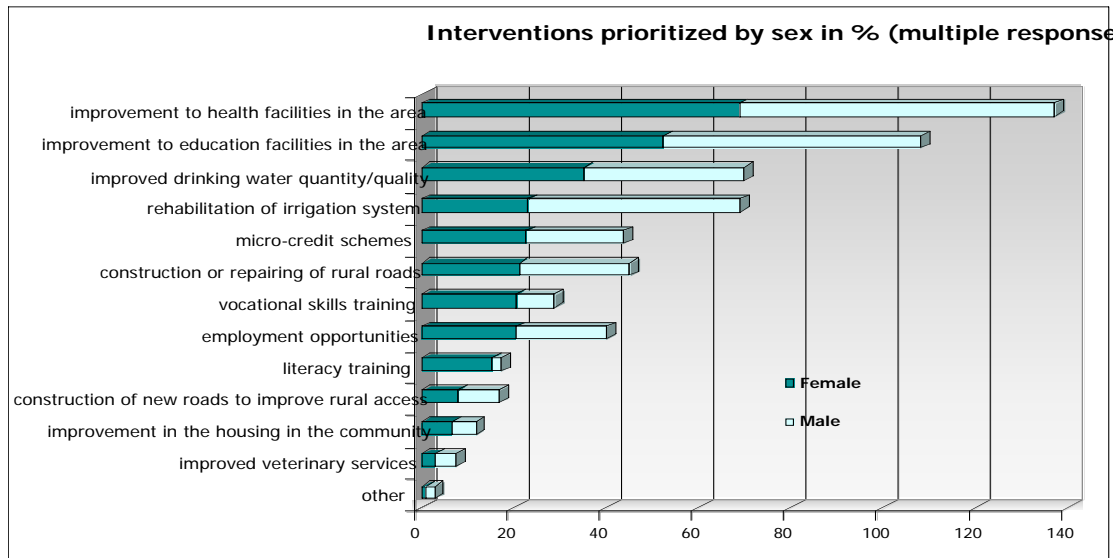
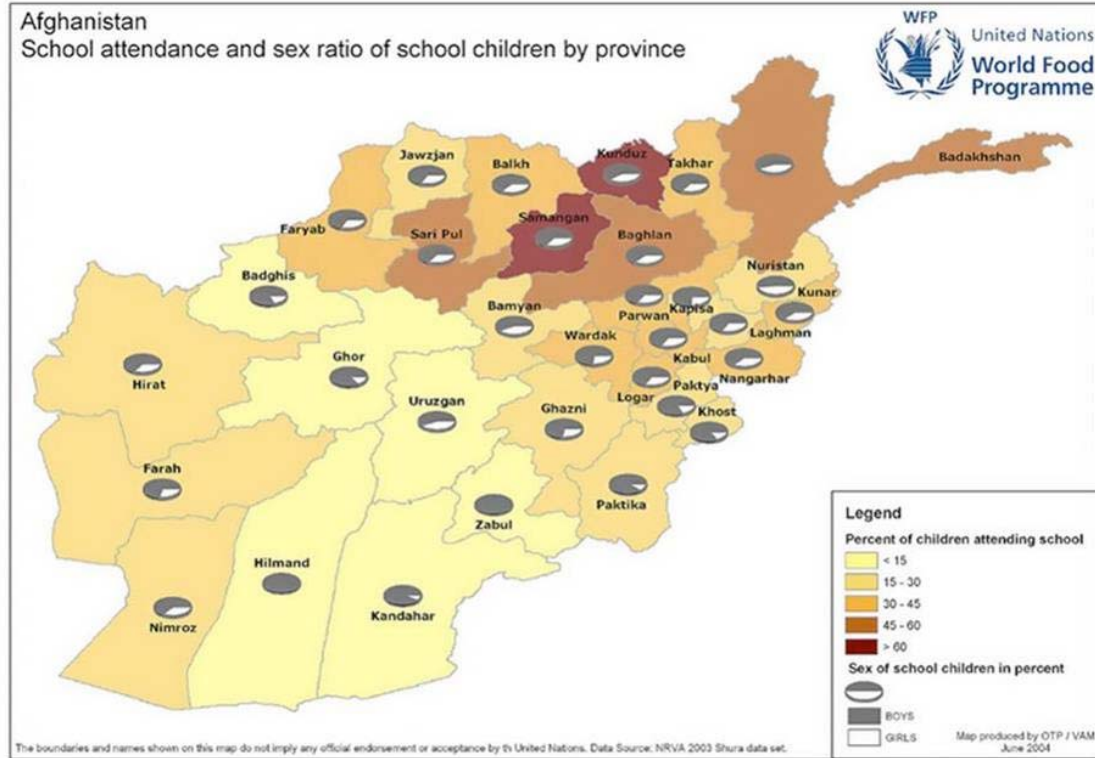


Figure 15 depicts intervention priorities among males and females. By splitting the bar graph for each priority between men and women, a clear picture of the prioritized interventions among men, women, and both emerges.

The use of **digital** maps can be used to add a spatial component to the analysis. The visualization through maps is the most powerful way to present information and convey messages. The map of Afghanistan, depicted in Figure 16 on the next page (NRVA 2003, Afghanistan), provides an example that illustrates how general school enrolment and gender ratio coincides in certain areas of the country. A further step would be to overlay data on food security and/or vulnerability. Spatial patterns in socio-economic data not

only provide an easy to understand means of conveying information, they reveal issues and trends that could otherwise be missed by simply presenting data in tabular format. For example, GIS and spatial analysis could be used to calculate distances to urban centres, main roads, water to sources, and health centres.

Figure 16 Map of primary school attendance and sex ratio of school children



Annex I – Additional reading and resources

Quantitative and qualitative tools for gender-sensitive data collection

1. **A manual for gender-focused field diagnostic studies.** IFAD's Gender Strengthening Programme. In Eastern and Southern Africa. International Fund for Agricultural Development – IFAD, Rome, Italy.
Link: <http://www.ifad.org/gender/tools/gender/diagnostic.pdf>
2. **Alternative approaches to locating the food insecure: qualitative and quantitative evidence from South India.** K. Chung, L. Haddad, J. Ramakrishna, and F. Riely. Discussion Paper 22. International Food and Policy Research Institute - IFPRI. Washington DC, USA. 1997.
3. **Developing Focus Group Research.** Politics, Theory and Practice. R.S. Barbour and J. Kitizinger. London SAGE Publications. 223p. London, UK. 1999.
4. **Gender and third world development. Module 1, Socio-economic statistics.** A. Evans. Commission of the European Communities and Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex, Brighton, UK. 1991.
5. **Guide to Gender-sensitive Indicators.** Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), Quebec, Canada. 91 p. 1997.
6. **Improving statistics and indicators on women using household surveys.** Department of International Economic and Social Affairs, Statistical Office and International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women. New York, UN, USA. - vii, 148 p. 1988.
7. **Making a Difference? Gender and participatory development.** A. Cornwall. IDS Discussion Paper 378, Brighton: Institute of Development Studies - IDS, Sussex, UK. 2001. Link: <http://www.ids.ac.uk/ids/>
8. **Methods of measuring disparity between men and women: a technical report.** P. Sicherl. International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women, Santo Domingo, the Dominican Republic. 1989.
9. **Participatory research, gender and participation - some problematics.** R. Green. PRA and Gender Workshop, Institute of Development Studies, IIED. Sussex, UK. 1993.
10. **PRA Tools for Studying Urban Agriculture and Gender.** H. de Zeeuw and J. Wilbers. Resource Center on Urban Agriculture and Forestry (RUAF). AB Leusden, the Netherlands. 35 p. 2004.
11. **Sub-Group on Sex Disaggregated Data of the IAWG on Gender and Development Database Issues: Women's Access to Credit and Rural Micro-finance in India.** J. Deshmukh-Ranadive. UNDP. New Delhi, India. 2002.
12. **Successful Focus Groups. Advancing the State of Art.** David L. Morgan ed. SAGE Publications, International Educational and Professional Publisher. 153 p. London, UK. 1993.
13. **Toolkit on Gender in Agriculture. Gender Toolkit Series No. 1.** M.S. Fong and A. Bhushan. Gender Analysis and Policy – Poverty and Social Department. The World Bank, Washington DC. USA. 56p. 1996.
14. **Tools for the field: Methodologies handbook for gender analysis in agriculture.** Feldstein, Hilary Sims and Janice Jiggins (eds). 270p. Bloomfield, Connecticut, USA, Kumarian Press Inc. 1994.

Linking qualitative and quantitative data

1. **A methodological framework for combining quantitative and qualitative survey methods.** N. Marsland, I. Wilson, S. Abeyasekera, U. Kleih U. DFID-funded Natural Resources Systems Programme Social and Economic Development Department, Natural Resources Institute and the Statistical Services Centre, The University of Reading. Reading, UK. 1999.
2. **Can qualitative and quantitative methods serve complementary purposes for policy research? Evidence from Accra.** D. Maxwell. FCND Discussion Papers 40. Food Consumption and Nutrition Division, International Food Policy Research Institute - IFPRI. Washington, D.C., USA. 1998.
3. **Combining the Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches to Poverty Measurement and Analysis: The Practice and the Potential.** S. Carvalho, S. and H. White. World Bank Technical Paper No 366. World Bank. Washington DC, USA. 1997.
4. **Gender-sensitive education statistics and indicators - A practical guide.** Training material for workshops on Education Statistics and Indicators Division of Statistics, UNESCO. Paris, France. 2003.
Link: http://portal.unesco.org/es/ev.phpURL_ID=11581&URL_DO=DO_PR_INTPAGE&URL_SECTION=201.html
5. **Methods for understanding urban poverty and livelihoods.** A. de Haan, M. Drinkwater, C. Rakodi and K. Westley. DFID Key Documents. 2002. London, UK. Link: http://www.livelihoods.org/static/adehaan_NN132.html

Gender analysis and gender mainstreaming

1. **A Guide to Gender-Analysis Frameworks.** C. March, I. Smyth and M. Mukhopadhyay. An OXFAM Publication. OXFAM GB. 1999.
2. **Country gender profile: South Africa Report.** S. Baden, S. Hasim and S. Meintjes. BRIDGE, Institute of Development Studies - IDS. University of Sussex, Brighton, UK. 1998.
3. **Gender and Development: Facts and Figures.** H. Wach and H. Reeves. BRIDGE, Institute of Development Studies - IDS, University of Sussex, Brighton, UK. 2000.
4. **Gender Mainstreaming in the Joint Inclusion Memoranda for future Member States - Practical Guide.** EUROPEAN COMMISSION Employment and Social Affairs DG Horizontal and International Issues Equality for Women and Men. 2003. Brussels, Belgium. Link: http://europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social/equ_opp/gmprac_guide_en.pdf
5. **Gender Mainstreaming: A How-To Manual.** K. Landuyt. South-East Asia and the Pacific Multidisciplinary Advisory Team. International Labour Organization. Manila, the Philippines. 1998.
Link: <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/region/asro/mdtmanila/gender/gndef.htm>
6. **Gender Mainstreaming: IFAD's Experience in the Asia and the Pacific Region and Lessons Learned.** IFAD. Rome, Italy.
Link: http://www.ifad.org/gender/progress/pi/pi_6.htm
7. **Mainstreaming a Gender Perspective into Vulnerability Analysis and Mapping in Line with the WFP Gender Policy 2003-2007.** World Food Programme, Rome. 2004.
8. **Gender Planning in Development: Theory, Practice and Training.** C. Moser. Routledge London, UK. 1993.

9. **Gender-sensitive Food Aid Programming. Manual for WFP Gender Trainers.** S. Lassila, A. Shotton and M. Okumba. World Food Programme, Regional Gender Unit for the Horn of Africa and Great Lakes Regions, Kenya. 63 p. 2000.
10. **Passport to Mainstreaming a Gender Perspective in Emergency Programmes. Key Analytical Questions for Designing Gender-Sensitive Humanitarian Interventions.** Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis Programme, SEAGA. FAO-WFP. Rome, Italy 2003.
11. **Practising Gender Analysis in Education.** F. Leach. An OXFAM Publication. OXFAM GB. 2003.
12. **Socio-economic and gender sensitive indicators in the management of natural resources.** Gender and Population Division - FAO Sustainable Development Department. Rome, Italy. 2003.
Link: http://www.fao.org/sd/2003/PE09023a_en.htm
13. **Women and men in development. Analyzing gender.** Produced by SIDA Production: Svensk Information, Printed by: Edita. Stockholm, Sweden. 2003.
Link: http://www.sida.se/content/1/c6/02/16/04/Analysing%20Gender_sida2913.pdf

Gender and food security

1. **Adoption of Hybrid Maize in Zambia: Effects on Gender Roles, Food Consumption, and Nutrition.** Shubh K. Kumar. Research Report 100. International Food Policy Research Institute - IFPRI. Washington D.C., USA. 126p. 1994.
2. **Gender and Food Security: the role of information. Strategy for action.** FAO. Rome, Italy. 2000.
3. **Gender Bias: Roadblock to Sustainable Development.** Jacobson, Jodi L. et al. Worldwatch Paper 110, Worldwatch Institute. Washington, D.C., USA. 60p. 1992.
4. **Gender Inequality and Poverty: Trends, Linkages, Analysis and Policy Implications.** Report prepared for the Gender Equality Unit, Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida). S. Baden and K. Milward. Bridge (development-gender), Institute of Development Studies University of Sussex, Brighton, UK. 60p. 1997.
5. **Gender Relations and Food Security: Coping with Seasonality, Drought, and Famine in South Asia.** Agarwal, B. *In Unequal Burden: Economic Crises, Persistent Poverty and Women's Work.* L. Beneria, and S. Feldman, eds. Boulder: Westview Press. Boulder, USA. 1992.
6. **Gender, Household Food Security and Coping Strategies.** Koch Laier, J., Davies, S., Milward, K. and Kennan, J., Laier et al. BRIDGE, Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex, Brighton, UK. 119p. 1996.
7. **Good Care Practices Can Mitigate the Negative Effects of Poverty and Low Maternal Schooling on Children's Nutritional Status: Evidence from Accra.** FCND Discussion Paper 62, International Food Policy Research Institute - IFPRI. M. Ruel, C. Levin, M. Armar-Klemesu, D. Maxwell, and S. Morris. Washington, D.C., USA. 1999.
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