Public works programmes: A strategy for poverty alleviation
The gender dimension revisited in Employment-Intensive Investment Programmes in 30 countries in Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean

Nite Tanzarn, Maria Teresa Gutierrez
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Preface

The primary goal of the ILO is to work with member States towards achieving full and productive employment and decent work for all. This goal is elaborated in the ILO Declaration 2008 on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization, which has been widely adopted by the international community. Comprehensive and integrated perspectives to achieve this goal are embedded in the Employment Policy Convention of 1964 (No. 122), the Global Employment Agenda (2003) and – in response to the 2008 global economic crisis – the Global Jobs Pact (2009) and the conclusions of the Recurrent Discussion Reports on Employment (2010 and 2014).

The Employment Policy Department (EMPLOYMENT) is engaged in global advocacy and in supporting member States in placing more and better jobs at the center of economic and social policies and growth and development strategies. Policy research and knowledge generation and dissemination are essential components of the Employment Policy Department’s activities. The resulting publications include books, country policy reviews, policy and research briefs, and working papers.

The Employment Policy Working Paper series is designed to disseminate the main findings of research on a broad range of topics undertaken by the branches of the Department. The working papers are intended to encourage the exchange of ideas and to stimulate debate. The views expressed within them are the responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily represent those of the ILO.

Azita Berar Awad
Director
Employment Policy Department

2 See http://www.ilo.org/employment
Foreword

The conceptual shifts in the thinking about the meaning of gender are slowly filtering through to public works. Whereas the major gender mainstreaming emphasis continues to be on increasing women’s representation, there is a good attempt to move beyond the numbers. The broadening of the concept of public works beyond the traditional focus on infrastructure has expanded women’s employment opportunities and socioeconomic benefits. The results of the study reveal that Programmes such as South Africa’s Expanded Public Works Programme, which include components of child and other social care, alleviate the burden of unpaid care work mostly undertaken by women. That way, they free their time/labour to participate in activities in paid market work.

The Employment Intensive Investment Programmes (EIIP) has broadened the boundaries of what is typically permissible for women to do in the given social and community context, and for the transfer and acquisition of skills. Women’s involvement has addressed some of the stereotypes about what they can and cannot do and broken down other social taboos. That way public works have influenced the construction of distinct roles, responsibilities and identities for women and men. Women used to be grossly under-represented in public works because traditionally, public space was a sanctioned male realm and women in that space used to be viewed as “transgressors”.

However, public works are contributing to the transformation of the dynamics which determine status, power, privileges and entitlements. EIIPs improve women’s access to income and employment. Where this has been complemented with gender awareness raising about the importance of women’s control over income, it has enhanced their decision-making power and accorded them higher status within the family. Women’s participation in the public [works] has also improved their visibility, promoted their social capital and interaction, and improved their confidence. Public works have significantly improved women’s access to resources, enhancing women’s decision-making power at the household and community level.

There is evidence that, increasingly, public works programmes see a need for affirmative action. The affirmative action strategy has, to a great extent, been effective, for bringing women into paid employment, helping them move from the domestic to the public sphere. As with most affirmative action measures, the increased number of women in public works has improved the legitimisation of their role in this otherwise male domain.

Public works can be managed in a way that can create optimal and equitable opportunities for women and men. Further, the works can be designed to mitigate against gendered time poverty rather than promote women’s participation in EIIP in order to put to good use the perceived “idle” female labour.

A series of actions have been recommended as outcome of the study to strengthen gender mainstreaming within public works and expand women’s as well as men’s opportunities. Whereas women’s presence in the public works has created social awareness about gender, some gender stereotypes still persist. Depending on social/cultural context, largely men, do not appreciate the significance of women’s participation in the road works. Many project managers and implementers are yet to appreciate the importance of gender awareness raising. As a result, female and male beneficiaries do not effectively participate in all stages of the public works project cycle: needs identification, design, implementation, monitoring and impact assessment. This strategic absence of women relative to men means that public works have not effectively promoted gender equality and women’s empowerment. Various gender differentiated needs which arise from the inequalities between women and men remain largely unmet by the public works.
This report is an update of a study conducted in 2009 which reviewed the progress made over the last 20 years in mainstreaming gender in the EIIP in 15 countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. The paper addresses the data gaps in the 2009 study and presents a more complete and representative picture of the way gender is addressed in public works investment projects under ILO’s assistance. It has combined a desk assessment of documentation and undertaken a detailed field study of EIIPs in South Africa and Madagascar.

The EMP/INVEST unit at the ILO headquarters is committed to the promotion of gender equality and women’s economic empowerment. In collaboration with its global network, it sustains its efforts to implement strategies to attain its gender equality targets. The EIIP is in the process of preparing a set of guidelines for gender mainstreaming along the project cycle and designing training modules for capacity building of its technical staff and constituents.

Terje Tessem  
Chief of Development and Investment  
Branch
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Executive Summary

1. This research report is based on a review of 43 employment-intensive public works projects (EIIPs) implemented in 27 countries between 1995 and 2013. It combines a desk assessment of available documentation with a detailed field study of EIIPs conducted in 2009 in South Africa and Madagascar.

2. The focus countries are:
   - **Africa**: Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Liberia, Madagascar, Mali, Mozambique, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, Tanzania and Uganda.
   - **Asia**: Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Myanmar [Burma], and Timor Leste.
   - **Latin America**: Ecuador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay and Peru.
   - **The Caribbean**: Haiti

3. A gender analysis of each project was conducted and this focused on the following:
   - The quality and extent of gender mainstreaming within public investments in the identification, design, appraisal, implementation, monitoring and evaluation processes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Summary of Approach</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Review of project [formulation] documents [PRODOC]</td>
<td>Establish how gender was addressed in the identification, design and appraisal of the public works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review of mid-point evaluation reports</td>
<td>Assess how gender was addressed during the implementation and monitoring of the public works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review of evaluation reports [for completed projects]</td>
<td>Determine the emerging impact of public works on women’s empowerment and gender justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field work in South Africa and Madagascar</td>
<td>Collect primary data on how the gender dimension is addressed in EIIPs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Women’s position relative to men as workers, supervisors, entrepreneurs and leaders, as a result of capacity-building and employment opportunities.
- The impact of EIIP on gender equality and women’s empowerment: achievements and unmet gender needs.
- Lessons learned and good practices: how EIIPs have expand income generation, work experience and skills-building opportunities for disadvantaged women and men.

Key Findings

**Gender responsiveness of identification of EIIPs**

4. Nearly half of the EIIPs reviewed recognise that women are more vulnerable to poverty and other threats. Women are less educated and less skilled than men and, therefore, have restricted access to employment. Well-targeted, EIIPs have the potential to expand women’s opportunities for employment. More than one third of the road development EIIPs recognised differences in women’s and men’s mobility patterns and accessibility needs.

5. Due to their socially assigned responsibility of domestic work, women are time poor. However, only 16 per cent of the EIIPs reviewed acknowledged women’s time poverty suggesting that the rest may inadvertently exclude women. Besides, by not recognizing women’s time poverty, EIIPs may exacerbate their work burden.

6. Women experience more and different challenges to men. There is, therefore a need to identify opportunities with the potential to maximize women’s participation in, and benefit from EIIPs. However, less than one fifth of the EIIPs consulted women during the process of project identification suggesting that most of the programmes were non responsive to gender needs.
Good Practices in Addressing Gender in EIIP Identification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>% of EIIPs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Consult women and men to identify their needs</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Recognise gender differences in poverty levels and/or vulnerability</td>
<td>51.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Acknowledge women’s time poverty</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Recognize differences in women’s and men’s mobility patterns and accessibility needs</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Acknowledge gender differences in education and thus employability</td>
<td>32.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Identify opportunities for women’s participation/underscores the need for affirmative action for women</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gender responsiveness of the design of EIIPs**

7. More than 50 per cent of the EIIPs took into account gender differences, timing and the choice of media, in order to ensure equality of opportunities. Some EIIPs provided for child care facilities, others defined quotas for women’s representation and yet others adopted gender-balanced recruitment procedures.

8. The performance of EIIPs is measured against the defined objectives. Therefore, EIIPs which have explicit gender justice objectives are likely to influence the relationships between women and men and contribute to reducing the existing inequalities. Nearly one third of the EIIPs had an objective which influenced gender relations and/or contributed to reducing the gender gap.

9. Gender sensitive indicators are important in tracking the progress of implementation and eventually assessing the impact on gender equality and women’s empowerment. Whereas nearly all the EIIPs reviewed had gender disaggregated data only a few [14%] defined gender sensitive indicators beyond the affirmative action target.

10. Allocating an adequate and dedicated budget for gender-related activities such as: i] provision of separate bathroom facilities; ii] provision of child care support; iii] employment of a gender expert; iv] gender awareness creation and capacity building; v] gender sensitive community mobilisation and participatory planning; etc., ensures their implementation. Only three EIIPs adopted gender responsive budgeting suggesting a possibility of the proposed gender-equality enhancing interventions in the PRODOCs not being implemented.

11. To ensure that EIIPs do not aggravate inequitable gender relations, it is important to review the project design to assess the potential impacts on women relative to men and define mitigation measures, if any. That way, EIIPs have greater potential of promoting gender equality and empowering women. Despite its significance, only a handful of EIIPs conducted a gender appraisal.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>% of EIIPs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7. EIIP has a gender justice objective and/or contributes to reducing the gender gap</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. EIIP design responds to women’s as well as men’s needs</td>
<td>51.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. PRODOC includes gender sensitive indicators for project monitoring and review</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. The budget responds to the gender responsive actions identified</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Potential gender risks and mitigation measures identified</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gender responsiveness of the implementation and monitoring of EIIPs**

12. A well-planned, time- and resource-bound and verifiable gender strategy or implementation plan is key to the successful integration of a gender dimension in EIIP implementation, monitoring and reporting. A strategy is important because it provides practical guidance on “how to” mainstream gender in EIIPs. Only three programmes
elaborated strategies to this effect suggesting that many of the EIIPs may have lacked a gender direction.

13. Making gender a contractual obligation improves the likelihood of it being addressed during implementation. In practical terms this means that contract documents explicitly incorporate the relevant gender equality issues. Likewise, the Bills of Quantity [BoQs] are expected to include sociological aspects. Only 14 per cent of relevant EIIPs were responsive to this aspect.

14. One of the persistent challenges of mainstreaming gender is the question: “How do we do it [mainstream gender]?”. Accordingly, a key success factor is having programme staff, consultants, contractors and other actors with the relevant capacities to implement EIIPs in a gender responsive manner. A good practice, at the global level is the presence of an officer within the ILO EIIP Unit who provides technical backstopping to all the programme countries. The support involves, *inter alia*, gender capacity building. Close to 28 per cent of the EIIPs demonstrated that the implementers had the necessary capacities to execute the respective projects in a gender sensitive manner. This suggests a need for gender capacity building.

15. Retrogressive cultural practices, and sometimes religion, define separate spaces for women and thus deny them an opportunity to participate in EIIP on an equal footing with men. In recognition of this, more than one quarter of the EEIPs incorporated gender in community mobilisation and awareness creation. Some involved government and nongovernmental gender justice actors such as ministries of gender as well as women’s groups.

16. Some EIIPs recruited staff to support gender mainstreaming within the programmes. Others had dedicated gender units to support the process. Their responsibilities varied from advising and supporting programme staff to monitoring and documenting progress of achievement of defined gender outcomes. EIIPs that involved sociologists or gender specialists were most likely to report on the qualitative aspects of the project. Again, the EIIP gender focal person plays an overarching technical oversight role.

17. Nearly one third of the EIIPs provided for equitable recruitment of both women and men in capacity building and employment. The measures included involving women’s groups in the mobilisation of the participants/workers; using information channels which reach women and affirmative action for women.

18. Due to women’s reproductive role, they have heavier time commitments than men. A few EIIPs were more accommodative of women and offered flexibility in the execution of the work such as using task based system and flexible working hours. This is besides providing childcare facilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Good Practices in Addressing Gender the Implementation and Monitoring of EIIPs</th>
<th>% of EIIPs [n=43]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Gender strategy elaborated</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Gender responsive contract documents</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Implementers with gender capacity</td>
<td>29.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Conduct gender awareness creation of communities and project staff</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Technical oversight for gender mainstreaming</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Gender equitable recruitment of workers and training participants</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Provide gender-sensitive work environment</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Collect and report sex disaggregated project performance data</td>
<td>64.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

19. Additional good practices adopted albeit by a few EIIPs to address would-be barriers to the participation of women include: i) offering maternity leave; ii) zero tolerance of sexual harassment; iii) providing separate rooms, and toilet and shower facilities during the training and construction/rehabilitation works; and iv) using gender sensitive language.
20. To track the progress of the achievement of gender-equity goals, target and achievement data should be sex-disaggregated data. More than 60 per cent of the projects reviewed provided sex disaggregated monitoring data. There was, however, no indication of whether the female beneficiaries or their representatives were directly involved in performance monitoring.

21. All projects appeared to adopt the principle of “Equal Pay for Equal Work Done”. According to the available information, the projects applied the same task rate for women and men. Nevertheless, many of them assigned different activities to women and men, based on the argument that women cannot perform tasks such as stone breaking.

**Gender responsiveness of evaluation of EIIPs**

22. The evaluation reports of all the recent EIIPs made reference to the “ILO Guidance Note 4. Integrating Gender Equality in Monitoring and Evaluation of Projects.” Accordingly, these evaluations [81% of completed EIIPs] gave due attention to gender albeit with different levels of detail.

23. Whereas some EIIPs defined gender specific objectives as well as gender sensitive indicators, only a few reported the extent to which infrastructure assets and services produced through EIIPs: i] promoted the institutionalization of gender in national policy ; ii] addressed women’s time poverty; iii] challenged gender stereotypes and promoted more equitable division of labour between women and men; iv] promoted women’s leadership; and v] strengthened women’s relative to men’s security of access to resources. [i.e. Senegal: PROHIMO, Liberia: PREDEC]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Good Practices in Addressing Gender in EIIP Evaluation</th>
<th>% of EIIPs [n=43]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender consideration in evaluation</td>
<td>84.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender reporting beyond numbers [of women and men beneficiaries]</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusions and Recommendations**

**Conclusions**

24. Public works have offered many poor and illiterate women, and men, a chance to work. Women have had an opportunity to enter traditionally male-dominated construction work and to acquire on-the job skills, which they can apply to other work.

25. Nearly half of the EIIPs analysed specified minimum quotas for women’s participation in, and benefit from the respective programmes some as high as 50 per cent. Women’s representation in the projects ranged from 0 to 81 per cent. More than half of the projects reviewed achieved the critical mass of 30 per cent female representation. This implies that, in terms of numbers, women can, to some extent, influence the public works agenda.

26. Affirmative action also appears to have been effective in public works. Nearly all EIIPs that reported a higher proportion of women were providing for affirmative action for women.

27. The EIIPs give women and men the chance to earn an income for some time, albeit with a rate of pay lying at the lowest end of the wage scale. The pay varies from country to country and from project to project. The women are reported to have spent that money on domestic provisioning, school fees, health care and as capital for income generation.

28. The participation of women in public works has improved their position relative to the men in their families, as well as their position within the community. The belief that a woman’s place is in the home and that public works/road works are not for women seems to be improving. Nonetheless, stereotypes persist and project implementers and technicians continue to set limits to women’s operations.
Recommendations

The following actions will strengthen gender mainstreaming within public works and expand the opportunities of both women and men.

29. Involve women and men in the identification and design of public works. This way, public works will respond to the specific needs of women, as well as to those of men.

30. Define quotas for the proportionate representation of women and men in works and contracts. Gender-specific targeting increases women’s options.

31. The scheduling and organization of activities must take into account the needs of the female workers.

32. The design of public works should also provide for separate residential and bathroom facilities, where applicable, in order to encourage the participation of women in the implementation of the works, as well as in any associated training.

33. Gender awareness should be integral to the mobilisation process, in order to break the prevailing retrogressive gender stereotypes.

34. Assign somebody the responsibility of providing the technical oversight for gender mainstreaming.

35. Build the gender capacities of contractors, consultants and EIIP staff, i.e. gender should be integral to all training/learnership programmes.

36. In order to promote sustainability of the benefits accruing from public works, the programmes should incorporate skills-building for longer-term employment.

37. Institute an incentive and sanction mechanism for rewarding performers and penalizing non-compliance.

38. In order to ensure gender accountability, gender mainstreaming should be made a contractual obligation. Incorporate gender considerations into the estimation of the bills of quantity. In this way, resources will be available for gender mainstreaming.
1 Introduction

General Theoretical Issues on the Gender Dimensions of Employment Intensive Public Works

For more than four decades, the International Labour Organisation [ILO] has, in cooperation with governments and development partners, been designing strategies for Employment-intensive Investment Programmes [EIIPs] in more than 40 countries worldwide. The employment-intensive approach to the production of public assets involves the use of working methods and systems that optimise the labour content, usually through cost-effective combinations of labour and light equipment, without compromising essential standards. EIIPs are typically public works that provide short-term employment at low wages for low skilled workers on labour-intensive projects such as road construction and maintenance, irrigation infrastructure, reforestation, and soil conservation.

In general, there is a rich history of using public work programmes to generate employment. This was the case during the pre-Second World War Great Depression, when public infrastructure projects were used to create employment as a means of generating income and, therefore, stimulating demand as a counter-depression instrument. In Africa and Asia, there has been widespread use of labour for roads, dams and land conservation programmes. The practice of mobilising labour to respond to emergencies such as drought and floods and in post-conflict situations is also common.

Over the years, and especially since the 1970’s, employment-intensive schemes have evolved into mainstream policy instruments for creating short-term employment opportunities. This is especially used in situations of high unemployment and also for minimizing seasonal income and consumption shortfalls, particularly among vulnerable segments of the population. Employment-intensive public work programmes have also developed as a means of building infrastructure, which directly enhances productive capacities that can lead to the creation of employment through second round effects. Such infrastructure includes water supply and irrigation schemes, soil conservation and roads that can lead to increased agricultural output. Social infrastructure such as schools and health centres create some permanent jobs, in addition to meeting the basic needs of the communities.

More recently, employment-intensive public work programmes have become a major component of social funds established to mitigate the effects of economic liberalisation and structural reforms. Examples of these can be found in Kenya, South Africa and Tanzania. Ethiopia’s Productive Safety Net Programme [PSNP] is a good example of a social protection intervention which effectively integrates public works and unconditional cash or food transfers.

Whereas public works programmes have been widely advocated and implemented, their impact on poverty has not always been examined rigorously. Even less understood is the extent to which the programmes have reached and benefited women who, it is widely acknowledged, are over-represented amongst the poor and face greater difficulties in gaining access to paid employment.

This paper is an update of a study conducted in 2009 which reviewed the progress made over the last 20 years in mainstreaming gender in the EIIP in 15 countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. This paper addresses the data gaps in the 2009 study and presents a more complete and representative picture of the way gender is addressed in public works investment projects under ILO’s assistance.
The 2009 study built upon analytical work carried out by Dejardin [1996], which examined the factors that influence women’s share of the direct and indirect benefits of public work programmes. The focus of Dejardin’s analysis was limited to the participation of women during the construction phase, on account of the inadequacy of data during the operational phase. Dejardin’s work gives a good account of the way in which gender interfaces with public works, infrastructure and employment. Dejardin’s desk review of 13 projects implemented in India, Nepal and in eight African countries is the reference point for gender in EIIPs.

Box 1. Highlights of Dejardin’s review of public works projects implemented between 1980-1993

- Proportion of women among construction workers of analysed public works programmes ranged from 0-59%.
- Women’s domestic work burden is a major hindrance to their participation in public works.
- Most of the women construction workers are young [less than 30 years old] and unmarried.
- Construction jobs which generally correspond with the traditional gender division of labour in agriculture and in the household provide women the best entry point into construction.
- Programme implementers and technicians often set limits to women’s operations on the basis of their own perceptions and reservations which women themselves do not hold or would readily put aside.
- Social norms concerning the gender division of labour are not as rigid as one might assume. There are women in tasks never before imagined.
- Neither the adoption of a participatory approach nor the presence of intermediary organisations to mobilise and represent women automatically leads to their participation.
- Providing for women’s special needs at the work site could make construction work more feasible for women.
- Gender differences with respect to the allocation of labour in domestic work and production and with respect to control and management of resources have a crucial bearing on women’s access to benefits of public works.
- Women appreciate opportunities for wage employment and seek work outside the home in order to meet their financial obligations in the household, to augment household income or to ensure their household’s food security and daily subsistence.

Since Dejardin’s work was published in 1996, there have been various shifts in the thinking about public works and about gender. In line with the thinking at the time, Dejardin’s analysis focused on women. This paper moves the discussion beyond women and looks at how women and men might participate in, and benefit from, public works programmes. It also reflects on how EIIPs can respond more effectively to the needs of both women and men.

Public works programmes have a mixed record of involving women and even where female participation is high, they have a tendency to reinforce gender inequalities. The key questions underlying this study are the following:

1. Have the conceptual shifts in the thinking about the meaning of gender been reflected in public works?
2. Has the broadening of the concept of public works beyond the traditional focus on infrastructure expanded women’s opportunities relative to men’s?
3. Has it influenced the construction of distinct roles, responsibilities and identities for women and men?
4. Has it transformed the dynamics that determine status, power, privileges and entitlements and, therefore, promoted equal participation in, and benefit from, public works by both women and men?
5. Are public works empowering women and promoting gender equality?
6. What are the gender capacities of the key EIIPs actors?
7. What are the lessons learned incorporating the gender dimension in EIIPs? What are the illustratable good practices mainstreaming gender along the different stages of the EIIP project cycle?
8. How can public works promote gender justice?

The study looks at two perspectives of poverty, namely income poverty and gendered time poverty arising out the high burden of women’s unpaid care work. It moves the discussion from women’s representation, which is so often symbolic, to how gender has
been systematically addressed in all aspects of the project cycle of employment guarantee schemes, public employment programmes, food for work, and public works programmes.

**Methodology**

This study involves a review of 42 employment-intensive public works projects implemented in 27 countries between 1995 and 2013. It combines a desk assessment of available documentation with a detailed field study of EIIPs conducted in 2009 in South Africa and Madagascar.

The focus countries are:

- **Africa**: Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Liberia, Madagascar, Mozambique, Mali, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, Tanzania and Uganda.
- **Asia**: Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Myanmar [Burma], and Timor Leste.
- **Latin America**: Ecuador, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay and Peru.
- **The Caribbean**: Haïti

A gender analysis of each project was conducted and this involved a review of:

- Project [formulation] documents [PRODOC] to establish how gender was addressed in the identification, design and appraisal of the public works.
- Mid-point evaluation reports to assess how gender was addressed during the implementation and monitoring of the public works; and
- Evaluation reports—for completed projects—to determine the emerging impact of public works on women’s empowerment and gender justice.

### Table 1. Overview of projects Reviewed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Project</th>
<th>Start Date</th>
<th>End Date</th>
<th>Type of Investment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AFRICA</td>
<td><strong>1. Cameroon</strong></td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>Road works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Programme National de Réhabilitation et Construction Des Routes Rurales au Cameroun - PN2R [National Rural Roads Rehabilitation and Construction Programme in Cameroon]</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>2. Cameroon and Mali</strong></td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Employment generation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Projet d’Appui à la Promotion de l’Emploi et Réduction de la Pauvreté [Support for Promotion of Employment and Poverty Reduction]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>3. Ethiopia</strong></td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Road works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tigray and Wollo Road Rehabilitation Project</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>4. Ghana</strong></td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>LB policy</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Capacity Building Support to the Ghana Social Opportunities Project [GSOP]</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>LB training</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Roads 2000 Nyanza</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Road works &amp; LB training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>5. Kenya</strong></td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>LB capacity building</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Capacity building for the implementation of Roads 2000 programme and the enhancement of the quality and delivery of employment intensive technology training</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Youth Employment for Sustainable Development</td>
<td>March 2012</td>
<td>Dec. 2012</td>
<td>Employment creation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td><strong>6. Liberia</strong></td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Road works &amp; capacity building</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Poverty Reduction through Decent Employment Creation in Liberia</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>7. Madagascar</strong></td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>2009</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>8. Mozambique</strong></td>
<td>1989</td>
<td>2002</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feeder Roads Programme</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Project</td>
<td>Start Date</td>
<td>End Date</td>
<td>Type of Investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>Projet d’appui aux programmes à Haute Intensité de Main d’oeuvre [HIMO]-PROHIMO</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>LB capacity building</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>Quick Impact Employment Creation Project [QIECP] for Youth through Labour-based Public Works</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>Employment creation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>Support to the Implementation of the Expanded Public Works Programme, Limpopo Province</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Road works</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>2009</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>2014</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>Employment Creation in Municipal Services Delivery in Eastern Africa</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>LB training &amp; contracting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Taking the use of Labour Based Technology to Scale</td>
<td></td>
<td>nd</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kakumiro-Mubende Road Rehabilitation</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Road works</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Uganda Transport Rehabilitation Project: Feeder Roads Component [UTRP]</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>Road works</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Road Sector Programme Support [RSPS]</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Road works &amp; training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASIA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burma</td>
<td>Infrastructure and Jobs: Emergency Livelihood Project in Response to Cyclone Nargis in Mawlamyinegyun Region in Myanmar [Burma]</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Infrastructure works</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>IRAP/GIS Project North Western Rural Development Programme</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Road network planning</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Upstream Project. Technical Assistance to the Labour Based Rural Infrastructure Work Programme</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Road works</td>
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<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>Strategy Document for a Labour-based Programme in Jabalpur District, Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>nd</td>
<td>LB strategy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>Nias Rural Access and Capacity Building Project [NIAS-RACBP]</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Road works &amp; LB training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integrated Programme in Aceh and Nias</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employment creation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Youth Employment Promotion Programme</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Employment creation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LATIN AMERICA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>Del Modelo Piloto de Promocion de Microempresas De Mantenimiento Vial y Propuesta de Aplicación en el Ambito Nacional [Promotion of micro enterprises companies for road maintenance]</td>
<td>nd</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Promotion of small-scale contractors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Project</td>
<td>Start Date</td>
<td>End Date</td>
<td>Type of Investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Promoción del Empleo y de la Generación de Ingresos en el ámbito local a través del uso de Tecnologías de Trabajo Intensivas en mano de obra y del desarrollo de Micro y Pequeñas Empresas en Programas de Obras Públicas y Proyectos de Desarrollo Local en Nicaragua [Promotion of employment and income generation through the use of labour intensive technologies and micro and small enterprise development]</td>
<td>Nov. 2001</td>
<td>Oct. 2006</td>
<td>Infrastructure construction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Panama</td>
<td>Fortalecimiento de la equidad para reducir las brechas en los servicios públicos de agua segura y saneamiento mediante el empoderamiento ciudadano en áreas rurales [Strengthening of equity to reduce the gaps in public services of safe water and sanitation through the empowerment of rural citizens]</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Infrastructure development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Paraguay</td>
<td>Fortaleciendo capacidades para la definición y aplicación de políticas de agua potable y saneamiento [Strengthening capacities for the implementation of potable water supply and sanitation policies]</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Capacity building</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Proyecto Especial de Infraestructura de Transporte Rural del Ministerio de Transportes y Comunicaciones [Ministry of Transport and Communications Special Rural Roads Project]</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Road maintenance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Caribbean</td>
<td>Programme de prévention des désastres naturels par la réhabilitation de l'environnement à travers la création d’emplois</td>
<td>20076</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Food/cash for work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Detailed case studies: South Africa and Madagascar**

To explore the issues further, field work was conducted in South Africa and Madagascar, in order to represent Anglophone and Francophone countries. In South Africa, the focus was on the Expanded Public Works Programme [EPWP], which is a government job creation initiative introduced in 2004. In Madagascar, the research involved two EIIP initiatives: Projet HIMO Communal [Labour Intensive Community Project] and Projet HIMO Bâtiments [Labour-Intensive Buildings Project] with the emphasis being on the former, which was implemented between 2006 and June 2009.

The field study area in South Africa was Limpopo province, where the ILO has been providing technical assistance and support for the implementation of infrastructure-related works. Various EPWP projects were visited, including road rehabilitation sites, a tea estate, a home and community-based care [HCBC] project, as well as an early childhood development [ECD] project. In Madagascar, the field work was conducted in Antananarivo, Fort Dauphin and Antsirabe.

The approach was reciprocal, with the consultant clarifying the definition of gender prior to the interviews and discussions. In this way, the study raised awareness among the stakeholders about gender in public works.

Discussions were held with relevant government and EIIP project staff, including ILO advisors. The purpose of this was to seek further clarification on how the gender dimension was addressed in all stages of the EIIP project cycle.
In-depth interviews were conducted with workers, contractors and supervisors, in order to establish the extent to which gender was incorporated during the implementation of the EIIPs. The full list of people is at Annex 1. Separate focus group discussions were conducted with female and male workers in three communities in Madagascar and six in South Africa, in order to establish how the beneficiaries, especially the women, were involved in the EIIP and gauge the related impact on their individual lives, their relationships with their husbands, the welfare of their families and their status in the community.

In order to generate some quantitative data, structured questionnaires were given to female and male workers. A total of 360 valid questionnaires were returned, most of which [58%] had been given to female workers.

The questionnaires included a combination of multiple choice and gradable questions about the workers’ attitudes towards gender and their opinion of the gendered impact of public works. This style was adopted, in order to allow for flexibility in the responses and ease of quantification and, therefore, the analysis of the data.

A workshop-style consultative meeting was conducted with key EPWP actors in Limpopo province in South Africa. The purpose was to discuss and validate the preliminary findings, as well as to obtain further input from the key actors.

It was not possible to conduct a similar workshop in Madagascar due to geographical and time constraints. Unlike South Africa, where the field work was concentrated in one area, in Madagascar the research was conducted in three regions. Table 2 provides a summary of the respondents and interviewees, by study country and gender.

### Table 2. Summary of respondents and interviewees by study country and sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method of data collection</th>
<th>Madagascar</th>
<th>South Africa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
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<tr>
<td>Structured questionnaire</td>
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<td>91</td>
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<tr>
<td>Key informant interviews</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Workshop style meeting</td>
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**Focus group discussions**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Community</th>
<th>Madagascar</th>
<th>South Africa</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contractors</td>
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<td>Community 1</td>
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<td>6</td>
</tr>
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<td>Community 2</td>
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<td>Community 3</td>
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<td>Community 4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community 5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community 6</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Most of the female and male workers interviewed in Madagascar and South Africa are in the 21–40 year age group. Relatively older women than older men are involved in public works, especially in South Africa. In contrast to Dejardin’s 1996 finding, the majority of workers of both genders are married, which suggests that some of the barriers to the participation of married women in public works are being broken.
The majority of female and male workers in Madagascar had from 0–5 years of schooling. In South Africa, the proportion of the workers who had more than five years of schooling was 61 per cent for women and 88 per cent for men. The workers in South Africa appear to be better educated than those in Madagascar. Nevertheless, in both countries an insignificant proportion attained the national average of expected years in school, i.e. nine years for Madagascar and 13 years for South Africa. This suggests that EIIP should factor skills-building into the design of the programmes.

Most of the female workers in Madagascar [93%] and South Africa [81.7%] had never been formally employed. A comparatively lower proportion of male workers in Madagascar [26.4%] than in South Africa [50.8%] had ever been formally employed. Most of those who had worked before had been employed in the informal sector. The female workers in South Africa used to earn between Rand [ZAR] 300–1,200 per month or an average of 800 [$104]. The range for the men was ZAR 240–1,500 per month, with an average of 816 [$110]. In Madagascar, the average sum earned by the women was similar to that earned by the men, i.e. about US$ 32 per month, with a range of Madagascar Aviary [MGA] 15,000–120,000.

Table 3 below summarizes the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th><strong>Madagascar</strong></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th><strong>South Africa</strong></th>
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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td><strong>M</strong></td>
<td><strong>F</strong></td>
<td><strong>M</strong></td>
<td><strong>F</strong></td>
<td><strong>M</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Age [years]</td>
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<tr>
<td>18-20</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>61.9</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>67.0</td>
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<td>41-60</td>
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<td>13.2</td>
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<td>Ever been formally employed?</td>
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<td>38</td>
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<td>Total</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>30</td>
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Focus of the Research

The research focused on the following:

- The quality and extent of gender mainstreaming within public investments in the identification, design, appraisal, implementation, monitoring and evaluation processes.
- Women’s position relative to men as workers, supervisors, entrepreneurs and leaders, as a result of capacity-building and employment opportunities.
- The impact of EIIP on gender equality and women’s empowerment: achievements and unmet gender needs.
- Lessons learned and good practices: how EIIPs have expand income generation, work experience and skills-building opportunities for disadvantaged women and men.
Gender and Poverty

The causes and outcomes of poverty are heavily engendered and yet traditional conceptualizations consistently fail to delineate poverty’s gender dimension, resulting in policies and programmes which fail to improve the lives of poor women and their families.

Lourdes Beneria and Savitri Bisnath [1997]

Employment opportunities are increasingly recognized as one of the main transmission channels between growth and poverty reduction. This is not surprising since the poor derive most of their income from work, either as self-employed workers or as employees, so that the impact of growth on their employment opportunities seems tautologically relevant for poverty reduction. In particular the extent to which growth affects poverty depends on its impact on the average return to labour and employment levels, as well as on how these are distributed among the poor and the non-poor. However, the extent to which growth increases the labour income of the poor depends crucially on: i) the structure of employment; ii) the average returns to labour and their distribution; and iii) the existence of imperfections and frictions in the labour markets. Increasingly, the processes of gender mainstreaming and poverty analysis are taking parallel paths.

Current developments and emerging global data show that poverty and gender are two sides of the same coin. And the coin is development. Empirical data show a very thin line between development and gender injustice and an equally thin line between poverty-related inequalities and inequalities in development. There is growing evidence that gender sensitivity contributes to equitable poverty reduction by ensuring that all segments of the poor, women as well as men, do benefit from development. Gender inequality and poverty are the result of distinct, though interlocking, social relations and processes. Women’s experience of poverty is mediated by the social relations of gender.

On the other hand, gender affects critical factors contributing to poverty risks, namely income, opportunity, security and empowerment. The most common empirical expression of the notion of gender and poverty is the concept of the “feminization of poverty”. This idea encapsulates the estimate that on a world scale, 70 per cent of the 1.3 billion people living in poverty are women. The concept of the feminization of poverty is used as a generic short-hand for a variety of poverty dynamics such as:

- Compared with men, women suffer a higher incidence of poverty;
- Women’s poverty is more severe than men’s; and
- Over time, women are likely to become poorer than men.

The notion of the feminization of poverty as a generic framework has helped draw attention to the reality that poverty affects men and women in different ways, and that gender is a factor—just like age, ethnic factors and geographical location, among others—that influences poverty and increases women’s vulnerability to it.

The vulnerability of women to poverty is strongly linked to:

- The gender division of labour in unpaid and paid work;
- Gender differentiation in access to and decision-making in respect of assets, resources and opportunities; and
- Time poverty related to unremunerated, traditionally assigned tasks such as caring for the sick, home care.

In conclusion, women’s poverty is related not just to lower income levels but is also connected to vulnerable and insecure employment, lack of control over earned income, inequalities in access to productive inputs such as credit, command and the social exclusion that women experience in a variety of economic and political institutions; these elements combine to form the basis of the greater vulnerability of women to chronic poverty. Not only do women have relatively fewer material assets, they have also fewer social assets [the income, goods and services to which people have access through their social relationships] and fewer cultural assets [the formal education and cultural knowledge that enable people perform in the human environment], all of which places them at a greater risk of being poor.

The ILO’s Mandate on Gender Equality

The ILO’s mandate on gender equality is grounded in a number of International Labour Conventions namely the Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 [No. 100]; the Discrimination [Employment and Occupation] Convention, 1958 [No. 111]; the Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 [No. 156]; and the Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 [No. 183]. In addition, it is guided by the 2004 Resolution on Gender Equality, Pay Equity and Maternity Protection as well as the Resolution concerning Gender Equality at the Heart of Decent Work adopted in June 2009.

The ILO policy on gender equality and mainstreaming adopts an integrated approach intended to systematically and formally address the specific and often different concerns of both women and men as well as enable them to participate in, and benefit equally from policy, programmes and activities. Whereas this policy applies to all of ILO’s work, it has particular relevance to its technical cooperation projects and country programmes.

Gender, Time-use and Work

Time, although a critical resource in the development equation, is seldom factored into the analysis of development processes and outcomes. Time-use is a cross-cutting issue and a crucial factor in understanding poverty. Analyses of the time allocation of women and men indicates that women are disproportionately burdened and, as a result, denied access to economic and social opportunities that would otherwise enhance their livelihoods. Time poverty is a major factor constraining women’s economic opportunities because of the existing trade-offs between the household [care] and the market economy. Thus investments in measures that provide an amenable environment for women to perform their reproductive work are critical for their involvement in public works.

There are two main approaches used to define and measure work. One approach, codified in the System of National Accounts [SNA] as revised in 1993, defines “work” in terms of formal and informal market work and non-market subsistence work for the production of goods, and is the basis for calculating the Gross Domestic Product [GDP].

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3Gender Equality and Decent Work; Selected ILO Conventions and Recommendations that promote Gender Equality as of 2012
This approach excludes non-market work producing services for own-consumption within the household.

A second approach defines work and activity in a wider sense. It attempts to capture work activities and labour allocations that are not otherwise included in national accounts or economic analysis. Time use surveys are the principal instrument for capturing this wider approach. Women’s and men’s time use can be broadly classified under market work and non-market work. Production of goods and services for the market is grouped under market economy activities and includes formal and informal employment, and it is counted in the SNA and in the calculation of GDP. The main activities in the non-market or household economy are reproductive work, volunteer work and, to some extent, subsistence production.

The asymmetry in the rights and obligations of men and women is most evident in the patterns of time use differentiated by gender, and the inefficiency and inequity they represent. Women and men play different roles in the market and non-market economy. Men are generally able to focus on a single, largely productive, role. Furthermore, they can play their multiple roles sequentially. Women, in contrast, play their roles concurrently and must balance simultaneous competing claims on limited time for each of them. Women’s labour, time and flexibility are, therefore, much more constrained than is the case for men.

The gender division of labour defines the economic opportunities of women and men, and determines their capacity to allocate labour time for economically productive activities, as well as to respond to economic incentives. Although some of these differences in time allocation can be explained by economic factors, in many societies these are secondary to non-economic factors in determining time use patterns.

Gender-differentiated time-use patterns are affected by many factors, including household composition and life cycle issues [the age and gender composition of household members], seasonal and farm system considerations, regional and geographic factors—including ease of access to water and fuel—the availability of infrastructure, and the distance to key economic and social services such as schools, health centres, financial institutions, and markets. But social and cultural norms also play an important role in defining, and sustaining rigidity in, the gender division of labour. This is most evident in the division of responsibilities between productive [market] and reproductive [household] work. In addition to their prominence in agriculture and in much of the informal sector, women bear the brunt of domestic tasks: processing food crops, providing water and firewood, and caring for the elderly and the sick; this latter activity has assumed much greater significance in the face of the HIV and AIDS pandemic. The time and effort required for these tasks, in the almost total absence of even rudimentary domestic technology is quite significant.

Within gender inequality discourse, gender disparities in labour markets are of particular concern. The adoption of a gender perspective is always essential where there are significant and systemic differences in the positions, opportunities and capabilities of men and women. Under these conditions, without such a gender perspective it is not possible to fully appreciate the efficiency or the equity impacts of changes in economic conditions, or of new policy approaches.

According to the ILO [2012], gender differences in labour force participation and unemployment rates are a persistent feature of global labour markets. The global economic downturn experienced between 2008-2009 resulted in a major weakening of labour markets. The gender gaps in unemployment and employment that trended towards convergence in the period 2002 to 2007, grew again from 2008 to 2012 in many regions.

Between 2002 and 2007, the gender gap in unemployment was constant on average at 0.5 percentage points, with female unemployment in 2007 higher at 5.8 per cent, than male
unemployment which stood at 5.3 per cent. In many developing countries where women work in export-led factories, or in countries where migrant women workers are the backbone of the service industries, women’s jobs took the greatest hit. The financial crisis destroyed 13 million jobs for women. By 2011 women’s and men’s unemployment plateaued at 6.4 per cent, and 5.7 per cent, respectively. ILO projections do not show a significant reduction in this elevated gap by 2013, or even 2017.

The terms upon which women and men compete for employment are set by wider social relations, including cultural, economic and political arenas. These include the assumption that a woman’s primary commitment is to care for a family at home, in the ‘reproductive’ sphere of life, and that each woman depends on a male provider for cash needs. Generally, women are over-represented in the agricultural sector and if the more industrialized regions are excluded, almost half of female employment can be found in this sector alone.

Women are also often in a disadvantaged position when it comes to the share of vulnerable employment [i.e. unpaid family workers and own-account workers] in total employment. Vulnerable employment is characterized by insecurity, low earnings and low productivity. Often, those women who are able to secure the relative comfort of waged and salaried employment do not receive the same remuneration as their male counterparts.

Gender wage differentials may be due to a variety of factors, including the crowding of women in low paying industries and differences in skills and work experience, but they may also be the result of discrimination. The skills label itself is usually arbitrary and culturally defined. Skills associated with women tend to be undervalued. For example, in the case of South Africa in 2000, unskilled women would have to work for an additional four hours every day just to earn the same level of income as men.

Table 4 below presents the trends in the labour force participation rates by gender in the countries included in the study. As the table shows, while the gender gap in some countries appears to be closing, women are still under-represented in the labour force particularly in Guatemala, Honduras, India, Mozambique and Nicaragua, Panama, South Africa and Timor Leste. The gender gap in labour force participation appears to be largest in Latin America and smallest in Asia and the Pacific. The table also shows that, apart from Ecuador and Nicaragua, the proportion of employed women not receiving a wage or salary is higher than the corresponding proportion of men. This implies that providing paid work opportunities to women in EIIP has the potential to close the gender gaps in both the labour force participation and wages/salaries earned by women and men.
### Table 4. Labour Force Participation by Sex and Study Country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study Country</th>
<th>Labour Force Participation Rates [% of population ages 15+]</th>
<th>Proportion of Wage and Salaried Workers [%]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Cambodia</td>
<td>75 86</td>
<td>79 86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Burma [Myanmar]</td>
<td>88 83</td>
<td>87 83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Cameroon</td>
<td>62 76</td>
<td>63 78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Ecuador</td>
<td>58 85</td>
<td>53 83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Ethiopia</td>
<td>77 91</td>
<td>78 90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Ghana</td>
<td>69 73</td>
<td>67 71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Guatemala</td>
<td>43 86</td>
<td>49 88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Haiti</td>
<td>58 69</td>
<td>59 70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. India</td>
<td>36 83</td>
<td>32 82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Indonesia</td>
<td>50 85</td>
<td>51 84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Kenya</td>
<td>61 71</td>
<td>61 71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Liberia</td>
<td>59 63</td>
<td>58 64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Madagascar</td>
<td>84 89</td>
<td>86 90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Mali</td>
<td>36 67</td>
<td>45 77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Mozambique</td>
<td>28 79</td>
<td>27 77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Nicaragua</td>
<td>42 81</td>
<td>45 80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Panama</td>
<td>47 81</td>
<td>49 83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Paraguay</td>
<td>54 86</td>
<td>56 86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Peru</td>
<td>58 79</td>
<td>66 85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Rwanda</td>
<td>86 84</td>
<td>86 85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Senegal</td>
<td>65 88</td>
<td>65 88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Sierra Leone</td>
<td>65 67</td>
<td>66 68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Somalia</td>
<td>37 77</td>
<td>37 76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. South Africa</td>
<td>45 61</td>
<td>47 64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Tanzania</td>
<td>88 91</td>
<td>89 90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Timor Leste</td>
<td>34 69</td>
<td>28 58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Uganda</td>
<td>79 81</td>
<td>77 80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average sub Saharan Africa</td>
<td>61.0 75.9</td>
<td>61.4 76.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average East Asia and Pacific</td>
<td>65.3 81.1</td>
<td>63.8 79.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Latin America &amp; Caribbean</td>
<td>50.7 80.2</td>
<td>51.8 79.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Gender Dimensions in Public Work Programmes

Policy makers began paying attention to the gender dimensions of public works programmes more than two decades ago. Quisumbing and Yisehac [2004, pp.1-2] argue that this attention arose for a number of reasons. Quoting Swamy [2001], they reason: “...if public funds are to be used to provide safety net mechanisms, women should have equal

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5 Source:
access to such risk-coping opportunities”. They continue: “...there is a large and growing literature which indicates that resources in the hands of women have a larger favourable impact on household food security and investments in children’s health, nutrition, and education”. They add that not only do public works schemes provide women with such resources; they may also improve women’s bargaining power within the household. They assert that targeting employment opportunities to women is justifiable in instances where they [women] are more vulnerable to income and other shocks due to the absence of insurance mechanisms in the form of productive assets such as land to be used as collateral.

Women encounter greater social and economic barriers to gaining entry into labour markets, including public work programmes. Assuming a “gender neutral” approach in public works programmes would inevitably work against women because of the longstanding inbuilt institutional barriers and inherent biases in gender relations. Distinct and deliberate measures are needed to ensure that public works programmes provide equal opportunities for women and men.

Gender dimensions in public work programmes encapsulate three main issues:

1. Women’s equitable access to direct wage employment, which would lead to an appropriate gender balance in participation. This requires any constraints on the supply of women’s labour to be addressed.
2. Factors of design and implementation that facilitate or constrain the participation of women.
3. Infrastructure assets and services produced through public work programmes are responsive to the needs of women, as well as to those of men.

The last aspect—to which sufficient attention is often not paid—arises out of the fact that invariably, most of the women’s unpaid work is on account of deficits in public service delivery. Thus infrastructure that enhances access to communal resources such as water, health, agriculture and energy sources is of extreme importance to women.

Antonopoulos [2009], in analyzing the gender dimensions of employment guarantee schemes, underscores the above points by raising two questions that should be considered in the design and execution of gender-responsive labour-intensive programmes.

First is the question: “Under what conditions will women and men be able to register for available jobs on an equitable footing?” The question here is whether gender-differentiated entry barriers and task segregation exist in such programmes, and the extent to which they can be identified and removed at the design phase. The issues that come into play include the location of the work site, the length of working day, equality of pay, the mode of remuneration, flexi-time and child care facilities.

Second is: “To what extent are employment-intensive public works programmes geared towards the production of physical and social infrastructure that can ease women’s unpaid workload?” Addressing this question starts with an acknowledgement that women bear the greatest burden in social reproduction activities. As a consequence, women may prioritize public work programmes that deliver infrastructure and services that ease their unpaid work and, therefore, address the problem of time poverty. Men, on the other hand, might emphasize improved access to economic infrastructure such as roads.

Devereux [2005] comments on the severe deficit of gender-specific impacts of infrastructure created through labour-intensive methods. This indicates the need to develop gender-sensitive models that draw on household data, looking in particular at household time expenditure and how this is related to the absence of basic social and economic infrastructure.
The Integrated Rural Accessibility Planning [IRAP] method, promoted by ILO as a tool for local level planning, is an example of a potentially useful approach through which the time poverty experienced by women can be measured and integrated into the planning and delivery of services over which most time is expended. IRAP is a planning tool used in rural areas, which prioritize investments according to the maximum need and the impact that they will have on local people, either by improving the road network or by improving the distribution and location of the services in a given area.
3 Gender Responsiveness of Eiips

This section presents a summary of the gender responsiveness of EIIPs along different stages of the programme cycle. The detailed country case studies are presented in Annex 2.

Gender Responsiveness of EIIP Identification

Slightly more than half of the EIIPs reviewed recognise that women are disadvantaged relative to men across different aspects of life. Accordingly, they are more vulnerable to poverty and other threats. Women are less educated and less skilled than men and, therefore, have restricted access to employment. Well-targeted, EIIPs have the potential to expand women’s opportunities for employment. By acknowledging these differences EIIPs are likely to explicitly target women amongst the beneficiaries. That way, EIIPs can contribute to poverty reduction in a manner which benefits both women and men. More than one third of the road development EIIPs recognised differences in women’s and men’s mobility patterns and accessibility needs.

Due to their socially assigned responsibility of domestic work, women are time poor. Only 16 per cent of the EIIPs reviewed acknowledged women’s time poverty suggesting that the rest may inadvertently exclude women. Besides, by not recognizing women’s time poverty, EIIPs may exacerbate their work burden.

The foregoing sections show that women experience more and different challenges to men. There is, therefore a need to identify opportunities with the potential to maximize women’s participation in, and benefit from EIIPs. However, less than one fifth of the EIIPs consulted women during the process of project identification suggesting that most of the programmes were non responsive to gender needs.

Figure 1  Proportion of EIIPs Demonstrating Good Gender Equality Enhancing Practices in Programme Identification [%, n=42]

Gender Responsiveness in the Design of EIIPs

As expected, the projects that considered gender in the identification process were more responsive to the needs of women and men alike. More than 50 per cent of the EIIPs took into account gender differences, timing and the choice of media, in order to ensure
equality of opportunities. The NEGRA [India] provided for a crèche on work sites with more than five children below six years of age. The EPWP [South Africa] is guided by a Code of Good Practice which defines quotas of 55 per cent for the employment of women. The MOP-DM [Ecuador] model acknowledged the importance of promoting women only, or predominantly women, small-scale road maintenance enterprises. Indonesia’s rural access and capacity building project provided for equitable access to information as well as gender-balanced recruitment procedures.

The performance of EIIPs is measured against the defined objectives. Therefore, EIIPs which have explicit gender justice objectives are likely to influence the relationships between women and men and contribute to reducing the existing inequalities. Nearly one third of the EIIPs had an objective which influenced gender relations and/or contributed to reducing the gender gap. One of the expected outcomes of the Armenian from the crisis towards decent and safe jobs project was enhanced capacity in integrating gender equality in their work, including maternity protection and reconciliation of work and family. The UN joint programme in Honduras was intended to contribute to raising the national gender development index by 20 per cent.

Gender sensitive indicators are important in tracking the progress of implementation and eventually assessing the impact on gender equality and women’s empowerment. Whereas nearly all the EIIPs reviewed had gender disaggregated data only a few [14%] defined gender sensitive indicators beyond the affirmative action target.

A budget of US$ 9,000 will be allocated to gender specific interventions.

Liberia: PREDEC
Allocating an adequate and dedicated budget for gender-related activities such as: i] provision of separate bathroom facilities; ii] provision of child care support; iii] employment of a gender expert; iv] gender awareness creation and capacity building; v] gender sensitive community mobilisation and participatory planning; etc., ensures their implementation.

Only two EIIPs adopted gender responsive budgeting suggesting a possibility of the proposed gender-equality enhancing interventions in the PRODOCs not being implemented. The two EIIPs demonstrating this good practice are:

a. Ghana: Decent Work Pilot Programme
b. Liberia: Poverty Reduction through Decent Employment Creation

Box 2. GENDER APPRAISAL: Encouraging women’s participation through project redesign

According to the project monitoring reports, women were initially unwilling to present themselves as job-seekers. This was addressed by conducting women-only registration exercises. As a result, by the end of the project’s first year, women constituted 28 per cent of the skilled job seekers. The programme prepared guidelines, in order to promote appropriate employment conditions in the workplace and thus efficiency. Among the issues discussed in the guidelines was gender equality in the workplace. As a result, the participation of women in the labour-force in Nias reached 35 per cent during the initial batch of sub-projects that were implemented. In Aceh, female participation was initially as low as 7 per cent but gradually increased to 25–30 per cent within a year and a half of its implementation.

To ensure that EIIPs do not aggravate inequitable gender relations, it is important to review the project design to assess the potential impacts on women relative to men and define mitigation measures, if any. That way, EIIPs have greater potential of promoting gender equality and empowering women. Despite its significance, only a handful of EIIPs conducted a gender appraisal.
The Peruvian special rural roads project revised its guidelines and procedures for the structure of the micro-enterprises and the requirement of the members “to have experience in bricklaying or civil construction” and to be “literate”, which tacitly disadvantaged women, were removed. The Nias rural access and capacity building project [Indonesia] decided not to use community halls for meetings on account of culturally imposed restrictions on women’s access to public spaces. The YEP [Timor Leste] PRODOC suggested awareness creation amongst the workers about, amongst other issues reproductive rights and domestic violence. The latter possibly as a way of mitigating against the potential gender based violence that sometimes arises as a result of married women earning cash income.

In recognition of sociocultural barriers to women’s benefit from EIIP’s, a stand-alone “Promoting Gender Equity” project was designed and implemented in parallel to the Somalia Employment for Peace Programme. The overall objective of the project was to increase the level and quality of women’s participation in the EPP through training in leadership and communication skills.

**Box 3. Somalia: Employment for Peace – Promoting Gender Equity Project**

The specific objectives of the project were to:

a. Empower women to improve their participation in the identification, planning, design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of infrastructural projects.

b. Public and private sector capacities developed for the creation of sustainable equitable employment.

c. Institute mechanisms to address stereotypes regarding gender roles.

d. Create gender equitable employment opportunities.

**Figure 2. Proportion of EIIPs Demonstrating Good Gender Equality Enhancing Practices in Programme Design [% n=42]**

![Bar chart showing gender equality enhancing practices](image)

**Gender Responsiveness in EIIP Implementation, Monitoring and Reporting**

A well-planned, time- and resource-bound and verifiable gender strategy or implementation plan is key to the successful integration of a gender dimension in EIIP implementation, monitoring and reporting. A strategy is important because it provides practical guidance on “how to” mainstream gender in EIIPs. Only three programmes
[Indonesia: Nias rural access and capacity building project, Liberia: PREDEC, and Timor Leste: YEP] elaborated strategies to this effect suggesting that many of the EIIPs may have lacked a gender direction.

It is a contractual obligation to provide facilities that enable women to balance their work in the EPWP with their domestic responsibilities. The contractors are expected to provide separate toilet facilities, female and male condoms...The bills of quantities include estimates to cater for issues such as gender equitable mobilisation and recruitment of labour. The contractors are happy with these contractual obligations because they do not affect their profit margins.

South Africa: EPWP

The project generated 750,243 workdays, which were distributed almost equally between women and men. This was because of a clause in the contract document, which required the contractors to recruit equal numbers of women and men.

Cambodia: Upstream Project

Making gender a contractual obligation improves the likelihood of it being addressed during implementation. In practical terms this means that contract documents explicitly incorporate the relevant gender equality issues. Likewise, the Bills of Quantity [BoQs] are expected to include sociological aspects. Only 14 per cent of relevant EIIPs were responsive to this aspect. For instance, the BoQs for contracts under South Africa’s EPWP include estimates to cater for social issues such as gender equitable mobilization and the recruitment of labour. The contractors are also obliged to follow the “equal pay for equal work done” principle, irrespective of gender.

One of the persistent challenges of mainstreaming gender is the question: “How do we do it [mainstream gender]?” Accordingly, a key success factor is having programme staff, consultants, contractors and other actors with the relevant capacities to implement EIIPs in a gender responsive manner. A good practice, at the global level is the presence of an officer within the ILO EIIP Unit who provides technical backstopping to all the programme countries. The support involves, *inter alia*, gender capacity building.

Close to 28 per cent of the EIIPs demonstrated that the implementers had the necessary capacities to execute the respective projects in a gender sensitive manner. This suggests a need for gender capacity building.

Retrogressive cultural practices, and sometimes religion, define separate spaces for women and thus deny them an opportunity to participate in EIIP on an equal footing with men. In recognition of this, more than one quarter of the EEIPs incorporated gender in community mobilisation and awareness creation. Some involved government and nongovernmental gender justice actors such as ministries of gender as well as women’s groups.

As table 5 below shows, the channels of communicating information about the public works are important. Community leaders are key sources of information for both women and men. Women’s groups are important in mobilizing women for public works. Another useful source of information for men is the radio. The women said that the radios are owned and controlled by the men. While the women may have access to the radio, sometimes they do not have the time to listen to it.
Table 5. Sources of Information about Employment Opportunities in Public Works by Study Country and Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Information</th>
<th>Madagascar</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>South Africa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>No. %</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>No. %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>23 19</td>
<td>2 2</td>
<td>5 5</td>
<td>7 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>12 13</td>
<td>3 3</td>
<td>21 36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community leader</td>
<td>50 42</td>
<td>76 84</td>
<td>49 53</td>
<td>30 52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women's group</td>
<td>45 38</td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>36 39</td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>118</strong></td>
<td><strong>91</strong></td>
<td><strong>93</strong></td>
<td><strong>58</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some EIIPs recruited staff to support gender mainstreaming within the programmes. Others had dedicated gender units to support the process. Their responsibilities varied from advising and supporting programme staff to monitoring and documenting progress of achievement of defined gender outcomes. EIIPs that involved sociologists or gender specialists were most likely to report on the qualitative aspects of the project. Again, the EIIP gender focal person plays an overarching technical oversight role.

Nearly one third of the EIIPs provided for equitable recruitment of both women and men in capacity building and employment. The measures included involving women’s groups in the mobilisation of the participants/workers; using information channels which reach women and affirmative action for women.

Other measures included providing space, i.e. separate rooms, and toilet and shower facilities for women during training. The allocation of space was managed in a flexible manner, in order to accommodate the specific number of female trainees there at the time.

Due to women’s reproductive role, they have heavier time commitments than men. EIIPs such as South Africa’s EPWP and Uganda’s rehabilitation of Kakumiro-Mubende road which offer flexibility in the execution of the work such as using task based system and flexible working hours are more accommodative of women. The two EIIPs were also reported to use gender sensitive language i.e. “works in progress” instead of “men at work” as a way of encouraging women’s participation.

By providing childcare facilities, EIIPs such as the Post San Project [Guatemala] and Nias rural access and capacity building project [Nias rural access and capacity building project [Indonesia] free women to participate in public works. Additional practices to address would-be barriers to the participation of women include: i) offering maternity leave; ii) zero tolerance of sexual harassment [Mozambique: Rural roads programme]; and iii) providing separate rooms, and toilet and shower facilities during the training and construction/rehabilitation works [South Africa: EPWP, Uganda: RSPSs].

In order to maximize the benefits of the public works programmes, the EPWP and the Indonesian integrated programme in Aceh and Nias incorporated some training aspects. The intention was to offer the workers alternative skills, in order to strengthen their participation in the public works and broaden their employment choices. The Indonesian case is a good example of the direct involvement of women contracted formally in the execution of works, or indirectly by helping them to generate income through the sale of goods and services, thus responding to a demand generated by the work execution.

To track the progress of the achievement of gender-equity goals, target and achievement data should be sex-disaggregated data. More than 60 per cent of the projects reviewed provided sex disaggregated monitoring data. There was, however, no indication
of whether the female beneficiaries or their representatives were directly involved in performance monitoring.

**Box 4. Ethiopia’s PSNP: Unique Case of Good Gender Equality Enhancing Practices**

The PSNP design allows for:

a. Shorter working hours for women who have family duties to attend to.
b. Targets female headed households (FHHs), women in polygamous households and divorced women;
c. Provides direct support for pregnant and nursing women in households that have no available labour.
d. Provides for childcare at work sites.
e. Lighter tasks for women.
f. Careful consideration of women’s and men’s needs in annual public works planning,
g. Gender balance in work force but also women-only teams for certain projects.
h. Women team leaders,
i. Flexibility in reporting times i.e., allows women to report later and leave earlier than men.

Source: PSNP PIM Gender and Social Development [2010]

Some projects did not implement the affirmative action as provided for in the design. For instance, in the EPWP [South Africa] all the workers met reported that they had been recruited on a “first come, first served basis”. In addition, there was no mention of quotas being defined for women and other disadvantaged groups. Managers and supervisors alike seemed to be unaware of the provision. For instance, the site agent of Sefofotse Street Paving stated: “I have been working on the EPWP contract for seven months but I am not aware of the quotas defined for women and other disadvantaged groups”.

All projects appeared to adopt the principle of “Equal Pay for Equal Work Done”. According to the available information, the projects applied the same task rate for women and men. Nevertheless, many of them assigned different activities to women and men, based on the argument that women cannot perform tasks such as stone breaking.

Figure 3. Proportion of EILPs Demonstrating Good Gender Equality Enhancing Practices in Programme Implementation and Monitoring [%; n=37]
Box 5. Gendered Outcomes

As a result of the programme, the state ratified ILO Convention No. 183 [Maternity Protection Convention] and Convention No. 156 [Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention] in 2012.

**Kazakhstan:** From the Crisis towards Decent and Safe Jobs

National statistical data collection instruments [i.e. household surveys] were reviewed and revised for improved gender sensitivity.

**Honduras:** Joint UN Programme

The programme challenged gender stereotypes and empowered women. Amongst other things, men are more supportive of women’s participation in the project activities and they also participate in household chores.

Further, it minimised the time and the risks involved in water collection. The improved sanitation has afforded women and girls some much needed privacy and convenience.

It also promoted women’s leadership in the programme as well as in community structures.

It also made visible the fact that gender intersects with other inequalities to disadvantage women. Informed by a gender analysis, the programme was able to identify and effectively address women’s vulnerability in indigenous communities.

**Panama:** Joint UN MDG Fund Programme

The female beneficiaries reported that their participation in the project had empowered them in several ways. First, they were able to earn an income which enabled them to accumulate capital to start small income generating activities. This is especially significant considering the traditional restrictions on women accessing credit from formal institutions. Second, as a result of the training, they were exploring the possibility of establishing micro-enterprises to manufacture pavers, bricks etc. for the construction sector.

**Senegal:** PROHIMO

Gender Equality in EIIP Evaluation

To conduct an evaluation in a manner which considers the gendered outcomes of an EIIP, the team should have the necessary gender capacities. Furthermore, the evaluation ToRs should explicitly require assessing the gender dimensions of the impact of the respective EIIP. The evaluation reports of all the recent EIIPs made reference to the “ILO Guidance Note 4. Integrating Gender Equality in Monitoring and Evaluation of Projects.” Accordingly, these evaluations [81% of completed EIIPs] gave due attention to gender albeit with different levels of detail.

Whereas some EIIPs defined gender specific objectives as well as gender sensitive indicators, only a few reported the extent to which infrastructure assets and services produced through EIIPs:

a. Promoted the institutionalization of gender in national policy [i.e. Kazakhstan: From the Crisis towards Decent and Safe Jobs, Honduras: Joint UN Programme]

b. Addressed women’s time poverty [i.e. Panama: Joint UN MDG Fund Programme]

c. Challenged gender stereotypes and promoted more equitable division of labour between women and men [i.e. Honduras: Joint UN Programme, Panama: Joint UN MDG Fund Programme]

d. Promoted women’s participation in leadership positions in EIIPs as well as in community structures [i.e. Panama: Joint UN MDG Fund Programme, Liberia: PREDEC, Madagascar: HIMO communal]

e. Strengthened women’s relative to men’s security of access to resources. [i.e. Senegal: PROHIMO, Liberia: PREDEC]
Box 6. Case of Best Practice of Ensuring that the Gender Dimension is Integral and Explicit in all Stages of the EIIP Cycle

The programme demonstrates one of the best cases of mainstreaming gender in all stages of the EIIP cycle. Gender was systematically incorporated in programme identification, design, appraisal, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, including reporting:

- All the defined programme objectives, outcomes, outputs, activities and indicators had a gender dimension.
- Programme implementation was undertaken according to the [gender responsive] design with all the activities paying specific attention to women, as appropriate.
- The programme adopted an inclusive strategy which ensured that vulnerable young women were direct beneficiaries of the joint programme.
- Whereas the programme did not have a gender strategy, the implementers adopted a gendered approach to the training thus contributing to the sustainable participation of women in the labour market.
- The monitoring and reporting was against the defined gender sensitive indicators.
- The evaluation reported outcomes against the gender indicators and it included a qualitative assessment of the impact.

Honduras: Joint Youth Employment Programme

Summary of Gender Responsiveness of the EIIPs Reviewed

Slightly more than one quarter of the EIIPs demonstrated some degree of systematic gender mainstreaming. These include:

- Ghana: Decent Work pilot programme [2003-2004]
- India: National Rural Employment Guarantee Act or NREGA [2005-]
- Indonesia: Integrated programme in Aceh and Nias [2009-2012]
- Liberia: Poverty Reduction through Decent Employment Creation [2007-2010]
- Panama: Strengthening of equity to reduce the gaps in public services of safe water and sanitation through the empowerment of rural citizens [2009-2012]
- Somalia [2007-2012]
- South Africa: EPWP [2005-2010]
- Timor Leste: Youth Employment Promotion Programme [2008-2012]
- Uganda: Road Sector Programme Support [1999-2007]

The assumption across a significant number of the EIIPs reviewed was that from a gender equality perspective, public works are neutral. There was no evidence that any of the following projects had been informed by a gender analysis:

- Cambodia: IRAP/GIS [2003-2006]
- Ethiopia: Tigray and Wollo Road Rehabilitation Project [1998-2000]
- Ghana: Capacity Building Support to the Ghana Social Opportunities Project [2011-2013]
- India: The strategy for a labour-based programme [2002-nd]
- Madagascar: HIMO Communal [2006-2009]
- Madagascar: HIMO Bâtiments [2008-2012]
- Tanzania: Employment creation in municipal services delivery [2004-2006]
- Tanzania: Taking the use of labour-based technology to scale [2004-nd]
Table 6. Summary of Proportion of EIIPs Demonstrating Various Good Practices along the Different Stages of the Programme Cycle

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Good Practices in Addressing Gender along the EIIP Cycle</th>
<th>% of EIIPs [n=43]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>IDENTIFICATION</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Consult women and men to identify their needs</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Recognise gender differences in poverty levels and/or vulnerability</td>
<td>51.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Acknowledge women’s time poverty</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Recognize differences in women’s and men’s mobility patterns and accessibility needs</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Acknowledge gender differences in education and thus employability</td>
<td>32.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Identify opportunities for women’s participation/underscores the need for affirmative action for women</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DESIGN AND APPRAISAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. EIIP has a gender justice objective and/or contributes to reducing the gender gap</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. EIIP design responds to women’s as well as men’s needs</td>
<td>51.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. PRODOC includes gender sensitive indicators for project monitoring and review</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. The budget responds to the gender responsive actions identified</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Potential gender risks and mitigation measures identified</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IMPLEMENTATION AND MONITORING</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Gender strategy elaborated</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Gender responsive contract documents</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Implementers with gender capacity</td>
<td>29.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Conduct gender awareness creation of communities and project staff</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Technical oversight for gender mainstreaming</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Gender equitable recruitment of workers and training participants</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Provide gender-sensitive work environment</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Collect and report sex disaggregated project performance data</td>
<td>64.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EVALUATION</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Gender consideration in evaluation</td>
<td>84.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Gender reporting beyond numbers [of women and men beneficiaries]</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4 Impact Of Eiips On Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment: Achievements and Unmet Gender Needs

Introduction

As indicated earlier, field work was conducted in South Africa and Madagascar. In South Africa, the focus was on the Expanded Public Works Programme [EPWP] and in Madagascar, the research involved two EIIP initiatives: Projet HIMO Communal [Labour Intensive Community Project] and Projet HIMO Bâtiments [Labour-Intensive Buildings Project] with the emphasis being on the former, which was implemented between 2006 and June 2009. This chapter largely focuses on the findings from the field work with a few illustrations from the desk review, as appropriate.

Table 7 below shows varying levels of impact on female and male workers in Madagascar and South Africa. The impact appears to be bigger in South Africa than in Madagascar because workers in the former are employed for relatively longer periods [see table 8] with significantly more pay. The biggest impact for the Malagasy women is their increased participation in community leadership. The women also had the opportunity to learn new skills and participate in household decision-making. For the men, the HIMO project helped them cater better for their family needs, i.e. providing for their families, paying their children’s school fees and buying food and clothing, as well as labour- and energy-saving technology.

Table 7. Impact of HIMO Communal [Madagascar] and EPWP [South Africa] by Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The work has helped me to:</th>
<th>Madagascar</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>South Africa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Pay school fees for my children</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
<td>46</td>
<td>52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Access healthcare</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
<td>52</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Improve household nutrition</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>54</td>
<td></td>
<td>61</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Buy clothing</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>45</td>
<td></td>
<td>73</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Family provisions</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>62</td>
<td></td>
<td>57</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Pay for household help</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Buy labour-time-saving technology</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Start a business</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Improve my business</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>38</td>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Learn new skills</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
<td>58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Participate in family decision making</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td>55</td>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Become a community leader</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>47</td>
<td></td>
<td>42</td>
<td>41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Manage my time better</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td>66</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Start saving</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>44</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Acquire land</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>32</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Gain work experience</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td>81</td>
<td>54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The biggest impacts for the South African women included the opportunity to gain work experience, improve their time management skills and become more self-confident. For the men, the biggest impact was learning new skills, gaining work experience, paying school fees for their children.
Impact on labour and time use

Public works have offered many poor and illiterate women, and men, a chance to work. Women have had an opportunity to enter traditionally male-dominated construction work and to acquire on-the-job skills, which they can apply to other work. As table 12 shows, EIIPs offer the people an opportunity to work for a period ranging from a few weeks to a few months. The average duration for gang leaders and people employed in non-traditional public works sectors such as the tea estates, ECD and HCBC in South Africa, is significantly higher. In Madagascar, slightly more women appeared to be employed for longer durations than men. The situation is South Africa appears to be the reverse. Some of the projects such as the HIMO [Madagascar], EPWP [South Africa], the Indonesian and Nicaraguan cases offered the workers complementary training. The latter two organized targeted training for women, thus enhancing their employability.

- The gang leaders were trained in project management and budgeting. We are using the skills to improve our day-to-day management.
- This was the first time for me to work. It was a good experience for me. This is something I can quote on my CV.... 'I was a team leader of a project!!!' Said with a lot of pride and sense of achievement.
- I had a chance to take part in logistics and supplies procurement so I can apply for a job as a storekeeper or some other position in logistics.

Female gang leaders, Madagascar

Table 8. Duration of Work in EIIP in Madagascar and South Africa, by Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration of work in EIIP</th>
<th>Madagascar</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;1 month</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3 months</td>
<td></td>
<td>54</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6 months</td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-12 months</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;12 months</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>118</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 9 below shows, the channels of communicating information about the public works are important. Community leaders are key sources of information for both women and men. Women's groups are important in mobilizing women for public works. Another useful source of information for men is the radio. The women said that the radios are owned and controlled by the men. While the women may have access to the radio, sometimes they do not have the time to listen to it.

Table 9. Sources of Information about Employment Opportunities in Public Works by Study Country and Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of information</th>
<th>Madagascar</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>South Africa</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend</td>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community leader</td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women's group</td>
<td></td>
<td>45</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>118</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A considerable proportion [42%] of the EIIPs reviewed defined quotas for women’s participation and/or benefit ranging from 10 per cent for the Peru Rural Roads Programme.
to 50 per cent for Timor Leste [YEP] and Cambodia [IRAP/GIS]. The achievement rates varied with women constituting 30 per cent or more of the beneficiaries for more than half of the EIIPs reporting sex disaggregated data. This implies that, in terms of numbers, women can, to some extent, influence the public works agenda.

The table suggests that women’s representation in public works is improving with time. There is a higher presence of women in the projects implemented in the 2000’s than in those implemented in the 1990s.

While some numbers are provided in the reports, there is no systematic reporting on the number of female and male workers in supervisory roles or those involved as contractors and consultants.

Affirmative action also appears to have been effective in public works. Nearly all EIIPs that reported a higher proportion of women were providing for affirmative action for women.

Additional measures which encouraged women’s participation included:

- Provision of child care facilities
- Use of task rather than daily rates
- Flexible working hours
- Use of a personnel responsible for gender issues
- Women-only work sites
- Involving women’s group in the mobilisation of the communities and the recruitment of the workers.

### Table 10. Average Female Representation of Workers by Country and Project

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>EIIP</th>
<th>Start</th>
<th>End</th>
<th>Target [%]</th>
<th>Achievement [%]</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Timor Leste</td>
<td>YEP [Beneficiaries of Youth Career and Employment Centres]</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>80.6(^6)</td>
<td>No explanation for the under-representation of male youth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>Employment for Peace Programme</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>• women’s group involved in implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• gender capacity building of implementing team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timor Leste</td>
<td>YEP [Literacy and numeracy training programme]</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>61(^7)</td>
<td>80.5</td>
<td>No explanation for the under-representation of male youth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>PPDNRE [people mobilised to participate in the programme]</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>• gender sensitive indicators defined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• women targeted as beneficiaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Upstream Project</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Clause in the contract to recruit equal numbers of women and men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>NREGA</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td></td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>49.5(^8)</td>
<td>• recognition of single persons as a ‘household’, making it possible for single women including widows to access work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• one third of all workdays are reserved for women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• a crèche to be provided if there are more than five children under 6 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^6\) By the time of the mid-point evaluation

\(^7\) By the time of the mid-point evaluation

\(^8\) By February 2011
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>EIIP</th>
<th>Start</th>
<th>End</th>
<th>Target [%]</th>
<th>Achievement [%]</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>PPDNRE [proportion of jobs created]</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>45</td>
<td></td>
<td>Same as above</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Uganda       | Rehabilitation of Kakumiro-Mubende road                              | 1999   | 2000   | 50         | 45              | • socio-economist and community roads officer  
• mobilisation and sensitisation of women and men  
• quota of 50% women’s participation  
• flexible working hours  
• task rather than daily rate |
| Somalia      | Employment for Peace Programme [work days]                           | 2008   | 2010   | 41.6       |                 | • women’s group involved in implementation  
• gender capacity building of implementing team |
| South Africa | EPWP [infrastructure]                                                | 2004   | 2014   | 55         | 40              | • ECD component for child care  
• affirmative action for women  
• flexible working hours  
• community liaison officer  
• participatory prioritisation of investments |
| Guatemala    | Post Sans                                                            | 2005   | 2006   | 40         |                 | • targeting young unmarried mothers  
• providing day-care centres for young children with paid baby sitters  
• paying specific attention to women during the payment process [through the bank] |
| Nicaragua    | Economic governance in the water and sanitation sector               | 2009   | 2012   | 40         |                 | Programme management commitment to gender mainstreaming |
| Indonesia    | Nias Rural Access and Capacity Building Project                      | 2009   | 2012   | 30         | 39              | • gender balanced recruitment procedures  
• specific labour recruitment clauses in contracts  
• setting a minimum target of 30% employment of women |
| Nicaragua    | Employment and income generation                                     | 2001   | 2006   | 38         |                 | Targeted training for women |
| Madagascar   | HIMO Communal                                                        | 2006   | 2009   | 37.5       |                 | • socio-economist charged with ensuring women’s participation  
• women’s organisations involved in sensitising and mobilising the communities  
• single women and female-headed households given priority in recruitment |
| Ecuador      | Maintenance Department, Ministry of Public Works                    | nd     | 2003   | 35.3       |                 | Promotion of women-only/predominantly women firms |
| Kenya        | Capacity building for the implementation of Roads 2000               | 2009   | 2012   | 34         |                 | ILO Technical Advisor assigned the responsibility of promoting gender equality |
| Indonesia    | Integrated Programme in Aceh and Nias                               | 2006   | 30-70  | 33         |                 | • women-only registration exercises  
• quotas defined for women’s entrepreneurship development  
• women workers only work sites |
| Senegal      |                                                                      |         | 30     | 30         |                 | No explanation |
| Burma        | Infrastructure and jobs                                              | 2008   | 2009   | 30         |                 | Daily sex disaggregated records were kept per activity |
| Kenya        | Roads 2000                                                           | 2005   | 2010   | 30         | 20-30           | • inclusion of women’s groups in prioritization workshops  
• target of minimum of 30% women’s representation in the workforce  
• reporting on gender targets for contractors and workforce  
• gender specialist during programme implementation. |
| Liberia      | Poverty Reduction through Decent Employment Creation                 | 2007   | 2010   | 30-50      | 29              | • affirmative action for women  
• elaborated gender action plan  
• dedicated budget for gender mainstreaming |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>EIIP</th>
<th>Start</th>
<th>End</th>
<th>Target [%]</th>
<th>Achieve-ment [%]</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>RSPS</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Non compliance to gender equality contractual obligations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timor Leste</td>
<td>YEP [Youth LB component]</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>No explanation for the under-representation of female youth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timor Leste</td>
<td>TIM works</td>
<td></td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Minimum quota of 30% women's participation defined</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Peru          | Special rural roads project   | 2001    | 2002   | 10         | 22               | • defined target for women's participation  
|               |                [routine road maintenance] |         |         |             | • removal of the requirement of the members to have experience in bricklaying or civil construction and to be literate |
| Mozambique    | Rural Roads Programme         | 1989    | 2002   | 25         | 19               | Establishment of provincial Gender Units responsible for:  
|               |                |         |         |             | • Promoting women's participation in labour-based work  
|               |                |         |         |             | • Registering women for the road works  
|               |                |         |         |             | • Addressing issues of sexual harassment.  
|               |                |         |         |             | • Community gender awareness creation to facilitate the recruitment of female labour. |
| Madagascar    | HIMO bâtiment [buildings]     | 2008    | 2012   | 17         |                  | Few women with specialised skills such as masonry                           |
| Ethiopia      | Tigray and Wollo Road         | 1998    | 2000   | 17         |                  | No provision for women to bring their babies to the work sites              |
|               | Rehabilitation Project        |         |         |             |                  |                                                                 |
| Sierra Leone  | Quick Impact Employment      | 2010    | 2013   | 12         |                  | Lack of gender strategy to guide targeting                                   |
| Uganda        | UTRP                          | 1995    | 2001   | 30         | 8                | Gender neutral recruitment                                                  |
| Ecuador       | Local roads unit              | nd      | 2003   |            | 6.5              | Stereotypes such as road works i] require physical force; ii] women's presence on the road results into their spouses being jealous and iii] it is dangerous for women to be on the road |
| Peru          | Promotion of small scale      | 1995    | 2002   | 3.7        |                  | No affirmative action for women                                              |
|               | road maintenance contractors |         |         |             |                  |                                                                 |
| Ecuador       | ILO CONCOPE                   | nd      | 2003   |            | 0                | Same as above                                                               |
| Kenya         | Youth employment for          | 2012    | 2012   | 30         |                  | No data                                                                     |
|               | sustainable development       |         |         |             |                  |                                                                 |
| Kenya         | Sida-funded Nyanza R2000      |         |         | 50         |                  | No data                                                                     |
|               | [trained contractors]         |         |         |             |                  |                                                                 |
| Peru          | Special rural roads project   | 2001    | 2002   | 20         |                  | No data                                                                     |
|               |                [road committees] |         |         |             |                  |                                                                 |

**Box 7. A day in the life of a female EPWP worker**

Women’s work doesn’t end...before I started working on the road, I used to wake up at 6.00 a.m. nowadays, I wake up at 5.00 a.m. do a bit of work and leave for the site. I get to the site at around 6.30 a.m. It takes me about 30 minutes to walk to the site. I do most of the work over the weekend. I no longer rest because when I go back home, I do some of the work which I used to do during the day.

The work on the site is very tough and by the time we go back home, we are too tired to do household work. The supervisor assigns us [women and men] the same tasks. We start the work at 7.00 a.m. and leave at 4.00 p.m. We have a one-hour break. My husband works away from home. He usually returns over the weekend so he cannot assist me with the household work.

Female worker, Road works, Limpopo province, South Africa

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9 By the time of the mid-point evaluation
EIIPs typically offer localized employment. The recruitment of the workers is from within an average walking time of 30 minutes or a radius of 3km. Where this is coupled with provision of childcare facilities, they serve as a significant incentive for women's participation. The challenge is that the workers spend anywhere from 6–10 hours on the work sites. As indicated earlier, women, especially those in Africa, work longer hours than men and most of this work is unpaid. The World Bank estimates this to be between 10-18 hours. Most of this work is repetitive and labour intensive.

Antonopoulos’ [2008] analysis of women and men’s contribution to unpaid household work by economic activity confirms this. Figure 4 below shows that across all categories analyzed, women spend significantly more time on unpaid family work than the men. The economically active men spend slightly more than one third of the time that the women do on this work. The analysis also shows that irrespective of employment status, men spend almost the same amount of time on water collection and social care. Considering that a day is not elastic, spending eight hours on an EPWP means a longer working day and more fragmented time use, especially for the woman. Whereas the EPWP was designed in such a way as to avoid intensifying a women’s work burden, its implementation was not always according to plan.

Through providing child care facilities and home and community-based care, the ECD and HCBC component of the EPWP barely mitigates against this, given that unemployed women spend slightly more than one sixth of their time on social care. The ECD and HCBC staff usually works from 07.00 to 16.00, to allow the people to report to work on time. This implies that while the EPWP may be facilitating women’s entry into the labour market, it may inadvertently be exacerbating time poverty amongst the ECD and HCBC caretakers.

Figure 4. Unpaid household work in South Africa by Status of Economic Activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Employed</th>
<th>Unemployed</th>
<th>Not Econ. Active</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Male</strong></td>
<td>1 hr. 25 min.</td>
<td>3 hrs. 43 min.</td>
<td>1 hr. 47 min.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Female</strong></td>
<td>2 hrs. 1 min.</td>
<td>4 hrs. 41 min.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Antonopoulos Antonopoulos Employment Guarantee Policies and Gender Equality: A presentation at the IDRC International Conference on Decentralization, Local Power and Women’s Rights, Mexico City, November 18-21, 2008

In Madagascar, workers are expected to report at 07.00 and leave at 17.00 and some of the workers argue that their wages are hardly enough to cater for their food and so they cannot afford to pay for house/farm help. Many cope by waking up earlier and also using the rest day, or Sunday, to “catch-up” with housework. There was no marked difference between Madagascar and South Africa. Only a few female and male workers interviewed indicated that they used their earnings to pay for household help or for labour- and/or timesaving technology. Some of the female workers in Madagascar cope with the extra work burden by paying other people to do some of the work for them. The payment is either in kind or in cash of MGA 200-400 [≈US$ 0.1-0.4] per day. Time poverty also
affects the female contractors: “I wish HIMO could give me work near my home because I am responsible for my children and my home. It is very difficult for me to take on assignments which are far away from my home” [Female buildings contractor].

In Uganda, a very small proportion of the female [6%] and the male [10%] workers on the Kakumiro-Mubende road project reported having spent some of their earnings on farm labour. As indicated earlier, the female workers in South Africa reported an improvement in time management: “We have learnt to plan our day” [see table 8]. The female workers in Madagascar have also: “changed the way we work...we have learned to prioritize. We have learnt to be more innovative. Our children are baby sat by the elders or the unemployed family members.”

Profiles of female contractors

Public works have also provided opportunities for women to become entrepreneurs. The boxes below summarize some of the profiles of the female contractors.

**Box 8. Profile 1**

In 2006, I learnt that there were opportunities for emerging contractors under the EPWP. Since I had a construction firm, I applied to join the learnership programme.

We were trained for six months. After the training, I spent one year without a contract. I got a contract in 2007 and then a year in between without work. It was very tough for me the first time around. I was young female, fresh from school and without any experience in labour-based works. I have since acquired the required experience.

Johanna Kobe, Boka Construction- South Africa

**Box 9. Profile 2**

I am 32 years old, married with three children. My husband is a carpenter. I studied management. I became a contractor because I had some knowledge about buildings. I do not have a diploma in buildings but I used to work with my brother who was an engineer. In 2006, I decided to move on. In 2007, I was selected for training by BIT [ILO] and got my first contract in 2008. I have so far received two contracts worth about MGA 57,000,000/= [=USD 23,500].

I am a businessperson so I know how to manage the workers. I am experienced in managing businesses. Being a female contractor is very demanding but I have learnt how to balance my work and my family life. When you talk about HIMO bâtiment, people think of men. I have decided to use my mind in order to be competitive.

People also think that women cannot be contractors or cannot manage big money. My knowledge about buildings and business has improved. I am aware of the market prices and I know how to get things done. I lead a very busy life but I have learnt to manage my time better.

My husband supports me. He is now a technical director in the company. Men have had more experience so business is much easier for them. The message I have for the women out there is that things are changing. In Madagascar, women used to be perceived as pieces of furniture in the home. This is no more. Women can be home makers and builders at the same time. Women should have a thirst for information in order to take up their place in the world.

Isabelle Rafaralalainianarisoa, Director ECGE Company - Madagascar

**Impact on Resources**

The EIIPs give women and men the chance to earn an income for some time, albeit with a rate of pay lying at the lowest end of the wage scale. The pay varies from country to country and from project to project. In Madagascar, it is MGA 1,500–2,000 [=US$ 0.75–1.00] per day and in the South African Limpopo province, it is ZAR 50–100 [=US$ 6.5–13]. In South Africa, the workers make, on average, almost twice the amount they used to earn before joining the EPWP, while in Madagascar there is apparently no significant difference between the wages earned.
The South African case is exceptional. Typically, public works pay an average of less than US$ 2 per day, i.e. a maximum total of US$ 120 for a worker employed for a period of three months. This, in itself, is not enough to bring about a transformation of the lives of women and men. Complementary activities such as training do maximize the impact of the EIIPs. A few projects such as the EPWP [South Africa], HIMO Bâtiments and Communal [Madagascar], the integrated development programme [Indonesia] and the Ugandan Kakumiro-Mubende road project, attempted to promote sustainable benefits through training, savings schemes and investment. Indeed, a few of the income-generating activities and revolving savings and credit schemes started during the project in Uganda have survived to this day. The Kakumiro-Mubende road project also conducted gender awareness creation amongst the female and male members of the community, which was intended to underline the importance of women’s control over their income. The EPWP provided some of the workers with training on how to manage their income.

Different societies assign women and men distinct responsibilities and their spending patterns appear to reflect this. Figure 5 below shows that most women who worked on the Uganda Kakumiro-Mubende road spent their earnings on family food provisions [90%]; household items [81%] and health and education [74%] while for the most part, men used their money for leisure [96%] specifically drink, cigarettes and payment of dowry. The chart also shows that more women than men saved part of their earnings, investing in businesses and productive assets.

In contrast, as table 7 above suggests, in Madagascar and to some extent South Africa, the responsibility for paying school fees appears to be assigned to the men. Men are also apparently responsible for family provisions as this was their number one spending priority. As regards savings, neither the female nor the male workers in Madagascar earned enough to save. However, a significant number were able to improve their businesses and in the case of some men, even start up new businesses [30%]. Almost half of the female and male workers in South Africa were able to save and this enabled them, especially the women [32%], to acquire land.

The participation of women in HIMO has not impacted on their ownership of land, which is the primary source of livelihood in Madagascar. Six per cent of the female workers in Uganda indicated that they had used some of their earnings to purchase land, which is also the key productive resource in the country.

Discussions with a women’s group in Fort Dauphin revealed that while the average duration of employment in HIMO Communal was supposed to be four months, in order to spread the work opportunities fairly, workers would be employed for a maximum of two months. Some workers indicated that they had been employed for just a week, suggesting that HIMO Communal may not have improved people’s access to cash income in a significant manner. According to some of the workers interviewed: “When people work for three months, all they can do is improve their nutrition and clear their debts. If they are given a chance to work for 5–6 months, they can earn enough to save and invest. Unfortunately, it is not always possible to employ people for longer because the duration of the projects [road works] is usually 5–7 months and many of us are unemployed”.

HIMO Communal has given women a chance to earn cash for the first time. However, it appears not to have caused any changes in decision-making power over income. “The tradition is that when a woman earns money, she has to give it to her husband unless it is very little. A woman is supposed to pass on about half of the money she earns to her husband and spend the rest on family needs. Men, on the other hand, spend all the money the wives give them, on themselves. We do not give the money from HIMO to the men. We just buy things for the household. This is because the money is very little.

We earn MGA 1,500/= [=US$ 0.75], which is slightly higher than the market wage rate of MGA 1000/= [=US$ 0.5] but lower than the official minimum wage of MGA
2,500/= [=US$ 1.25] per day. Before we started working here, our husbands would give us money only two times a year: after the harvest. The money is supposed to be spent on clothes and household needs” [Women’s FGD Ankaramena, Fort Dauphin, Madagascar].

The female workers in South Africa appear to control their income as well: “Our husbands do not take away our money... Our money is our own to spend as we wish. The husbands are supposed to be [financially] responsible for the homes”. Perhaps this explains why most [73%] of the women interviewed indicated that they spend their wages on clothing.

![Figure 5. Use of earnings by sex](image)


Impact on Women’s Status in the Family and the Community

The participation of women in public works has improved their position relative to the men in their families, as well as their position within the community. A relatively high proportion [35% in Madagascar and 55% in South Africa] reported that they have started participating in household decision-making. Women have become more independent. Whereas before, they used to wait for their husbands to provide, nowadays they can, and do, contribute to the financial upkeep of the home.

Our husbands give us more respect now that we are working and even more important, earning. [FGD women, South Africa]

They are also better regarded by their spouses: “Men have started appreciating the importance of the participation of women in paid work. Husbands used to value women in their role as mothers and wives... Useful only for cooking and for giving birth. Some of the women are able to process their children’s birth certificates. Some are confident enough to go to the bank to borrow money. They have increasingly become aware that life does not revolve around their husbands [Female Mayor commune rurale Ankaramena, Fort Dauphin, Madagascar].

Women, especially those involved in the EPWP [South Africa] also reported that they had become more confident. As a result, a significant number have become involved in community decision-making. Follow-up interviews in 2003 with the former Kakumiro-Mubende project in Uganda road workers revealed that all the female gang leaders had
taken up leadership positions, either as local government councilors or as chairpersons of women’s groups.

The HIMO project has opened the women’s eyes in terms of knowledge, developing the family, family income etc. Women have also become cleaner. They clean up when going to work. They also practice better hygiene in their homes.

Women FGD, Fort Dauphin, Madagascar

The study confirmed that targeting resources to women through public employment schemes is not, in itself, sufficient to bring lasting benefits and may reinforce existing gender inequalities. Targeting resources at poor women may help project beneficiaries but the underlying causes of female poverty-deep-rooted inequalities in control over assets, pervasive gender discrimination in labour markets, and lack of voice in the power structures controlling resource allocation remain unaddressed.

Impact on Socio-cultural Attitudes and Practices

Table 11 below shows EIIP workers’ perceptions about what women can and cannot do as regards public works. As the table shows, there are differences between women’s perceptions and those of men. Most women believe that they make better workers and contractors than the men and also that women gang leaders can be as good as the men. They also believe that they can perform the same tasks as the men. Men are generally in disagreement. As regards physical strength, the female workers in Madagascar and the male workers in South Africa believe that women are weaker than men and should, therefore, be assigned easier tasks. The belief that a woman’s place is in the home and that public works/road works are not for women seems to be improving.

Table 11. Female and Male Workers Perceptions about Women’s Involvement in Public Works

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Workers’ perception</th>
<th>Proportion in Agreement [%]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Madagascar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Women make better workers than men</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Women can be as good gang leaders/supervisors as men</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Women are weaker than men and should be assigned easier tasks</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Women can perform the same tasks as men</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Female contractors are better than male contractors</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Public works/road works are not for women</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. A woman’s place is in the home</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While some of the prevalent cultural attitudes towards women such as the belief that a woman’s place is in the home/kitchen and not in the public, or that road works are not for women, do appear to be changing, as noted by Dejardin [1996], project implementers and technicians continue to set limits to women’s operations. And yet only a few programmes such as the Peru special rural roads project, the Kenya R2000, and the Uganda RSPS recognized this challenge and conducted gender training for the implementing staff, as well as other key public works actors.
Box 10. Examples of Stereotypes in the Projects Reviewed

**Myanmar**: The evaluation reports some discrimination against women Vis: “…on footpath contracts, which call for a largely unskilled workforce, women were utilized rather more than they were on jetty and bridge works. This we believe can be attributed to traditional attitudes as to what is seen as ‘man’s work’ and to a form of discrimination on earnings potential as bridge and jetty contracts, and thus employment contracts, tended to be for a longer duration”.

**Madagascar**: On the sites where workers were required to fetch water for the road works, the task was invariably assigned to women. Men would be allocated tasks that involved transporting heavy loads.

**South Africa**: Women constitute about 55 per cent of the workers in the Venteco tea estate in largely because, according to the managers, tea picking is a female activity.

**Ecuador**: The few women in the micro enterprises occupied positions of treasurers, a reflection of their traditional role of administering the home and managing its resources.

**Madagascar**: There is some road works that women cannot do so hire men to do it. “Hard work is supposed to be performed by the men.

**Madagascar**: All the trained technicians to supervise the maintenance of the infrastructure developed are men. This is because women’s work is in the house. The technicians work takes them away from the home a lot and sometimes in insecure places.

**Madagascar**: If a woman is given an assignment, she does it properly and with commitment. The same cannot be said of the men.

**Ethiopia**: Wherever possible, women were assigned lighter tasks such as gravel spreading.

**Madagascar**: Women constituted only 0.5 per cent of the masons trained in labour intensive methods because building is a male domain. Nicaragua: The average rate of women’s participation in the project activities: capacity building and execution of the works was 38 per cent. However, most of this participation was in voluntary [unpaid] work.

**Peru**: Where women participated, they were allocated tasks that required less physical effort. Only 4 per cent of the women undertook activities similar to those of the men. None of the companies that participated in the national road works involved women – the partners were 100 per cent male. The few women served as cooks in the national road work camps.

**Peru**: The project implementers, the local authorities and the civil servants responsible for road management perceived gender as a donor fashion and the participation of women as an act of good faith…a favour which constrains productivity.

**Uganda**: The contractors assigned women, the task of food preparation as well as provision of labour. Supervisors believed that women are more suitable for and naturally more efficient at some tasks like spreading gravel, excavation to level plus grubbing than men.

**Ecuador**: Women are under-represented in these micro construction firms based on the argument that: ‘i] road works require physical force; ii] women’s presence on the road results into their spouses being jealous…with the resultant negative consequences; and iii] it is dangerous for women to be on the road.

**Senegal**: Women proved to be more effective in certain aspects of paving including transporting water as well, in situ soaking of pavers as well as cleaning of the work site.
5 Conclusions and Recommendations

How can public investments can be used to expand income generation, work experience and skills building opportunities for disadvantaged women and men?

The foregoing sections show that public works can be managed in a way that can create optimal and equitable opportunities for women and men. Further, that the works can be designed to mitigate against gendered time poverty rather than promote women’s participation in EIIP in order to put to good use the perceived “idle” female labour.

Projects in which the participation of women was high observed the following good practices: i] affirmative action for women was a contractual obligation; ii] they involved the communities, including women’s groups, in the planning and implementation of the projects; iii] they adopted participatory methods in the selection of the interventions, the recruitment of labour and the sharing of information about project planning and implementation issues; iv] contractors employed local labour for the works; v] they proactively provided communities, workers and contractors with information about appropriate working conditions and labour practices; vi] they actively raised awareness, among contractors and local communities about employment opportunities for women; vii] they provided child care facilities; viii] they assigned someone the responsibility of gender mainstreaming; and ix] they adopted flexible work practices.

The outcomes of the EIIPs include: i] skills development; ii] work experience, especially for the women; iii] entrepreneurship development; iv] a chance to earn an income [women] and to diversify sources of income [men]; v] improved ability to pay school fees and access health care; vi] for the women, a chance to become more self confident, manage their time better and participate in family and community decision making; vii] a few reported getting start-up capital for businesses; and viii] a chance for some women to get out of the home and participate in public life, with improved visibility.

The following actions will strengthen gender mainstreaming within public works and expand the opportunities of both women and men.

1. Involve women and men in the identification and design of public works. This way, public works will respond to the specific needs of women, as well as to those of men.
2. Define quotas for the proportionate representation of women and men in works and contracts. Gender-specific targeting increases women’s options.
3. The scheduling and organization of activities must take into account the needs of the female workers. Time poverty is a major issue constraining women’s economic opportunities because of the existing trade-offs between the household [care] and the market economy. Thus investments in measures that provide a facilitative environment in which women can meet their domestic responsibilities including: i] shelters for young children; ii] flexible working hours; iii] group/family rather than individual tasks; and iv] the adoption of task based rather than daily-based work are critical for their involvement in public works. Discussions with the female workers suggested that the task-oriented work which also draws on their social capital, gives them the stimulus they need to plan better and to attach greater value to time.
4. The design of public works should also provide for separate residential and bathroom facilities, where applicable, in order to encourage the participation of women in the implementation of the works, as well as in any associated training.
5. Gender awareness should be integral to the mobilization and recruitment process, in order to break the prevailing retrogressive gender stereotypes.
6. Assign somebody the responsibility of providing the technical oversight for gender mainstreaming.
7. Build the gender capacities of contractors, consultants and EIIP staff, i.e. gender should be integral to all training/learnership programmes. This could be by way of linking to existing vocational training institutions or programmes.

8. In order to promote sustainability of the benefits accruing from public works, the programmes should incorporate skills-building for longer-term employment.

9. Institute an incentive and sanction mechanism for rewarding performers and penalizing non-compliance.

10. In order to ensure gender accountability, gender mainstreaming should be made a contractual obligation. Making gender mainstreaming one of the contractual clauses enables the client to enforce compliance and impose sanctions on firms that do not comply. Amongst other things, the contract documents should specify the following quantitative and qualitative aspects: i] a minimum proportion of women to be involved in the execution of the contract; ii] the specific facilities to be provided; iii] the involvement of women’s representatives in the mobilisation and recruitment of the workers; iv] the recruitment of an individual responsible for gender mainstreaming; v] gender education of the communities and the project implementers; vi] reporting on qualitative and qualitative gender achievements; and vii] the use of gender inclusive languages in documentation and at the work sites.

11. Incorporate the above gender considerations into the estimation of the bills of quantity. In this way, resources will be available for gender mainstreaming.

12. Develop detailed guidelines for gender mainstreaming in public works.

13. Develop a policy statement on gender mainstreaming within institutionalised EIIP programmes such as South Africa’s EPWP.

The key shortcomings of many of the programmes reviewed – at least from the available documentation – is that gender is either included as an afterthought or as a separate and mutually exclusive category. If gender issues are addressed at project conception, they can more easily be incorporated in the design, implementation and evaluation. Programmes that do not take into consideration the differing needs of men and women and their social, economic and cultural realities during all their phases run the risk of being ineffective, inefficient and unsustainable.

**Outline of Gender Capacity Building Programme**

The study showed gender capacity gaps amongst the key actors along the public works project cycle. The gender capacity-building programme is organized into three training modules. As with any other capacity-building intervention, a needs assessment is fundamental prior to any training.

**Training module I:** Introduction to the gender dimensions of public works programmes [1 day]

**Training module II:** Gender and institutions [1 day]

**Training module III:** Mainstreaming gender in the EIIP cycle [3 days]
### Concluding Remarks

1. The conceptual shifts in the thinking about the meaning of gender are slowly filtering through to public works. Whereas the major gender mainstreaming emphasis continues to be the representation of women, there is a serious attempt to move beyond the numbers.

2. The broadening of the concept of public works beyond the traditional focus on infrastructure has expanded women’s opportunities and benefits relative to those of the men. Programmes such as South Africa’s EPWP, which include components of child and other social care, alleviate the domestic work burden of women. In this way, they free their labour to participate in activities in the paid market economy. Furthermore, since providing care is a socially ascribed women’s responsibility, female workers predominate in these “new” EIIPs. It may be argued that female dominance of these EIIPs may perpetuate the stereotype that caring is women’s work. Nevertheless, the advantage is that they improve women’s opportunities of being involved in paid labour.

3. EIIPs have broadened the boundaries of what it is permissible for women to do and for the transfer and acquisition of skills. Women’s involvement has addressed some of the stereotypes about what they can and cannot do and has broken down other social taboos. Consequently, public works have influenced the construction of distinct roles, responsibilities and identities for women and men. Women used to be grossly underrepresented in public works because traditionally public space was a sanctioned male realm and women in that space used to be viewed as “transgressors”.

4. Public works are contributing to the transformation of the dynamics that determine status, power, privileges and entitlements. EIIPs improve women’s access to income. Where this has been complemented with gender awareness creation about the importance of women’s...
control over income, it has enhanced their decision-making power and accorded them higher status within the family. The participation of women in the public works has improved their visibility, promoted their social capital and interaction, and improved their confidence.

5. Are public works empowering women and promoting gender equality? The affirmative action strategy has, to a great extent, been effective in public works. It has been a strategic tool for bringing women into paid employment, thus helping them move from the domestic to the public sphere. As with most affirmative action measures, the increased number of women in public works has improved the legitimization of their role in this otherwise male domain. There is collaborative evidence that, increasingly, public works programmes are recognizing a need for affirmative action. A few public works programmes have also provided additional measures such as day care facilities and flexible working hours, in order to remove barriers to women’s access to employment.

6. Whereas women’s presence in the public works has created social awareness of gender, some stereotypes still persist. Many people, largely men, do not appreciate the significance of the participation of women in road works. Many project managers and implementers are yet to appreciate the importance of gender awareness creation.

7. As a result of the limited gender awareness, female and male beneficiaries are not participating effectively in all stages of the public works project cycle, i.e. needs identification, design, implementation, monitoring and impact assessment. This strategic absence of women means that public works have not promoted gender equality and women’s empowerment effectively. Various gender differentiated needs arising from the inequalities between women and men remain largely unmet by the public works.

8. Public works have significantly improved women’s access to resources. A few projects have also enhanced women’s decision-making power at the household and community levels.
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Uganda


## Annex

### Annex 1. List of people consulted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
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<td>1. Hervé Bonnet</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Principal Technical Advisor</td>
<td>HIMO</td>
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<td>2. Holiarivony Ramarintsoa</td>
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<td>Director</td>
<td>Centre de Formation HIMO</td>
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<td>3. José Andriamanalina</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Richard Ramanantsoa</td>
<td>M</td>
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<td>HIMO Communal, Fort Dauphin</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Arline Lualdi Atallah</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Mayor</td>
<td>Commune Rurale Ankaramena</td>
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<td>6. Gilliame Rendriamanga</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Head of Service</td>
<td>Commune Urban Fort Dauphin</td>
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<td>7. Mizasoa</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Finance Secretary</td>
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<td>8. Lanto Razanakoto</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Managing Director/Building Contractor</td>
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<td>9. Berthine Tsoria</td>
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<td>Chairperson/Team leader HIMO</td>
<td>Vehivavy Miezaka Women's Group, Ankaramena</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Gertrude Rasoinoro</td>
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<td>Neny Mazoto Women's Group, Ankaramena</td>
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<td>11. Julienne Razanamalala</td>
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<td>12. Gibeline Annick Norovoahariby</td>
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<td>Ambininikely Foukatany, Fort Dauphin</td>
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<td>14. Irene Razafindrangato</td>
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<td>17. Jean Claude Razafuldrangato Sidiarilanto</td>
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<td>Harrifidy Tsohombe-Androy</td>
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<td>18. Isabelle Rafaralalanianarisoa</td>
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<td>19. Mathilda B. Molongwana</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Manager Infrastructure</td>
<td>Limpopo Department of Public Works [LDPW]</td>
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<td>20. Moses Ramahuma</td>
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<td>Manager Entrepreneurship Development</td>
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<td>21. David K. Sebina</td>
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<td>Manager National Youth Service</td>
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<td>22. Jabot Tshabalala</td>
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<td>23. Maboho Khakhu</td>
<td>F</td>
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<td>25. Htun Haing</td>
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<td>26. Stephen Muthua</td>
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<td>27. Francis Monisi T</td>
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<td>28. Johanna Kobe</td>
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<td>29. Lawrence Tshwale</td>
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<td>30. Seragi Masemola</td>
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<td>31. Rachel Ncube</td>
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<td>32. Brutose Ledwaba</td>
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<td>33. Tiangelani Phasha</td>
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<td>Phetlakgo Construction</td>
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<td>34. Junia Thamaga</td>
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<td>Community Liaison Officer</td>
<td>For 6 contractors: MOESOLA, ALIZANE, Quality Control, Fromly and VME</td>
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<td>Sheila Masia</td>
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<td>Mokgadi Legodi</td>
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<td>Mello Maria</td>
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<td>Amy Malema</td>
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<td>Elizabeth Sekoadj</td>
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<td>Nicole Hodgson</td>
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**Focus Group Discussions**

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Annex 2. Country reviews: Gender equality in practice

Burma [Mynamar]

Case Study 1: Infrastructure and Jobs

The project ILO was intended to restore connectivity to communities affected by cyclone Nargis. This was to be achieved through building tertiary infrastructure such as village track, jetties, small bridges as well as pit latrines.

One of the proposed activities was providing equal employment opportunities to men and women. The end-of-project reports indicates that daily sex disaggregated records were kept per activity. Women constituted 30 per cent of the total of 7,404 persons employed. The evaluation reports some discrimination against women: “…on footpath contracts, which call for a largely unskilled workforce, women were utilized rather more than they were on jetty and bridge works. This we believe can be attributed to traditional attitudes as to what is seen as ‘man’s work’ and to a form of discrimination on earnings potential as bridge and jetty contracts, and thus employment contracts, tended to be for a longer duration”. P10

The evaluation further reports that the project team attempted to address the issue. And that, whereas there was some level of success, the project duration was too short to achieve complete attitude change or gender parity.

Cambodia

Case Study 2: IRAP/GIS project

Whereas Cambodia’s IRAP/GIS project provided great scope for identifying and responding to the access needs of women and men, there is no evidence of these having been taken into consideration. There is no evidence on the extent of gender mainstreaming because the available documentation is silent on gender.

Case Study 3: Upstream Project

While one of the immediate objectives of the Upstream Project was: “to create an environment supporting sustainable and equitable labour-based infrastructure works with particular attention paid to [maintenance] funding, gender and disadvantaged groups and road safety in the sector”, there was no evidence of any gender considerations beyond the numbers. The project generated 750,243 workdays, which were distributed almost equally between women and men. This was because of a clause in the contract document, which required the contractors to recruit equal numbers of women and men.

Cameroon and Mali

Case Study 4: Promotion of employment and reduction of poverty

The project was designed to contribute to improved quality of life through the creation and promotion of decent work in Burkina Faso, Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Gabon, Cameroon and Mali with a specific focus on the latter two. The PRODOC identified women as amongst the most vulnerable segments of the population specifically pointing out that they encounter more difficulties than men in accessing decent employment. Accordingly, the project explicitly targeted women amongst the project beneficiaries. The PRODOC identified women’s organisations as potential project partners.

One of the immediate project objectives was to strengthen the national capacity to promote and create decent jobs on a large scale in favour of disadvantaged groups including women. Some of the defined gender-specific results and related activities were:

a. A national network of micro-finance institutions, initiated by women, is operational.

b. Networks of women entrepreneurs organized by trade access public tenders and resources. This was to be achieved through the following activities:
Identify the training needs of women
Educate women in the form of cooperative organization and support the various steps leading to the creation of the cooperative
Train women across the different sectors
Support women to access public funds

Whereas the training of women project participants started late, some notable results were achieved. In Cameroon, the capacity of 16 member groups and associations consisting of 1210 women was built to engage in various productive activities and to access various public contracts. Women also constituted half of the 6 master trainers trained and 50 per cent of the 130 youth whose employability capacities were built. In Mali, 158 micro income generating projects were established, 38 per cent of which were women-only enterprises.

**Ecuador**

Case Study 5: Microenterprise Development

A 2003 evaluation of three models of microenterprise development by: i) the local roads unit [Unida de Caminos Vecinales, or UCV]; ii) the Maintenance Department, Ministry of Public Works [MOP-DM]; and iii) the ILO CONCOPE [OIT-CONCOPE] established that the three approaches had registered varying levels of impact. The level of participation of women was highest in the MOP-DM at 35.3 per cent, followed by 6.5 per cent in the UCV and zero per cent in the OIT-CONCOPE model. Women are underrepresented in these micro-construction firms, the arguments being: “i] road works require physical force; ii] the presence of women on the road results in their husbands being jealous... With the resultant negative consequences; and iii] it is dangerous for women to be on the road.” These arguments are employed principally to legitimize gender inequality and to mask societal resistance to women’s empowerment.

The evaluation report argues that the figures in the MOP-DM model were high because of the acknowledgement, by the Ministry, of the importance of promoting women only, or predominantly women, small-scale enterprises in traditional [patriarchal] societies. It also argues that enterprises that are purely, or predominantly, made up of women are likely to address gender issues and that they are likely to guarantee the participation of women in the administration of transport resources, as well as their representation at all levels of decision-making.

The evaluation noted that while few women headed the microenterprises, they did occupy positions as treasurers, a reflection, according to the report, of their traditional role of administering the home and managing its resources. This, despite the fact that there were no noted differences between the performances of women and men in the microenterprises. The report recommends that in order to promote equitable participation and avoid works increasing women’s workload, it is important to consult women’s organizations.

**Ethiopia**

Case Study 6: Tigray and Wollo Road Rehabilitation Projects

The Tigray and Wollo Road Rehabilitation Projects [TWRRP], were components of the Italian Relief and Rehabilitation Programme in Ethiopia [IRRPE], initiated in 1992. This was a preparatory programme intended to lay the foundations for a longer-term intervention and contribute towards creating a more stable socio-economic context for development. In September 1994, a joint mission involving the ILO was fielded and TWRRP was reformulated to integrate EIIP approaches.

The project aimed at strengthening the capacity of the Rural Road Authorities [RRAs] of the Tigray and Wollo regions in labour-based road improvement and subsequent maintenance activities. The PRODOC states that the undertaking would seek to ensure equality of opportunity in gainful employment for women and other disadvantaged members of the community. The document did not specify how this was to be achieved.

According to the TWRRP’s undated evaluation report the participation of women was actively encouraged [although the report does not specify how this was done]. The project did not, apparently, take into consideration some of the women’s needs as mothers. According to the evaluation report: “Women left their children and babies at home when working on the road”. Although it was the policy of the project to encourage equal participation by men and women, the number of female worker days generated seldom exceeded 20 per cent of the labour force.
According to the final project document [2001], women’s labour constituted 17 per cent of the 447,508 total workdays generated. However, the report did not provide any further information about the quality of women’s participation in the project and the related outcomes. The report goes on to state that, wherever possible, women were assigned lighter tasks such as gravel spreading. However, task sizes were kept equal for both women and men. While it could be argued that this encouraged the participation of women it could be said to have perpetuated the stereotype that road works are not for women, or that women are weaker than men.

**Ghana**

**Case Study 7: Capacity Building Support to the Ghana Social Opportunities Project**

The objective of the ILO support was to strengthen the capacity of Koforidua Training Centre to cater for the demand for training within the Ghana Social Opportunities Project [GSOP] in the fields of feeder road rehabilitation, small earth dams and dugouts rehabilitation, integrated watershed management and climate change adaptation activities using labour intensive work methods.

It is not clear to what extent gender was addressed in the design and implementation of the ILO support. Nonetheless, the ToRs for the project evaluation clearly indicated that the assessment of gender would be based on the September 2007 ILO Guidelines on Considering Gender in Monitoring and Evaluation of Projects. However, the evaluation does not report on the gender impact of the ILO support. For instance, it does not provide sex disaggregated information as regards the number of persons trained. Neither does it indicate whether gender was incorporated in the training guidelines developed. While the evaluation reports that 760,000 worker-days were created under the general GSOP, it only provides partial information on the gender impacts vis: “…[W]omen are benefitting from employment opportunities…majority of workers on dam sites are women with up to 80%. Women also particularly benefit from dam sites with improved water collection points.” p14

**Case Study 8: Ghana Decent Work Pilot Programme**

The situation analysis of the Ghana Decent Work Pilot Programme identifies women as being disproportionately affected by poverty across virtually every sector of the economy in the country. The Pilot Programme had two complementary components: a national component aimed at helping the constituents to influence the national policy framework for poverty reduction, in particular the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy [GPRS] and a local component to develop and test an integrated approach to poverty reduction in the informal economy.

At the national level, the objective was to reinforce the capacity of relevant and key policy makers to become pro-active agents in integrating decent work aspects into the GPRS and into other policy documents and laws. At the local level, the aim was to build the capacities of the key stakeholders to design and implement a local economic and social development strategy.

Women workers in the informal economy, as well as small-scale women entrepreneurs, participated in the initial scoping and feasibility study and the programme planning. They were involved in the assessment of the gender dimensions of poverty and of the informal economy. The programme consulted gender specialists as required. But the programme implementers complained that too many different gender specialists were involved for too short a time each, and with insufficient depth to add value. Deliberate efforts were made to reach women as beneficiaries and to use female trainers during the capacity-building activities. The involvement of women was applied systematically throughout the implementation of the project.

The project intended to carry out the following activities: a] the formulation of a Skills Training and Employment Placement [STEP II] programme for inclusion in the revised GPRS; b] policy guidelines and operational programmes as inputs into the GPRS concerning employment and incomes; c] the implementation of the district action plans with income-generating activities primarily benefiting women.

The programme also developed a gender disaggregated database for the STEP programme, in order to enable gender reporting. During the adaptation of the ILO Training Manual for the programme, the document was reviewed for improved gender sensitivity. The selection of the programme’s economic activities also took into consideration the needs of women and men. The
successful integration of gender within the programme is largely attributed to the fact that gender was one of the criteria for assessment in a competitive process of resource allocation.

The impact of all the above is not clear. This is because besides mentioning that gender is one of the issues emphasized during the training of small business associations, the case study analyzing the experiences of the Ghana Decent Work Pilot Programme [2003-2004] document is silent on gender.

Guatemala

Case Study 9: Joint United Nations Post San Project

A joint United Nations project to promote employment and income-generation in rehabilitation and reconstruction works was designed to respond to the impact of the tropical storm Stan, which caused flooding and landslides in many parts of Guatemala in October 2005. The project document identifies women among those who were most vulnerable to the impact of the storm. Under the terms of the project, women received pay that was equal to that of the men. Cartier [2009] finds this to be significant in a region where the practice is for women to receive half the wage of their male counterparts.

Other measures that promoted the participation of women included: i] targeting young unmarried mothers, who not only had fewer opportunities for wage employment but also had a greater need for the cash; ii] providing day-care centres for young children, with paid baby sitters; and iii] paying specific attention to women during the payment process. This was because the notification of payment was communicated in writing and effected through the bank. The project acknowledged that for many workers, especially the women, this would be the first time they would be entering a bank. As a result of these initiatives, 40 per cent of the workers employed by the project were women. This, Cartier [2009] argues further, is a great achievement in an otherwise traditionally male domain.

Haïti

Case Study 10: Programme for the prevention of natural disasters through employment creation [PPDNRE]

The programme included three main components, namely: i] employment generation; ii] environmental protection in order to minimise the occurrence of natural disasters; and iii] community empowerment. The situation analysis identified youth unemployment as a key contributory factor to the fragility of the country and specified young women amongst the vulnerable. Accordingly, the programme was designed to provide an opportunity to the population, particularly women and youth, to earn an income in addition to acquisition of skills. To ensure achievement of this objective, the PRODOC stated that specific consideration would be given to vulnerable groups such as women during the selection of the beneficiaries of the programme. Additionally, that all programme activities would give due consideration to gender.

The PRODOC defined the following gender sensitive objectively verifiable indicators:

a. Proportion of women Number of jobs created for all activities and by type of intervention; % of total occupied jobs of which: women, by young people

b. Proportion of female beneficiaries by category of work: labourers, supervisors and technicians.

The programme was implemented by community based organisations (CBO) through community contracting scheme which, amongst other things, were responsible for ensuring that the beneficiaries included orphaned families, persons with reduced mobility and poor households. The CBOs also facilitated the implementation of the gender aspects of the programme. The CBOs mobilised a total of 33705 members to participate in the programme activities, 55.4 per cent of who were women. Besides the food rations, the programme created more than 6000 jobs and women constituted 45 per cent of the direct beneficiaries.

During the evaluation process, women beneficiaries were consulted to establish their views about the impact of the programme.
Honduras

Case Study 11: UN Joint Youth Employment Programme

The central objective of the joint programme was to create employment and entrepreneurship opportunities for young people aged between 15 and 29 years of age in order to address the challenge of migration and the associated rootlessness and loss of national identity. Amongst other aims, the programme was intended to contribute to the Government of Honduras’s defined MDG goal of raising the national gender development index by 20 per cent.

Programme objectives

1. Increase the capacity of young female and male returnees or those vulnerable to migration to be integrated in the labour market in a meaningful manner
2. Strengthen national and local institutional frameworks to promote decent work for youth returnees or those vulnerable to migration
3. Improve young women’s and men’s leadership capacities, sense of identity and belonging and promote their participation in building a vision of national development based on shared principles and values.

Expected outputs

1. Youth: returnees or those vulnerable to migration access local financial services in order to for the creation of microenterprises youth including family, individual or associative self-employment, taking into account the difficulties of women's access to economic assets.
2. Vulnerable young women participate actively and with equal opportunities and conditions in local economic development and employability and entrepreneurship programmes.
3. Functional information systems with sex disaggregated statistics on youth employment and migration.
4. Sex disaggregated employment and youth migration atlas.

Indicators

1. By December 2010, gender disaggregated indicators on youth, employment and migration published.
2. By December 2010, all programme partners use gender disaggregated statistical information on employment, micro ventures and youth migration,
3. By December 2010, the proportion of young women and men intending to migrate is reduced by 10%.
4. By 2011, at least 30% of the programme participants are young women,
5. By 2011, at least 40% of 816 young women and men in the programme area participate in innovative remittance initiative.

Implementation

A programme coordination unit to support implementation in a gender sensitive manner was established. To improve capacities, the programme trained 18 technical trainers and 453 young people in gender, culture, identity and peace building. The programme targeted vulnerable young women and ensured their active participation in local economic development. It also provided equal opportunities to both young women and men in the entrepreneurship programmes designed to improve their employability.

Achievements

1. Awareness-raising programme broke down gender stereotypes and promoted the sustainable participation of young women in the labour market.
2. The programme opened up spaces for discussion and equipped young women and men with the tools to address their respective vulnerability as regards employment. Accordingly, they are better able to be integrated in the labour market. The proportion of female beneficiaries exceeded the target of 30 per cent [table x].
Table 12. Quantitative Achievements of the Programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programme activity</th>
<th>Total no.</th>
<th>% women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skills training programme to enhance employability</td>
<td>871</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneurship training programme</td>
<td>789</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills training for rural youth</td>
<td>544</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneurship training for rural youth</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Sex disaggregated atlas on youth in relation to skills and capabilities as well as migration and employment status.
4. National statistical data collection instruments [i.e. household surveys] reviewed and revised for improved gender sensitivity.

India

Case Study 12: Strategy Document for a LB Programme in Jabalpur District

A 2002 ILO-commissioned strategy paper for a LB programme in Jabalpur District, Madhya Pradesh is totally gender-blind. The paper: i] assessed the feasibility and value of a LB infrastructure development and maintenance approach in the district; ii] proposed a pilot LB project for the district; and iii] made broad recommendations for the development of a LB strategy at the state level.

Case Study 13: National Rural Employment Guarantee Act [NREGA]

The 2005 Act seeks to enhance the livelihood security of rural households. The Act guarantees at least 100 days of unskilled manual work per financial year to every rural household. The NREGA Operational Guidelines promote women’s effective participation in and benefit both from the Act both as workers and as managers as follows: i] recognition of single persons as a ‘household’, making it possible for single women including widows to access work; ii] one third of all workdays are reserved for women; iii] equal pay for equal work for both women and men; iv] a crèche to be provided if there are more than five children under 6 years; v] women’s representation on the NREGA vigilance and monitoring committee; and vi] the timing of the six-monthly social audit forum to be convenient for workers, women and marginalized communities.

Case Study 14: Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme [MGNREGP]

The objective of the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme [National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme – NREGP until 2009] is to enhance livelihood security while producing durable assets, empowering women, reducing distress migration and promoting social equity.

The MGNREGP was initially implemented in 200 disadvantaged districts in 2006. In 2008 the programme was rolled out to all the rural districts of the country. Dasgupta and Sudarshan [2011] report that despite the provisions of the NREGA, women’s participation rates vary across districts and states ranging from 4 to 85 and averaging 49.5 per cent. The relatively high level of women’s participation in states such as Kerala is attributed to the fact that implementation of the NREGA is managed by women’s groups.

Various factors contribute to the low levels of achievement in some states. Women’s relative immobility due to a heavy care work burden is a challenge. This is compounded by the fact that not all work sites provide crèche facilities. Girl children are reportedly being withdrawn from school to care for their siblings while their mothers work. The programme is thus inadvertently promoting child labour besides potentially contributing to female illiteracy. Women’s relative lack of awareness of the MGNREGP is also another issue. Women do not attend the gram sabha [the local village or town-level self-governments] and men do not generally share the content of the meeting with their wives. Socio-cultural norms were also reported to contribute to the failure of single women, for instance, being recruited.
Indonesia

Case Study 15: Nias Islands Rural Access and Capacity Building Project

The RACBP was designed to improve livelihoods and local economic development of communities on the Nias Islands. This was to be achieved through improving rural transport infrastructure as well as building the capacity of small contractors, communities and local governments. The PRODOC recognized that women and men have different needs. The baseline traffic counts thus included women as respondents and the means of transport used were also disaggregated by sex.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transport mode</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motorbike</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bicycle</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foot</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: RACBP Baseline Traffic Counts

Gender equality promotion was one the project’s key cross-cutting issues and equality of access to employment opportunities one of the guiding principles. The PRODOC proposed that project identification would involve participatory consultation processes with beneficiary groups, including women, regarding the selection and implementation of the works.

Design

The PRODOC provided for the following:

a. Formulation of detailed activities to ensure gender mainstreaming.

b. Gender sensitive outputs i.e. “[B]ridges and river crossings constructed, and routine maintenance of core roads and pathways provided, using participatory planning methods and appropriate and sound LRB approaches and technologies that are gender sensitive and environmentally friendly”.

c. Project indicators to be sex-disaggregated, as appropriate i.e.
   - Reduced travel time and transportation costs men and women.
   - Selected works reflect the specific needs of men and women.
   - Wages to workers paid in time per entitlements and without prejudice to the workers’ sex.
   - Women’s and men’s travel needs prioritized in the planning and implementation guidelines.

Appraisal

Inequalities in the distribution of benefits were identified as a risk to be addressed through the promotion of, and adherence to equity principles during the recruitment of labour for the construction works. This was besides ensuring inclusive community participation and information sharing. Women are not allowed to enter community halls. Accordingly, the programme community development officers advised that these should not be used for joint meetings.

Implementation

As provided for in the PRODOC, a Gender Strategy was developed during the inception phase to ensure: i) women's participation in community-level infrastructure works; and ii) women's access to employment opportunities in the construction and maintenance activities.

The evaluation report concluded that the integration of clauses relating to labour standards, safety, gender promotion and environment is a powerful tool for achieving their integration in EIIPs. For instance, it was a contractual obligation to employ a minimum of 30 per cent women in community and private contracts. This achieved a total of 33 per cent women’s participation and compares unfavourably with the 0 per cent women’s employment in cultural heritage works where there was no similar contractual agreement.
Table 13. Estimated Number of Workdays Generated at End of the Project by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Women No.</th>
<th>Women %</th>
<th>Men No.</th>
<th>Men %</th>
<th>Total No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Roads and Trails</td>
<td>Community Contracts</td>
<td>41,043</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>83,329</td>
<td>124,372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Commercial Contracts</td>
<td>39,557</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>80,313</td>
<td>119,870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bridges</td>
<td></td>
<td>16,318</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>71,852</td>
<td>88,170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training sites</td>
<td></td>
<td>7,774</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>15,784</td>
<td>23,558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Heritage</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5640</td>
<td>5,640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project End Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>104,692</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>256,918</td>
<td>361,610</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another requirement was for women’s representation on the community contracts committees. There was no information available to assess compliance. Nonetheless the committees underwent training in various aspects of public works including the importance of non discriminatory practices.

The evaluation report indicates that the ILO programme staff capacities were sufficient to implement the programme in a gender responsive manner. Accordingly, there was no need of external gender expertise. It was reported that the programme community development officers ensured a participative approach, promoted the setting up of child care facilities and actively encouraged women to join the young supervisor apprentice scheme. As a result, women constituted half of the 42 participants of the apprentice supervisor course.

The programme also enhanced women’s capacities in various aspects of public works and thus expanded their employment opportunities. Women constituted 16 per cent of the 943 trained persons drawn from road and bridge supervisors, Government staff, private contractors and community contractors. Whereas the PRODOC proposed that gender awareness would be integral to training and capacity building activities of the different targeted groups, there was no documented of this being implemented.

**Monitoring and Evaluation**

As provided for in the PRODOC, routine monitoring tracked the implementation of the gender strategy. In addition, programme evaluation included gender disaggregated beneficiary satisfaction surveys. Most of the results were disaggregated, as appropriate. However, there was no reporting on the gender sensitive indicators defined in the PRODOC specifically those relating to non-labour aspects such as travel time and transportation costs.

The evaluation report suggested that the gender impacts were not likely to be sustainable beyond the project life. Contractors were believed to be employing women only because this was an ILO requirement. This seems to suggest that the programme did not conduct gender awareness campaigns, as provided for by the PRODOC.

**Case Study 16: Job Opportunities for Young Women and Men [JOY]**

The EIIP’s overall objective was to “create income earning opportunities for young women and men in Indonesia, through complementing national policies and local initiatives that lead to more employment growth”. The PRODOC acknowledged gender differences in both education and unemployment underscoring the fact that girls/young women are disproportionately disadvantaged. It specifically pointed out that the dropout rate from school was higher for girls than boys. This gender gap is reflected in the unemployment rates of 34.6 per cent and 27.8 per cent for female and male youth, respectively.

The title is explicit in its intent and this should have potentially helped the project to keep the focus on both young women and men in the design, implementation, monitoring and reporting. However, the mid-term evaluation concluded that: “In terms of gender equality, there appears to have been little thought given in the original project document to the development of specific activities that would advance this goal.” Further, that while the project strategy mentioned an updated gender mainstreaming strategy and made reference to a USD 200,000 “dedicated gender budget”, these apparently were not included in the design. In addition, that whereas the PRODOC specified that women’s groups would be involved in the project implementation, they did not participate.
The mid-term evaluation thus recommended that the Project Manager consults ILO gender specialists or seek external expertise in order to strengthen the gender outcomes. One of the outputs was: “Strengthened capacities of the CBS [Central Bureau of Statistics] and MoMT [Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration] to collect and utilize policy-making and monitoring sex- and age-disaggregated labour market data”. However, no measures were put in place to achieve this. According to the final evaluation report, the project lacked baseline and performance monitoring data. The only reported achievement was the Gender and Entrepreneurship Together [GETAhead] training for various forum members.

The evaluation recommends the following. First is that the need for a costed gender strategy to be developed at the project design stage. Second is to ensure gender expertise in the project implementation staff through, amongst other things, training. Third is to have gender sensitive indicators to monitor progress and eventually assess impact.

Case Study 17: Integrated development programme in Aceh and Nias

The integrated development programme in Aceh and Nias evolved out of the ILO’s Tsunami response. The programme consisted of six components, namely: i] employment services; ii] vocational and skills training; iii] enterprise development and microfinance; iv] labour-based infrastructure rehabilitation; v] child labour prevention; and vi] local economic development. Gender equality was taken as a cross-cutting issue. Social equity and gender mainstreaming were outlined as part of the guiding principles. In addition, special attention was supposed to be paid to the needs of, among others, women and female-headed households as these occupied the most vulnerable positions in the labour market and were, therefore, likely to be at a greater risk of exploitation, especially in post-disaster situations.

A women’s enterprise development sub-component was developed to further broaden the scope of the participation of women in—and their benefit from—the programme. Out of the 45 training courses for entrepreneurship development, eight were reserved exclusively for women. Women were provided with the skills and means to manufacture building materials, in order to take advantage of the business opportunities created by the expanded rehabilitation and reconstruction works. This involved training courses for women for producing concrete tiles and blocks. The ILO also provided support for product development, market access and group formation. After the training, 10 home-based concrete blocks and tile production women’s enterprises were established. In this way, women were able to balance their work in the household with their work in the labour market.

As regards the infrastructure development component, the programme acknowledged that whereas unemployment rates were higher among women than among men, investment in the construction sector was likely to provide men with more and better employment opportunities. Accordingly, to close the gender gap in the labour market, paying special attention and employment support to women would be a critical task. One of the suggestions was to create “women worker only” work sites. As a result of all the above initiatives, the proportion of women beneficiaries was relatively high [see table 14].

Table 14. Overview of Women’s Participation in Aceh and Nias Project Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programme Activity</th>
<th>Target group</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>% F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Registration of job seekers</td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>48,119</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Placement of construction related workers</td>
<td>Job seekers</td>
<td>9,410</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Placement of office workers</td>
<td>Job seekers</td>
<td>3,794</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upgrading of construction skills</td>
<td>Construction workers</td>
<td>386</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Union education</td>
<td>Union members</td>
<td>378</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational skills training</td>
<td>Workers</td>
<td>3,085</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children in prevocational training</td>
<td>Children</td>
<td>764</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity building in remedial education</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English language training</td>
<td>Workers</td>
<td>1,278</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff and improve your business [SIYB] training</td>
<td>Youth</td>
<td>731</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another gender concern to be identified, which was supposed to be addressed under the programme, was that women are often assigned the low-paying, unskilled and piece rate work. This is because of their time poverty, which arises from their heavy domestic work burden, as well as the inadequacy of their skills. According to one contractor: “The instructors and the supervisors are softer to the women and do not instruct them in the same way as they do the men”. A review of the contractor pre-qualification criteria and procedure, however, showed that gender was not given specific consideration under the Local Resource-Based Road Works in Aceh and Nias project.

The ILO also funded additional women-specific skills training and business development support in Aceh. The support for the start-up of women-led enterprises in the provision of construction materials was booming because of the reconstruction effort although this was in a traditionally male-dominated sector.

Kenya

Case Study 18: Youth Employment for Sustainable Development

The project was designed to empower young women and men through equipping them with marketable skills, decent jobs and business opportunities in labour intensive infrastructure development and maintenance. The project appraisal report acknowledged that a higher proportion of women [40%] than men [13%] are unemployed and are thus disproportionately more deprived and poorer. Accordingly, the project design explicitly targeted young women as direct beneficiaries. This was besides indicating that special consideration would be given to gender equality during implementation. The project evaluation reported that despite the lack of an elaborate strategy, gender equality had been well mainstreamed in the design. Further, that the project was aligned to ILO’s as well the national gender equality policies and strategies.

The project defined a 30 per cent minimum quota for women’s participation in and benefit from all training opportunities as well as employment created. However, not all quantifiable indicators were sex disaggregated. This could explain why despite the project implementers indicating that they had consistently ensured a minimum of one-third women’s participation, sex disaggregated results were not systematically recorded.

Case Study 19: Roads 2000 [R2000]

Kenya developed a national strategy focusing on the use of labour-based methods for road maintenance and improvement for the period 2005-2010 [Roads 2000/R2000]. The strategy is informed by Kenya’s rich history of using labour-intensive methods in the development and maintenance of its rural road network, specifically the Rural Access Roads [RAR] and Minor Roads Programmes [MRP]. The main outputs of R2000 include: i] creating about 150,000 part-time jobs [equivalent to 35,000 full-time jobs] annually; and ii] training, mentoring and/or engaging 1,250 small-scale contractors. R2000 has been implemented in Nyanza, Rift Valley, Central, Eastern and Coast provinces. Gender equality has been designated as one of the cross-cutting issues under R2000.

The programme encourages the incorporation of gender in road works as a matter of good practice but not necessarily as a contractual obligation. The R2000 contractors’ field handbook for road improvement works/road maintenance underscores the equality of opportunity and treatment in employment. The standard notice of recruitment is supposed to be distributed to, among others, the leadership of women’s groups and it especially encourages women to apply.

In addition, the muster roll provides for the gender disaggregation of the workforce. However, some aspects of the labour recruitment plan appear to be in contradiction with the R2000 stance on affirmative action for women as stated in its strategic plan. Whereas the latter defines a quota of 30 per cent of women in the labour force, the field handbook categorically states that “recruitment for jobs should not be based on distinctions such as gender”.

The R2000 performance contract commits the Kenya Roads Authority [KRA] to the following: i] develop a gender framework/policy for the roads sector; ii] identify gender concerns, needs and priorities and devise ways to address them; iii] collect gender disaggregated data to guide planning and programming within the institution; and iv] ensure compliance with the target of 30 per cent women in all the KRA-related interventions.

R2000 also promotes the mainstreaming of gender in all LB training programmes. R2000 provides, inter alia, for positive discrimination in identifying and training female contractors. Kisii
Training Centre [KTC] is actively involved in the development and implementation of R2000 training courses in the classroom, as well as in the field. The KTC general training plan, which describes and regulates all R2000 training issues, incorporates gender mainstreaming. One of the proposed strategies to ensure an enabling environment for mainstreaming gender in the training is the development of a code of practice for managing cross-cutting issues, including gender.

The equal treatment of women and men on site is one of the administration and social critical performance indicators that it is proposed to assess during the practical training at KTC. Making gender one of the assessable performance issues encourages the KTC trainees to accord it the importance it deserves.

These initiatives have resulted in women constituting an average of 20–30 per cent of the workforce in the ongoing R2000 projects countrywide. Women have been successfully engaged on the same basis as men with regard to workload and pay.

**Case Study 20: Capacity building for the implementation of R2000**

The Situation Analysis Was Informed By A Gender Analysis. The Project Background Acknowledges That Improved Access And Mobility Of The Rural Population Will Particularly Benefit Women On Account Of Their Socially Ascribed Responsibility Of Caring For Children, The Elderly And The Sick Members Of The Family. Further, That Given Their [Women’s] Role Not Only Do Gender Disparities In The Labour Market Disadvantage Women But That They Have A Strong Bearing On The Living Standards Of Their Families And Communities At Large. The Project Thus Underscored The Need For Women’s Economic Empowerment Through Engagement In Productive And Gainful Employment.

One Of The Two ILO Technical Advisors To The Project Was Assigned The Responsibility For Promoting Gender Equality. However, The Project Did Not Define Gender Responsive Objectives Or Indicators. Despite This, Monitoring Data Was Sex Disaggregated. For Instance, Women’s Labour Constituted 34 Per Cent Of The 1,838,343 Workdays Generated By The Time Of The Midpoint Project Evaluation In July 2011.

**Case Study 21: SIDA-funded Nyanza R2000**

The SIDA-funded Nyanza R2000 was implemented in 11 out of the 12 districts of Nyanza province. The programme adopted a rights-based approach and involved principles of democracy and good governance, accountability, transparency, participation, equality and non-discrimination.

The programme acknowledges that improvement in accessibility is particularly beneficial to women as they often carry out the bulk of agricultural activities in rural areas and also transport produce to markets and take children to health centres. Female and male beneficiaries and other stakeholders were involved in the identification and prioritisation of road interventions.

The programme incorporated the following gender commitments into its design: i] gender equality as one of the core values of the programme; ii] women to constitute part of the 50 per cent of the trained contractors to be selected from the vulnerable group [however, the contractors’ selection criteria—entry to training—did not include gender considerations]; iii] women targeted amongst the beneficiaries; iv] a gender education module to be incorporated into each of the training packages; v] the employment of women to be based on encouragement and the provision of information on their rights, as well as affirmative action.

A Gender, Youth and IMT [Intermediate Means of Transport] specialist was among the technical assistance consultants who provided management support and technical advice during the implementation of the programme. This specialist’s role was to guide the process of ensuring the sustainable involvement of women and youth in the programme.

Discussions with the implementers revealed that the programme adhered to most of its intended women-specific and gender-specific commitments.
**Liberia**

**Case Study 22: Poverty Reduction through Decent Employment Creation [PREDEC]**

The project design was informed by a gender analysis. The project acknowledged differences in the impacts of conflict on women and men and in particular highlighted gender-based violence as one of the key effects. Further, that while national literacy levels were generally low, women were particularly disadvantaged. As a result, men have better access to skilled employment than women. It follows therefore, that poverty in Liberia has a gender dimension.

In addition, that due to women’s socially ascribed care function, they are overburdened by work. The project proposal thus recommended the following various measures to maximize women’s participation and benefit from the employment opportunities to be created. First, it was proposed that a national consultant be hired early on in the programme to define relevant gender specific interventions. A dedicated budget of about US$ 9,000 was to be allocated to implement the thus identified interventions. Second, the PRODOC proposed that all baseline and monitoring data is gender disaggregated and where necessary an in-depth analysis would be conducted to design corrective actions to strengthen women’s participation. Third, the PRODOC proposed that between 30 and 50 per cent of all opportunities created should be reserved with the actual figure to be defined by gender consultant. Fourth, it was proposed that gender be incorporated in project capacity building.

According to the evaluation report, a gender action plan was elaborated and implemented and all three programme coordinators received gender training. The report, however, indicated that due to the lack of gender sensitive indicators, it was difficult to determine the extent to which gender had been mainstreamed in the programme. Nonetheless, the following achievements were recorded:

a. Women-owned companies along the demonstration road received business management training as well as accessed credit. Consequently, women’s labour constituted 29 per cent of the 55,000 person days of work on the project road.

b. More than 30 per cent of women’s community based organizations were provided with basic tools, equipment and credit to enable them to kick start waste collection businesses. As a result, women took up nearly 50 per cent [96] of the 193 jobs created.

c. Women workers and entrepreneurs were provided with leadership, negotiation and conflict resolution skills and a National Gender Network of Liberia was established.

**Madagascar**

**Case Study 23: Haute Intensité de Main-d'Oeuvre [Highly intensive labour works]**

Madagascar has been implementing HIMO [Haute Intensité de Main-d’Oeuvre –highly intensive labour works] since 2004. HIMO was designed, inter alia, to strengthen the decentralisation process, including fiscal decentralization. HIMO Communal—the community project that ended in 2009—had several activities including construction and rehabilitation works, as well as the training of local leaders, community technicians and contractors. HIMO bâtiment involves the construction of school buildings. The requirement is for the contractor to employ at least two unskilled people from the community.

The project employs a socio-economist charged with, amongst other things, ensuring the participation of women in HIMO. According to the project documents, the communities were involved in the identification prioritisation and, to some extent, the design of the investments. However, there is no indication of the extent of the participation of women in it. Moreover, whereas community participation provides scope for addressing the development needs of women, as well as those of men, there is no evidence that this has been done. Discussions with the communities and the project managers showed that most of the investments were prioritised by the local leaders, often to accommodate political considerations rather than technical or equity considerations.

HIMO Communal is implemented by direct labour and employs community-based organisations [CBOs] for the works. These operate under the supervision of a local government superintendent. The CBOs were responsible for the mobilisation, sensitization and recruitment of the workers. Women’s organisations were involved in sensitizing and mobilizing the communities for the HIMO Communal road works. Women and youth groups were specifically involved, in order to
ensure work opportunities for these otherwise disadvantaged segments of the community. The chairpersons of these CBOs were recruited as team/gang leaders and many of them in turn mobilised the unemployed members of their groups for the works. Apart from works that required specialised skills such as masonry, all the labour was recruited from the communities. While no specific quotas were defined for the representation of women, single women and female-headed households were given priority. There was no similar affirmative action for women contractors.

One of the intended results of the project was to create 204,000 workdays for the most disadvantaged segments of the population, particularly women, while ensuring ILO decent work conditions [medical cover and accident insurance, timely payment of wages, non-discrimination on any grounds, and paid leave]. However, HIMO Communal was outside the management of the ILO and its implementation did not always meet the minimum standards. Shelter and crèches were not provided, based on the argument that the work sites were temporary. No toilets were found on or near the work sites. Protective wear was not provided. The workers also mentioned that there were no first-aid kits, although a doctor did visit the sites once a week. Some gang leaders reported that the first aid kits were kept in the stores. The workers were provided with condoms, as well as information about HIV and AIDS.

The project created 291,008 workdays for 3,509 workers, 35.4 per cent of whom were women, distributed as follows:

- 37.5 per cent of the 3,284 workers under contract labour managed by the communities;
- 17.8 per cent of the 56 workers involved in the paving of the school buildings site; and
- 2 per cent of the 203 workers recruited for the construction of schools and latrines.

Women constituted only 17 per cent of the workforce under HIMO bâtiment. The project also provided women and men with equal opportunities to benefit from the capacity building programmes. Despite this, women constituted only 13.9 per cent of the total of 4,155 people trained by the HIMO Training Centre between 2001 and 2009. According to the project documents, women constituted only 0.5 per cent of the masons trained in labour intensive methods because building is traditionally a male domain.

The training in fiscal management and taxation targeted, *inter alia*, local governments and chairpersons of the community associations, including women’s groups. The training was specifically designed to promote good governance and accountability. The topics included taxation, revenue generation, and budgeting and budget analysis. The participants were proposed by the commune.

**Mozambique**

**Case Study 24: Rural Roads Programme**

Labour-based methods for road construction were first established in Mozambique through pilot projects with technical support from the ILO in 1981. A phased expansion into a national programme was embarked upon in 1989. In 1992, labour-based methods were applied to a national programme, undertaking the rehabilitation of roads in virtually every part of the country. ILO full-time technical assistance to the programme ended in August 2002.

The objective of this national labour intensive Feeder Roads Programme [FRP] was to contribute to the development of rural areas through the creation of employment opportunities. Gender was integral to all the training activities conducted at all levels prior to the launch of the FRP. The on-the-job training for key persons also incorporated a gender dimension.

A two-week intensive course on gender was organised for supervisors and heads of brigade. In addition, a trainer was trained to provide in-house support. A module on gender was incorporated in the curriculum offered by the LB training centre.

A Gender Unit was established in the FRP in 1996 and this was subsequently incorporated into the Social Issues Unit of the National Roads Administration established in 2000, to address cross cutting issues. To further institutionalise mainstreaming, a Gender Department was established under the National Directorate of Roads and Bridges in 1997. The Department was mandated to: i] increase women’s participation in labour based construction; ii] create a favourable working environment for addressing gender; iii] raise the level of gender awareness amongst the workers and staff; and iv] build the capacity to facilitate gender analysis in the design and implementation of the FRP.
The Department mobilised female students of technical schools to aspire for higher level education in road sector related fields. Further, it established Gender Units at the provincial level. In addition, it conducted gender awareness creation for all members of provincial Gender Units as well as all Government and private sector professionals working with the FRP.

The provincial Gender Units were responsible for:

a. Promoting women’s participation in labour-based work
b. Registering women for the road works
c. Addressing issues of sexual harassment.
d. Community gender awareness creation to facilitate the recruitment of female labour.

Each province defined its own target for women’s participation ranging from 10-28 per cent. As a result, the average rate of women’s participation in the FRP rose from 2 per cent in 1992 to 19 per cent by in 2002, a slightly lower figure than the national target of 25 per cent.

Nicaragua

Case Study 25: Economic Governance in the Water and Sanitation Sector in RAAN and RAAS in Nicaragua

The joint UN programme was designed to strengthen the economic and democratic governance of the water and sanitation sector in the Caribbean coast of Nicaragua. This was to be achieved through the following: i] Increase participation and coordination between institutional and social actors; ii] Strengthen the institutional framework and infrastructure investment; iii] increase access to sustainable water and sanitation services. Indigenous peoples and Afro-descendent communities were to receive priority.

The PRODOC acknowledged women’s socially ascribed roles of caring for the home and the children and the associated responsibilities of provision of water and maintaining proper sanitation. Accordingly, it committed to gender mainstreaming in the various programme interventions to ensure the participation as well as the empowerment of women. Gender was, however, not well mainstreamed in the programme design. Gender is explicit in only one result area and even then it is limited to women’s participation. Not all relevant indicators were sex disaggregated.

Figure 6. Impact on Women’s Capacities and Participation in Decision-Making

The programme evaluation report notes that despite the traditional gender division of labour in the Caribbean coast, there was a noticeably high level of participation of women in the project. As a result, the project contributed to women’s empowerment through, inter alia, capacity building. Women constituted 60 per cent of the Water and Sanitation Committees and 40 per cent of the masons trained. Thirty per cent of the 91 leaders involved in water and sanitation decision-making spaces are women. The programme also offered management training to 67 water and sanitation sector Government officials, 39 per cent of who were women.
One of the reported under-achievements was the near absence of women in decision-making at the municipal level. This, according to the evaluation report was attributed to the lack of a gender strategy as well as expertise amongst the participating agencies to provide gender mainstreaming guidance.

**Case Study 26: Promotion of employment and income generation through the use of labour intensive technologies and micro and small enterprise development**

Between November 2001 and October 2006, Nicaragua implemented an EIIP the overall objective of which was to contribute to the reduction of poverty in the rural communities by promoting the involvement of micro-companies and the use of local resources, especially human labour, in the construction of infrastructure.

The project document was silent on gender. However, a few initiatives were put in place during its implementation. For instance, in order to build the capacities of female entrepreneurs, the project organized targeted training for women. According to an undated contractor tracing study, some of the training conducted, included a gender dimension. The project conducted 128 training workshops and seminars involving 5,721 government officials, workers, small contractors and individuals interested in becoming small business construction as well as university students. A total of 1,932 people participated in the execution of the works. Fourteen micro enterprises with a total membership of 150 were established and registered. The average rate of the participation of women in the project activities, capacity building and execution of the works was 38 per cent. However, most of this participation was in voluntary [unpaid] work.

**Panama**

**Case Study 27: Fortalecimiento de la equidad para reducir las brechas en los servicios públicos de agua segura y saneamiento mediante el empoderamiento ciudadano en áreas indígenas excluidas.**

This is a joint UN MDG-Fund programme which was designed to improve the quality of life of the target communities though construction of water and sanitation infrastructure. Whereas the PRODOC indicates that communities were consulted, the document is not explicit on women’s participation in the identification process. However, women’s burden as regards water for household consumption is underscored. The document indicates that it takes 30-60 minutes each way carrying buckets of water weighing between 5-15 kg. Further, that water collection is undertaken several times a day including night hours on routes which are many times unsafe. Given their extensive knowledge as well as stake in improved access to water and sanitation, the programme specifically targeted women.

The project confirmed that the key constraints to women’s participation in development were on account of confidence as well as inadequate awareness about rights. Women’s groups were involved in the execution of the programme and they underwent training on rights, capabilities and leadership.

The programme also included gender awareness creation of both female and male community members about women’s rights and the significance of their participation. As a result, the programme empowered women and contributed to addressing some of the gender inequalities in these otherwise patriarchal communities. Amongst other things, men were reported to be supportive of women’s participation in the project activities besides participating in household chores. The programme management attributes this success to the methodology used in the training which involved a combination of theory and practical sessions. Besides, the participants were encouraged to share their gender knowledge with their family members as well as the community at large.

The programme minimised the time and the risks involved in water collection. The improved sanitation has afforded women and girls some much needed privacy and convenience. The programme supported the establishment of seven construction micro-enterprises and trained women in several aspects of water and sanitation. Some [25] of these were constituted in water and sanitation implementation committees. A total of 80 women were trained in human rights and leadership. Many of these are reportedly involved in community leadership.
The programme also made visible the fact that gender intersects with other inequalities to disadvantage women. Informed by a gender analysis, the programme was able to identify and effectively address women’s vulnerability in indigenous communities.

There is no record of men’s participation in the programme.

**Paraguay**

**Case Study 28: Fortaleciendo Capacidades para la Definición y Aplicación de Políticas de Agua Potable y Saneamiento**

This Joint UN programme sought to improve the water and sanitation sector through a bottom-up participatory approach involving the beneficiary communities. One of the four expected results incorporated an explicit gender dimension vis: “Strengthened gender sensitive service delivery of quality drinking water and sanitation”. It is not clear to what extent this objective was achieved.

For purposes of sharing gender related experiences and peer learning, the programme promoted South-South exchanges on gender. These involved the participation of women leaders in international meetings as well as exchange visits to Nicaragua. This motivated some of the beneficiaries to organise women in their respective communities to engage in various income generating activities.

**Peru**

**CASE STUDY 29: Promotion of small scale road maintenance contractors**

The project was intended to promote small-scale road maintenance on rural and national roads. The project operational handbook underscored the importance of gender mainstreaming in all phases of the training of small-scale companies, as well as in the call for, and promotion of, the selection of the associates. In order to ensure that at least 10 per cent of the members in the microenterprises were women, the handbook defined a quota of at least 30 per cent female representation in the community assemblies/meetings.

Despite these guidelines, most [86%] of the participating zonal units did not apply gender-sensitive approaches. This, according to the 2004 project evaluation report, was due to the resistance of the partners to considering gender. Where women did participate, they were allocated tasks that required less physical effort. Only four per cent of the women undertook activities similar to those of the men. None of the companies that participated in the national road works engaged women; the partners were 100 per cent male. The few women served as cooks in the national road work camps. In general, the level of the participation of women was only 3.7 per cent of the total, largely because the gender approach was not used in the final selection of the partners.

**Case Study 30: Special rural roads project**

More attention was paid to gender in a follow up project: the “Ministry of Transport and Communications Special Rural Roads Project”, designed and implemented between 2001 and 2006. One of the objectives of the project was defined as: “to increase access to basic social services and economic and income-generating activities with gender equity to help alleviate rural poverty in Peru”. A gender study was part of the project preparation.

The study identified ways in which gender mainstreaming could be strengthened within the project. Among other things, the study acknowledged the potential gender differentiated impacts of the project due to social values, norms and culture, which are conditioned by gender systems. The project implementers, the local authorities and the civil servants responsible for road management perceived gender as a donor fashion, and the participation of women as an act of good faith, a favour that constrains productivity.

In order to challenge the existing unequal social relations, gender capacity-building targeting the institutional personnel was conducted between March 2001 and June 2002. To further promote women’s involvement, quotas were defined as follows: a target of 10 per cent female participation in routine road maintenance microenterprises and 20 per cent in road committees. To ensure the achievement of these targets, the guidelines and procedures for the structure of the microenterprises were revised and the requirement of the members “to have experience in bricklaying or civil
construction” and to be “literate”, which tacitly disadvantaged women, were removed. As a result, there was a gradual increase in the number of women involved in the maintenance of rural roads and the improvement of non-motorized rural tracks to 22 per cent by the end of the second phase.

**Rwanda**

**Case Study 31: HIMO**

The general objective of the Labour-Intensive Public Works [HIMO] Strategy is to contribute to poverty reduction through employment-intensive approaches and the promotion of income-generating investments using local resources. The HIMO strategy includes infrastructure development and capacity-building, as well as various aspects of social protection. Gender sensitivity and advocacy are defined as some of the underlying principles of the HIMO strategy: “Considering that women form a greater proportion of the population in Rwanda than men, the HIMO approach emphasizes the integration of women in EIIP activities and training opportunities. Gender issues are also included among other sensitization aspects at the work sites”. The strategy document acknowledges that the HIMO approach offers a platform for sensitizing the beneficiaries on cross-cutting issues such as gender.

An additional measure to promote gender equality and women’s empowerment is the involvement of the ministry in charge of gender, as well as the representation of the National Women’s Council on the HIMO National Steering Committee [NSC]. Among other things, the NSC is responsible for overseeing the implementation of the HIMO strategy.

The Strategy also identifies the involvement of women and men in HIMO activities as an opportunity for the local authorities to address some of the prevailing gender inequalities. The Strategy does not, however, clarify how this is to be achieved.

**Senegal**

**Case Study 32: PROHIMO**

The project was designed with the objective of promoting labour intensive techniques in all parts of the country through, *inter alia*, capacity building. The key PROHIMO strategy was to create a social net for marginalized and illiterate young people through the provision of certified professional training in the construction industry. According to the evaluation report, gender was taken into consideration during this vocational training. Further, that women proved to be more effective in certain aspects of paving including transporting water, soaking of pavers in situ, as well as cleaning of the work site, activities which reflect their [women’s] socially ascribed role. This suggests that the project perpetuated stereotypes as regards the gender division of labour.

The female beneficiaries reported that their participation in the project had empowered them in several ways. First, they were able to earn an income which enabled them to accumulate capital to start small income generating activities. This is especially significant considering the traditional restrictions on women accessing credit from formal institutions. Second, as a result of the training, they were exploring the possibility of establishing micro-enterprises to manufacture pavers, bricks etc. for the construction market.

Women constituted about 30 per cent of both the vocational training participants as well as the skilled and unskilled workers.

**Sierra Leone**

**Case Study 33: Quick Impact Employment Creation Project [QIECP] for Youth**

The development objective of QIECP is to create employment opportunities for the youth through labour based infrastructure development. The PRODOC acknowledges that gender inequalities are pervasive and are reflected in women’s inequitable access to education, employment, politics, decision making as well as in the feminization of poverty. The programme evaluation report notes that despite this recognition, gender was not mainstreamed in the design stage. Further, that gender analysis appears not to have informed the preparation of the implementation plan. Accordingly, gender was nearly absent from the programme outputs and outcomes.
The programme targeted both women and men living in communities along the roads. Women constituted only 12 per cent of the over 75,000 person-days of employment generated. The proportion of women amongst the 172 contractors and unskilled workers trained in contract management in 2012 was less than 5 per cent. The evaluation report attributes the under-representation of women to the lack of a QIECP-specific gender strategy. This is in addition to the persistent retrogressive traditional beliefs and practices.

To ensure longer-term employment opportunities, a small number of contractors, mostly women, were trained in routine maintenance of the improved physical infrastructure.

Somalia

Case Study 34: Employment for Peace Programme

The Employment for Peace Programme [EPP] sought to create productive employment opportunities in order to improve the material and social well being of Somalis. The first phase was implemented between 2006-2007 and the second between 2008-2010. The EPP PRODOC identifies women amongst the most vulnerable on account of being disproportionately affected by the continuous conflict in the country. Further that women were over-represented amongst the entrepreneurial poor. Amongst others, the PRODOC proposed to target women amongst the primary beneficiaries as well as make use of Gender Enterprise Together [GET] training, a generic ILO business development service tool.

One of the four expected programme outputs under EPP [2008-2010] was to create decent work targeting *inter alia* women. To ensure women’s participation, SAACID, a Somali women’s organization, was the local implementing partner. The training module for the private sector included a gender component on enterprise development.

The project collected sex and gender disaggregated data and reported that the EPP created 84,455 workdays, 41.6 per cent [35,102 workdays] benefitted women. In terms of numbers, women constituted 71 per cent of the total number of people employed. To further ensure gender sensitivity, the programme included gender awareness creation targeting both the implementing partners and communities. Also integral to the programme were routine household surveys assessing the extent to which women controlled the income earned.

As the extract below suggests, the programme *inter alia* provided women with financial freedom to women.

> “This is the first time that I have ever seen women and men treated the same in my lifetime. It is also the first time that I have seen women employed in manual labour in my district... I never thought I could repay my loan, but fortunately, when I received my first month’s salary, I was able to reimburse the holder of my debt, and now I feel free”. 43-year-old widow with 3 children in her care

Employment for Peace: Promoting gender equity project

The evaluation of the first phase of the EPP indicated that whereas the percentage of women involved in the programme activities ranged from 52-70 per cent, they were largely involved in unskilled work with limited participation in leadership and decision-making positions, a fact attributed to cultural barriers. Accordingly, a stand-alone project, namely: “Employment for Peace – Promoting Gender Equity” was designed in 2007 with the overall objective of increasing the level and quality of women’s participation in the EPP through training in leadership and communication skills. The project was implemented concurrently with EPP2.

The specific objectives of the project were, amongst others, defined as:

a. Empower women to improve their participation in the identification, planning, design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of infrastructural projects.

b. Public and private sector capacities developed for the creation of sustainable equitable employment.

c. Institute mechanisms to address stereotypes regarding gender roles.
d. Create gender equitable employment opportunities.

According to the project completion report, all the above-mentioned objectives were achieved. The project adopted a participatory and gender sensitive implementation approach, involving community contracting, which resulted in women participating equally with men in the project. As part of the community entry process, discussions about gender were held with the relevant local authorities. Community project committees were established to amongst others ensure that gender was mainstreamed in the implementation process. The committee members underwent training in project management as well as governance. Women constituted six out of the 24 committee members and this according to project reports was a deliberate strategy to promote their participation in decision making. As a result, the reports further indicate, this contributed to women’s improved confidence as well as changing attitudes amongst the men as regards gender equality.

The project’s community needs assessment was participatory and consultative. Both women and men were given equal opportunities to give their views. The project defined a quota of 50 per cent women’s participation. In addition, women were given priority during the recruitment of the workers. This coupled with the community awareness about gender as well as fair employment resulted in women constituting 75 per cent of the workers employed by the project.

To institutionalize the good mainstreaming practices, the project strengthened the capacity of the Ministry responsible for gender. The support was targeted towards the unit responsible for adult literacy with the intention of continuously. Working with women’s grassroots groups, the project created gender awareness amongst the communities. Furthermore, the project build the capacities of these groups to deliver entrepreneurship training, research and employment promotion services for women.

The project acknowledged that on account of gender differences, women are more vulnerable to economic insecurities. Further, that these vulnerabilities are heightened by conflict.

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The project acknowledged that on account of gender differences, women are more vulnerable to economic insecurities. Further, that these vulnerabilities are heightened by conflict.

The project developed and maintained a gender sensitive monitoring and evaluation system. A gender consultant was recruited to conduct a training of trainers for project staff as well as selected local partners. The project also equipped 70 youth [22 women and 48 men] with computer skills.

**South Africa**

**Case Study 35: Expanded Public Works Programme [EPWP]**

The national Expanded Public Works Programme [EPWP] was established in 2004/5 with the overarching objective of using the national budget to create one million job opportunities in five years, and emphasizing the creation of unskilled work opportunities for the unemployed. In addition, it is supposed to equip the workers with some training and work experience, in order to enhance their ability to earn a living in the future. Such work opportunities would be created by:

- Labour-intensive programmes for building roads; environmental programmes, such as water, sanitation and other social and economic services.
- Permanent capacity for the maintenance of infrastructure on a sustainable basis.
- Provide community services in health, welfare and in other areas.
- Launch a large-scale early childhood development [ECD] programme as a deliberate human resource investment.

The EPWP expanded the concept of public works beyond the traditional focus on infrastructure to include social, environmental and economic activities. By including the social sector, the EPWP expands the benefits accruing to women by creating employment opportunities and addressing gendered time poverty. Caring for the young, the old and the sick is women’s socially ascribed responsibility. Providing these services significantly reduces women’s work burden, thus facilitating the transfer of their labour to the market economy, including public works.

The identification and prioritization of all government projects, including the EPWP, is undertaken in an integrated manner. It is a consultative process involving both women and men. According to the Department of Public Works [DPW] in Limpopo, gender is a national issue and gender sensitivity is a constitutional obligation. By inference, interventions selected under EPWP are obliged to be responsive to the needs of women, as well as to those of men.

The EPWP is guided by a Code of Good Practice for special public works programmes. Among other things, the Code defines quotas for the employment of women and requires the involvement of community groups in the recruitment process and skills building for the workers. All
the EPWP infrastructural investments have a Project Steering Committee [PSC]. The PSCs are responsible for mobilizing and recruiting the labour for the works. They are also responsible for ensuring that the contractors meet all their contractual obligations. Women are supposed to constitute 60 per cent of the PSC. The PSC assigns a Public/Community Liaison Officer to the contractor. The P/CLO is charged with the welfare of the workers and acts as the link between the contractors and the workforce.

The EPWP1 made a deliberate effort to guarantee jobs in a proportionate manner: according to the levels of unemployment and poverty. The initial target of 60 per cent women beneficiaries, especially in the environmental and economic sectors, was based on prevailing demographic data. The argument was that considering that women constituted 60 per cent of the poor in the country, a similar proportion should benefit from EPWP interventions.

The goal of the EPWP is to “alleviate unemployment for a minimum of one million people in South Africa of which at least 60 per cent should be women, 30 per cent youth and 2 per cent disabled”. Under EPWP2, which started early this year [2009], these proportions have been revised as follows: 55 per cent women, 40 per cent youth and 2 per cent persons with disability [PWDs]. The adjustments were intended to reflect the realities on the ground. For instance, discussions with key EPWP actors showed that infrastructure projects could mobilize an average of 40 per cent women. This target is realistic and can easily be achieved because “the people who are readily available to work are usually women” [FGD DPW, Limpopo].

The EPWP provides for skills [life and work] development for the workers. The workers are entitled to a minimum of 10 days training. There are two days paid training leave per month. The training includes a wide range of issues including technical and life skills, HIV/AIDS, and business development. For various bureaucratic and other reasons, the training has not always been conducted. Workers from only one of the six sites visited indicated that they had undergone training, and even then it had been for a course that they suggested was inappropriate.

The programme also includes a learnership aspect, which is intended to develop contractors. Once the contractors have been trained, they have to register with a board that is supposed to make it easier for them to get work. EPWP provides for an Affirmable Business Enterprise [ABE], which is at least 51 per cent owned by one or more previously disadvantaged individuals [PDI] and the management and daily business operations of which are under the control of one or more PDIs. Women are included amongst the PDIs.

This affirmative action for women improves the chances of qualifying female-owned contracting firms participating in the learnerships and also of winning EPWP contracts. “...a young, black woman with a registered construction firm stands very good chances of joining a learnership programme. Perhaps that explains why women constituted 14 out of the 24 contractors who were trained in our group”. FGD contractors, Polokwane

It is a contractual obligation to provide facilities that enable women to balance their work in the EPWP with their domestic responsibilities. The contractors are expected to provide separate toilet facilities, female and male condoms, protective wear and good quality hand tools. Crèches are not necessary because this service is catered for under the ECD, where the government provides child care facilities in all communities in the country. The bills of quantities include estimates to cater for social issues such as gender equitable mobilization and the recruitment of labour. This is by way of remunerating the P/CLOs, as well as the respective PSCs. Also provided for are training costs, which include the workers’ pay while they are being trained, as well as their transport and accommodation costs. The disadvantaged and unskilled segments of the community, a majority of which are women, would definitely benefit from the training opportunity. People typically work a minimum of three months. The contractors are also obliged to follow the “equal pay for equal work done” principle, irrespective of gender. The contractors are happy with these contractual obligations because they do not affect their profit margins.

The programme also uses task-based rather than time-based daily rates. This makes the participation of women easier as it provides some flexibility in the start and end time. In reality however, especially on the construction sites, workers are supposed to report early and at a set time, so that the supervisors can allocate the tasks. According to the DWP staff, however, the workers prefer to stay on the work sites the whole day because “this gives them the sense that they belong to the 08.00–17.00 working class”. According to the contractors, while the principle is to assign the same activities irrespective of gender, the practice is sometimes different. The women are sometimes assigned what are considered lighter tasks. One of the supervisors does, however, argue that it is the workers themselves who feel that the men should do the harder tasks, so sometimes they pair up [female and male] and work together.
Provision is also made for maternity leave. However, given the relatively short duration of the workers’ involvement in the projects, women may not benefit from this. There is no similar provision for the male workers, suggesting that the EPWP does not recognize the importance of the fathers’ involvement in the care of their children.

Unlike other countries where EIIP are “separate” projects, in South Africa the EPWP is institutionalized. All public funding is supposed to be used to create employment opportunities. The EPWP thus provides great scope for promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women.

Figure 7. Gender Representation in EPWP Capacity Building by Target Category

![Gender Representation in EPWP Capacity Building by Target Category](image)

**Source:** ILO. Project Review of the Support to the Implementation of the Expanded Public Works Programme, Limpopo Province. Republic of South Africa. 2010

**Tanzania**

**Case Study 36: Taking labour-based technology to scale**

Labour-based technology [LBT] has been in use in Tanzania for more than twenty years. The experience to date has been through the implementation of isolated projects in different regions in Tanzania, supported by different partners. The projects have taken various forms, from implementation of using force account to training of contractors, petty contractors, clients and consultants.

In order to institutionalize the wider adoption of LBT, the Government of the Republic of Tanzania launched a programme to establish a National Framework for Labour-Based Technology in 2004. The ILO—Sub Regional Office [SRO]—Addis and ASIST provided advice in the preparation of the programme. The programme is intended to support the widespread adoption of LBT and it proposes the setting up of a national focal centre/point for LBT that will spearhead all coordination, linkages and relations, as well as the collection of information/data and their dissemination to all stakeholders. All the available documentation is silent on gender. It is not clear how the institutionalization of LBT has addressed issues of gender justice and the empowerment of women.

**Case Study 37: Employment creation in municipal services delivery in Eastern Africa**

With funding of USD 1.4m from DFID, the ILO promoted public-private partnerships [PPPs] to help local governments address the twin challenge of creating jobs for the poor while ensuring adequate basic infrastructure and the provision of services. The programme was implemented in three East African countries. Tanzania was the major beneficiary, with pilot interventions in Kenya and Uganda.

The programme involved: i) strengthening the capacity of municipal authorities and waste collectors by raising awareness and by providing training, networks and organizational development;
ii] technical advice on enabling systems for small enterprise-based service delivery, including pro-
poor contracting, revenue collection and monitoring and evaluation; and iii] support to broad policy
development on issues related to poverty reduction, service delivery and employment-creation
through advice and knowledge development and dissemination.

Once again, the document reviewed does not mention gender.

**Timor Leste**

**Case Study 38: Rural Infrastructure Development and Employment Generation [TIM Works]**

The TIM Works project was designed to contribute to employment generation, poverty
reduction, economic growth and peace building through the rehabilitation, construction and
maintenance of rural infrastructure using labour-based [equipment supported] work methods. TIM
Works builds on the *Servi Nasaun* project, the first cash-for-work programme in the country which
was implemented throughout the 2006 crisis. The *Servi Nasaun* project provided short-term
employment opportunities to 37,224 people, 48.5 per cent of whom were women.

The TIM Works PRODOC acknowledges that women are disadvantaged as regards access to
education, skills training, and economic development programmes. Accordingly, the programme
defined a minimum quota of 30 per cent women’s participation in the employment generated. Some
of the indicators were sex disaggregated.

The programme generated a total of 1,370,000 workdays, 27 per cent of which were
undertaken by women. Community leaders in each district participated in gender awareness
seminars. The purpose of the awareness creation was, however, not specified. All the technical staff
underwent training on gender.

**Case Study 39: Youth Employment Promotion Programme [YEP]**

**Identification and Design**

The Youth Employment Promotion Programme [YEP] was designed to contribute to
addressing the high rates of youth unemployment in Timor Leste.

The PRODOC acknowledges that while unemployment rates are generally higher, a slightly
higher proportion of men [13%] compared to women [9%] women are engaged in wage
employment. This is, in part, attributed to the fact that girls are more likely than boys to drop out of
school and two-thirds of women aged 15-60 years are illiterate, compared with about half of men.
Besides the relatively lower participation than men in the formal labour force, women are also paid
significantly less than men for similar work.

The PRODOC also acknowledges the prevailing gender differences at the household level
where women are socially ascribed a bigger responsibility of the caring work. This is besides their
participation in farm work. As a result, women work harder and longer hours than men which
constrains their economic and social mobility. An additional constraint identified is women’s limited
access to resources and thus financial collateral to start and maintain a business.

**Responding to gender needs**

One of the specific programme objectives is explicit on gender vis.: “Employment and suitable
training opportunities for young women and men provided by established Employment Centres and
Youth Career Centres, in collaboration with partner organisations”. The PRODOC also indicates the
programme will work towards mainstreaming the gender dimensions of youth unemployment in
policies and programmes through the following activities:

a. Identify the key issues and challenges faced by young women and men in their transition through
   education to the workplace.

b. Encourage young women and men to participate in dialogue and collection action as a necessary

The PRODOC states that the programme will ensure that capacity building programmes are
oriented towards the promotion of gender equality as follows:

a. Gender awareness creation for the technical assistance to the Youth Career Centres and Labour
   Force Development Institute.
b. Gender capacity building for the staff of the implementing partner organisations for the skills and enterprise training and micro-credit schemes.

c. Training programmes will make use of gender-sensitive materials relevant to the national context.

d. Gender sensitivity in counseling of girls and young women.

e. Ensuring a gender balance in the recruitment of trainers.

A Gender Cabinet was assigned the responsibility of promoting equality in accessing training and employment opportunities, as well as ensuring that gender is integral to all programme activities and outputs. The PRODOC also proposed short-term gender consultants to provide technical back-stopping, as required.

As regards targeting, the ultimate beneficiaries of the Programme are identified as young women and men from 15 to 29 years of age. However, other vulnerable groups such as women will also benefit. The overall target of the LB component of the programme is 50,000 persons with a defined quota of 40 per cent female beneficiaries. The Career and Employment Centres are expected to benefit 70,000 youth with a target of 50 per cent women. To facilitate tracking of the progress made towards these targets, the PRODOC committed to the provision of gender disaggregated data in the monitoring and evaluation system as well as in the progress reports.

The PRODOC also suggested that where possible, the programme would create awareness amongst the LB workers about, amongst other issues reproductive rights and domestic violence. The latter possibly as a way of mitigating against the potential gender based violence that sometimes arises as a result of married women earning cash income.

Inbuilt in the LB component of YEP is a voluntary three-month, 108-hour literacy and numeracy training programme designed to enhance the self-esteem and employability of the workers. The majority [61%] of the beneficiaries of this programme were women.

Implementation

A draft Gender Mainstreaming Strategy was developed and translated into the local language to facilitate further discussion before its adoption. However, by the time of the mid-term evaluation, this was yet to be adopted and implemented suggesting possible missed opportunities for promoting gender equality and women’s empowerment during programme implementation. This could perhaps explain why the programme gender coordinator cited budget limitations as the main reason for some of the activities, such as staff gender awareness creation, proposed under the PRODOC, had not been undertaken.

### Table 15. Beneficiaries by Category of Employment and Training Opportunity and Sex [by February 2010]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of opportunity</th>
<th>Women [%]</th>
<th>Men [%]</th>
<th>Total [No.]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocational training</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work experience</td>
<td>54.2</td>
<td>45.8</td>
<td>706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internship</td>
<td>58.5</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On-the-job-training</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>52.0</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strengthening vocational training centres</td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enterprise training</td>
<td>87.0</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>1075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employment promotion</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>80.6</strong></td>
<td><strong>19.4</strong></td>
<td><strong>3666</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


As table 15 shows, there were more female than male beneficiaries of the employment and opportunities created under the programme. There was no explanation as to the under-representation of male youth amongst the beneficiaries. Nonetheless, the mid-term evaluation reported that the self-employment module had been particularly effective in generating income earning opportunities for young women.

In contrast, by the time of the mid-point evaluation, women constituted only 25 per cent of the beneficiaries of the LB component. Again, the report provides no explanation for the under-achievement.
**Case Study 40: Uganda Transport Rehabilitation Programme ([UTRP])**

The primary objective of the feeder roads component of the UTRP was to increase economic activity by improving the transport infrastructure in eastern Uganda. The strategy adopted involved the use of labour based/light equipment technology. The implementation strategy involved contractor development through training and the provision of equipment for lease.

According to the 2002 project evaluation report, the proportion of women to men employed for road works varied from site to site, although the contractors indicated that during the training, they had been encouraged to ensure that women constituted at least 30 per cent of the labour force. The effort to attain this percentage was, however, very dependent on the contractor with some going out of their way to invite women to sign up for road works and others recruiting only those who showed an interest. In a few instances, women were selected to be gang leaders largely because of the perceived need for gender balancing. The project generated a total of 1,475,855 worker-days. The proportion of women in the labour force was estimated to be eight per cent.

Only one of the 16 contractors who were trained and equipped with light equipment was female. Another woman who had a chance to become a contractor after her husband passed on was considered by the project office to be the best performer.

Besides encouraging the participation of women, the project was largely formulated and implemented without giving due consideration to gender. As a result, it did not impact greatly on the existing division of labour in the communities. According to the project evaluation report, the contractors assigned women the task of preparing the food, as well as providing the water. In addition, the allocation of other specific road work tasks was along gender lines. Forepersons and gang leaders seemed to believe that women were more suitable than men for some tasks like spreading gravel, excavation to level and grubbing, and were naturally more efficient at them.

**Case Study 41: Rehabilitation of Kakumiro-Mubende trunk road**

The road was rehabilitated using labour-based methods. Before the project started, the contractor employed a socio-economist, as well as a Community Roads Officer [CRO]. These worked with works committees—comprising female and male community members—which were set up along the road to mobilize, sensitize and recruit the communities for the road works. The socio-economist also conducted a baseline survey, which was used as the basis for defining gender-sensitive indicators, as well as to develop a sensitization and equitable recruitment strategy. The baseline study also identified factors that could constrain the participation of women in the programme and came up with strategies to address them. To ensure equality of opportunity, the project defined a quota of at least 50 per cent participation of women as workers and gang leaders. The people worked six days a week, performing a maximum of three tasks per day. More than 800 workers were involved in the road works, 45 per cent of whom were women. Women were engaged in all project activities and provided seven out of the 12 gang leaders.

**Case Study 42: Road Sector Programme Support ([RSPS])**

The Danida RSPS involved, inter alia, LB road rehabilitation works and training. The project feasibility study included a gender analysis. To ensure that women’s priorities were addressed, it was recommended that district Local Government Gender Officers should be involved in the planning. In addition, it recommended that the underlying causes of the low participation by women would need to be assessed in detail, so that the appropriate strategies could be developed. The component document did not include gender-sensitive indicators and thus suggested that a gender action plan should be developed during implementation.

A sociologist was charged with promoting the socio-economic aspects of the project including gender. All the technical studies undertaken had a gender perspective and to ensure responsive outcomes, the study teams included sociologists. In order to strengthen the mainstreaming of gender during implementation, a number of strategies were put in place. The local government community development staff was actively involved in all stages of the road improvement process. Local government stakeholders, including politicians and technocrats, participated in the programme.
through public hearings, as well as through mobilisation and workshops to raise awareness about the road works, including the significance of the participation of women.

The introduction of gender, an otherwise sensitive issue in such forums, resulted in stakeholders identifying with it and making recommendations as to how to address some of the related challenges. A target of 40 per cent participation by women was defined in a participatory manner.

Gender sensitivity was ensured through: i] providing equal opportunities for both women and men; ii] undertaking 50 per cent of the works through task rate; iii] 60 per cent of the contracts using flexible working time; iii] all work sites providing separate sanitary facilities for women and men; and iv] women being encouraged to undertake nontraditional tasks.

Monitoring was participatory and it included Local Government Gender Officers, as well as female and male community representatives. The programme developed monitoring forms to ensure gender sensitivity in the recruitment process, as well as to track the proportion of women in responsible positions, views on female employment and the level of women’s remuneration the relative to that of the men.

Initiatives to address gender in capacity-building included gender awareness training for local government non-engineering technical staff, specifically community development/gender officers, environmental officers and labour officers. Training was also offered to political and administrative officials, including district chairpersons, chief administrative officers, the district secretary for works, and the chairpersons and secretaries of district tender boards. In recognition of the importance of community mobilization in promoting the participation of women in road works, a district community mobilizers’ course was developed. The training centre employs a sociologist who handles cross-cutting issues, including gender. Each of the training modules incorporates gender.

Other measures included providing space, i.e. separate rooms, and toilet and shower facilities for women during training. The allocation of space was managed in a flexible manner, in order to accommodate the specific number of female trainees there at the time. Women constituted 10 per cent of the total 567 people trained. The participation of women was encouraged through affirmative action, whereby firms with more women in their team were awarded additional points during bid evaluation.

As a result of the inadequacy of mechanisms to ensure compliance with the conditions laid out in the contract, the majority of the contractors did not adopt flexible working hours and separate facilities were not provided for women on most sites, the argument being that road works were within easy reach of the workers’ homes. No shelters were provided for breastfeeding mothers. The gender sensitivity of the recruitment process varied. The majority of the contractors provided equal employment opportunities for both women and men through advertising on market days and through the community, as well as through local government administrative structures. Others, however, informed communities of potential work opportunities via their staff, thus limiting the participation of women.

The principle of equal opportunities was not always taken into consideration during the recruitment process. The criteria predominantly used for recruitment included physical fitness and trials, as well as interviews on fixed dates, obviously deterring the participation of women. By the time the project was closed, the participation of female workers was 28 per cent, a figure that compares favourably with the 30 per cent minimum target for the participation of women in labour-based road works set by the government.