



UNITED NATIONS
ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR AFRICA

Distr. : GENERAL
ECA/EA-SRO/ICE/2003/008(iii)
January 2004

Original: English

13

Eastern Africa Subregional Office

EA-SRO

*Meeting of the Intergovernmental Committee of Experts
Nairobi, 21 - 24 January 2004*

EASTERN AFRICA AT THE CROSSROADS:
*Consolidating Peace, Accelerating Poverty Reduction
and Deepening Regional Integration*

**GENDER RESPONSIVE BUDGETING
IN THE CONTEXT OF POVERTY
REDUCTION AND
BUDGETARY REFORM**

Volume 3: Briefing and technical notes

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1 Briefing note 1: The concept of gender

- **Gender refers to the social relations between men and women, which can vary over time and across cultures.**

Biologically,

- Females and males are different.
- All males are the same, all females are the same (have the same characteristics).
- These biological characteristics are fixed and unchanging. They do not vary over time and in different cultures.

Socially

- There are **differences between** men and women:
- All women are not the same, all men are not the same. Women, as men are not a homogeneous category. There are **differences among** women and among men
- The social characteristics **vary** over time and in different contexts.
- The differences depend on many other **variables**: age, education, income, social class/status, religion, nationality, ethnicity, region, environment and so on.
- They are specific to a **context** and to different settings.
- The social differences between women and men exist not because they are **separate** but because they **relate** to each other. They are interdependent.
- It is as a result of this **cooperation** that there is difference, for instance in the division of labour in herder households.
- Men and women engage in social relationships. A relationship implies **interdependence** and cooperation. Without cooperation, there is no division of labour, of roles and responsibilities.
- The **nature of this relationship** need not be harmonious, nor is the cooperation voluntary and freely entered into, nor equal. They are power relations
- Because of this nature, the differences can be **disparities, inequalities**.
- **Social rules, norms**, customs, conventions, practices, laws prescribe, influence, justify the nature of this relationship. In turn these norms, values are defined by a particular view of what the nature of the relationship is and should be.

Gender as opposed to the category women and men is the important tool for mainstreaming because it looks at the differentiation between women and men but also among women and among men. This difference among men and among women is based on other variables, such as income, age, ethnicity, locality, education, region, nationality, religion, environment and so on.

2 Briefing note 2 The context of time and energy poverty in sub-Saharan Africa.

The following is an edited extract from the paper *Forging a user-producer nexus for gender-aware poverty reduction actions: Experiences in Mali*, presented by Nalini Burn at the UNIFEM Regional Workshop on Gender Perspectives on Macroeconomics, held in Dakar Senegal, September-October 2003

The income-energy ladder for rural women.

Women in rural areas in Sub Saharan Africa are at the bottom rung of the so-called "energy ladder". The rungs of the ladder associate users of progressively cleaner, more efficient fuels with corresponding higher levels of income. For thermal energy for cooking and heating, women use biomass. For motive power, they use their own energy, muscle power and stamina. These two sources of energy are indicators of women's energy poverty status. However, the greater policy and programme emphasis is put on substitute energy for biomass. The objective is environmental because of concerns about biomass depletion.

Human –animate- energy, measured in energy units, constitutes a very small proportion of energy resources consumed, compared to inanimate sources, such as biomass, which make up approximately 80% of household energy requirements.

But women and children's labour, motive power, is indispensable in making the chain of energy conversions from extraction of biomass to its transformation into an energy service such as heat for cooking. Even where animal power and mechanical equipment is available in the household, gender norms and relations of power tend to exclude women from use, and more likely, ownership and control of these assets within households.

Smallholder agricultural production, the main source of rural livelihood and income for three-quarters of the population, overwhelmingly depends on inputs of human and animal energy, on muscle power.

Food – both calorie and nutrient - intake, crucial for the daily reproduction of human energy for agricultural and other labour, in turn depends on processing and preparing the food harvested or gathered.

Women and girls and to some extent boys, are responsible for the frequent, repetitive tasks associated with post-harvest food preparation.

The cost of a meal in rural Africa.

What then is the cost of a meal, in such an energy system?

The **direct costs** associated with post-harvest food preparation are

- Provisioning for water
- Firewood,
- Grinding grain, de-husking , pressing cooking oil
- Searching for wild foods and processing other ingredients
- Actual cooking and meal preparation
- Serving food
- Washing up and other domestic work.

The first 4 tasks would be included within the 1993 System of National Accounts boundary[SNA].¹ The last three would count as services and domestic work, within the production boundary, but outside the SNA. But even when they are in principle within the SNA boundary, they would tend to be classified as domestic work in census and survey data, through the gender bias at questionnaire design and collection stage. See Set 3

The direct costs are thus high per meal, but the productivity per worker - how many meals a woman can produce during a period of time – is low. To these must be added other costs.

Linked to the lower energy efficiency of fuelwood combustion are other direct non-monetised costs, the occupational hazards for women of exposure to indoor air pollution when cooking , the negative impacts in terms of health. These are burns, acute respiratory infections, lung disease, internal disorders and eye problems, the health costs of fatigue, physical wear and tear, exposure to hazards in gathering fuelwood and “wild foods”.

The **indirect (opportunity) costs** are many.

The arduous and time consuming nature of these activities is at the expense of other activities. These are agricultural production and other productive and income generating uses of time and energy, such as gathering the “wild’ resources used in food preparation, oil and soap making and other household provisioning needs, as well as time and energy for child care, health, education, rest, social and cultural activities, recreation and personal maintenance.

¹ Refer to 3Briefing note 3: Time use classifications.

The invisible income-energy trap: an alternative poverty diagnosis.

Women's labour - their motive power and time – is crucial to sustaining rural economies and livelihoods and the cohesiveness of societies. It is their dependence on their own energy and the inequitable gender norms and power relations which load them with many daily obligations, which lead to women's time poverty, the depletion of their time. Energy poverty is a constraining factor.

Increased income is necessary to be able to afford to climb another rung of the energy ladder and release human time and energy for human development purposes. However this increased income is not possible without spending further time and human energy. When usage levels are already very high, this further expenditure is not possible. Such is the energy - poverty trap, the vicious circle, which women in Sub Saharan Africa, in particular are struggling to get out of.

However this energy-poverty trap is invisible. It does not inform the construction of the poverty line. There is no indicator for the cost of a meal, important as it is for food security monitoring and no target to reduce the cost of a meal for poor rural women for instance, or increase the productivity of meal preparation.

The line of reasoning behind most income poverty line construction is the expenditure necessary for a certain nutritional intake plus other basic necessities. But to transform commodities and products into calorie intake requires, as we have seen, water, cooking fuel, meal preparation, cleaning and feeding. The dimension of time and energy poverty is hidden because food produced for own consumption, even when included in national accounts by households is estimated through production estimates which is then valued at food commodity prices.

The conventional poverty diagnosis sees poverty as "lack", in terms of what women and men do not have enough of (less than one dollar a day). However it is more useful to see what they actually have and do while poor, and what it takes to move out of poverty. In women's case, the poverty situation is more a case having to do too much and deplete what they have as their only asset: their body to mobilise the "free" natural resource base. The link between poverty with unequal power relations can be made in terms of how women are forced to do too much, because of men's command over their labour. In a double sense, therefore, women's labour is not free.

The mainstream thinking about environment/energy and economy interactions is in terms of stocks and flows of materials and energy, usually inanimate forms of energy. It is what informs the environment-economy models and data sets currently being developed, such as the Satellite System of Integrated Environmental and Economic Accounting [SEEA 2003]². What statistical systems count are stocks and flows of material and energy.

² Can be downloaded from www.unstats.un.org/UNSD.

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They count quantities. These national account frameworks are based on economic paradigms, such as the Keynesian Circular Flow of Income. The link with who does what and for whom, is rather opaque.

The failure to make explicit the complementary nature of human energy service provision with other energy sources has far from marginal consequences. These human activities are time-intensive, have low labour productivity, precisely because they rely on human motive power almost exclusively and usually to process “raw” natural resources: gathering “wild” resources, including collecting water and firewood, cultivating plants and rearing animals. Human energy and time budgets are limited on a daily, seasonal and life-cycle basis and depletion can lead to daily exhaustion and reduced life expectancy. Hence the concept and living reality of human time-energy poverty.”

3 Briefing note 3: Time use classifications

Extract from UN Secretariat, Division of Economic and Social Affairs, Expert Group Meeting on Trial International Classification for Time-Use Activities, 13-16 October 1997, New York

“The purpose and organisation of the paper

There is a need to define a conceptual framework and classification of activities, which countries, especially those embarking on time-use studies for the first time, can adapt to their own needs and specific contexts. This paper aims to synthesize several existing activity classifications and diary codes and propose a classification of activities based on the System of National Accounts (SNA). Consistency with other existing classification systems and concepts, namely the concept of economic activity which is related to the SNA and the occupational and industrial classifications, International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) and International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC), will facilitate development of statistics on unpaid and non-market work. Since the SNA is the basis for national economic statistics, this classification will also help align time-use statistics with more standard forms of economic statistics and increase their versatility for other forms of application, such as for the development of satellite accounts and valuing unpaid work.

SNA as a framework for activities classification

The SNA is the framework for economic statistics and is linked to other international standards on economic concepts such as: economic activity and informal sector; and classifications specifically: the International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE), the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) and the International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (ISIC). The System of National Accounts (SNA) and the concept of economic activity, provide a conceptual basis for distinguishing between what is included in the national accounts aggregates and also what should be considered economic and non-economic activities.

If time-use statistics should lead to improvements in understanding women and men's contribution to the national economy and the well-being of their families, these studies should be rooted in the concepts of general and economic production defined in the context of national accounts.

The classification scheme developed in this paper serves to distinguish the SNA production from other types of production, that is, economic from non-economic activities, and within the economic activities market from non-market production.

Technical notes and briefing sheets

Available studies and survey programmes on time use are drawn upon to develop the detailed activity classification among each major group as well as in the personal needs and leisure groups of activities.

Following this approach, ten major activity groups (classified under four conceptual categories) are distinguished:

- *SNA (Productive and economic) activities --*
 - A. Market-oriented economic activities
 - B. Non-market economic activities within SNA production boundary
- *Non-SNA (Productive but non-economic) activities --*
 - C. Housework
 - D. Child and family care - care of children, the sick, disabled and elderly
 - E. Shopping for (household) goods and services
 - F. Community service and organizational volunteer work
- *Personal (Non-productive) activities --*
 - G. Education, training and study
 - H. Social, arts and culture (media use)
 - J. Personal care, religion and personal maintenance
- *Travel and residual --*
 - J. Travel

List of Major Groups and Divisions within groups

Major group 1. Market-oriented economic activities (income earning, wage/salary labour, family/household enterprise) and related activities

Wage and salary employment
Outworkers/home based work
Self-employment or income-generating activities
Unpaid work (in market-oriented family enterprise, agricultural holdings, etc.)
Domestic and personal services (produced by domestic staff)
Secondary, tertiary jobs
Breaks and interruptions from work
Job search
Other time related to employment

Major group 2. Non-market economic activities within SNA production boundary

Crop farming
Animal husbandry
Hunting and gathering
Mining and quarrying
Processing of food products and beverages
Making textiles and other non-food products
Purchase and sale of goods
Household construction services
Other services

Major group 3. Housework

Cooking/washing up
Indoor cleaning and upkeep of dwelling
Care of textiles
Installation, servicing and repair of personal and household goods
Outdoor cleaning and upkeep of surroundings
Home improvements, maintenance and repair
Pet care
Children's participation in housework
Other housework

Major group 4. Child and family care - care of children, the sick, disabled and elderly

Physical care, training and instruction of children
Accompanying children to places
Physical care of sick, infirm or elderly adult
Family care (excluding housework)
Child receiving care
Adult receiving care

Major group 5. Shopping for household goods and services

Purchase of food and various household supplies
Purchase of household appliances, articles and equipment
Shopping for capital goods
Services
Household management

Major group 6. Community service, organizational and volunteer work

Community service - participation in community organized work
Volunteering with an organisation (which does not involve working directly for individuals)
Volunteer work with organisations extended directly to individuals and groups
Professional/union, fraternal and political organisations

Major group 7. Education, study and training activities

School/university attendance
Studies and course review
Additional study and courses during free time
Other education
Attending courses for hobbies and sports related activities
Child codes

Major group 8. Social, arts and culture (media use)

Socializing at home
Socializing outside the home
Arts and culture (as hobby or pass-time)
Television, reading and other passive leisure
Technical hobbies
Sports participation
Outdoor sports
Games
Spectator to sports

Major group 9. Personal care and maintenance - meeting physiological and spiritual needs

Sleep and related activities
Eating and drinking (meals and snacks, not in restaurants)
Personal hygiene and health
Receiving professional medical and personal care
Recreation and renewal- rest and relaxation
Religious activities
Religious group activities
Other religious practices and spiritual experiences

Major group 10. Travel (by purpose)

At work
Non-market/unpaid economic activities
Housework
Care of children, the sick, disabled and elderly
Shopping for household goods and services
Community service, organisational and volunteer work
Education, study and training
Social, arts, sports and culture
Personal care and religious activities
Unspecified travel and residual activities"

4 Briefing note 4: The 10 Key Questions Tool for Gender analysis

The concept of gender and gender analysis provide the conceptual and analytical framework for disaggregation of data by sex and other variables, the analysis of the data and its policy relevance, and the synthesis needed for an integrated approach.

There are 10 basic questions which help to describe and analyse any development context.

Tool 1: the 10 Key Questions

1. Who does what? [activities]
2. How? With what? [access to resources]
3. Who owns what? [ownership of assets]
4. Who is responsible for what? [obligations, spending]
5. Who is entitled to what, from whom? [claims, rights]
6. Who controls what? [power]
7. Who decides what? [decision-making]
8. Who gets what? [, income, distribution]
9. Who gains and who loses? [redistribution]
10. *Why, On what basis?for each of the questions 1-9 [rules, norms, customs]
(Questions 1-9 can be combined with the additional question, "And With Whom and for whom?", to capture the social relations involved.)*

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There are mainstream assumptions about these 10 questions which shape development interventions. These are mostly implicit. Mainstream interventions are routinely made without systematically addressing all these basic questions.

Mainstream development interventions result nevertheless in outcomes and impacts across all these 10 questions.

Gender analysis identifies, analyses and measures the extent and nature of gender-based asymmetries, differences, disparities and inequalities.

The purpose is to enable development interventions to take into account these differences and to address the disparities and inequalities between and among women and men.

Gender analysis entails

The analysis of difference

The division of labour/activities, resources, rights, responsibilities, obligations, management, decision-making based on prevailing values, norms, rules, customs.

The analysis of the relations between women and men.

As social and economic arrangements for a division of labour imply specialisation and specialisation entails coordination and interdependence. There are relationships of **cooperation** which can also be arenas of conflict.

The analysis of the different contexts of this relationship.

The different sectors of economic and social provisioning: the household, state, market, civil society and community based networks as well as

The implications of the other political, socio economic and environmental variables.

A lesson learned in gender analysis is the need to **contextualise** and to use appropriate tools to be able to discover and analyse the context.

How to integrate a gender approach is not just a question of professional substantive skills and knowledge. It is about applying tools of gender analysis to socio-economic analysis, to organisational and decision-making practices of organisations so that institutional capacity leads to targeted development outcomes and impacts in terms of gender equality.

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The type of disparities and imbalances for men and for women, identified by an analysis of the relationships between categories covered by the 10 Key Questions.

The unequal relationships among the 10 Key Questions.

These are disparities, imbalances

- between activities on the one hand and the resources for undertaking them on the other for women and for men,
- between responsibilities and obligations on the one hand and the rights, the command over resources to achieve them,
- between the responsibility for outcomes and the power to make decisions to realise these outcomes.³

These disparities cannot be presumed to be the same for all men and all women.

This is the value of analysing the 10 Key Questions from a gender perspective. There is enough data and analysis to indicate this as a systemic problem of development but the precise nature and magnitude of the problems has to be uncovered for particular contexts and target groups.

▪ **The nature of the relationships between women and men as a source of inequality.**

The source of these disparities stem from the nature of the relations between women and men

[For example, in contexts of economic reform, increasing opportunities for male farmers can lead to their increased claims over female resources such as land and labour, while reducing women's claim on male resources such as income. Gender asymmetries in rights and obligations lead to worsening income distribution by gender]

From this perspective, the lack of gender equality in these relationships is a source of distortion in resource allocation and is thus an efficiency (and effectiveness) issue as well as an equity issue.

The relations are those of authority, hierarchy, segmentation, segregation, exclusion, discrimination in a variety of institutional settings, which lead to unequal outcomes in the categories covered by the 10 Key Questions. The rules, rights and norms prescribe the nature of cooperation and the resolution of conflict.

³ The first level of disparities between activities and resources, the immediate causes, would lead to the identification of **practical gender needs** of men and of women, based on the division of labour and obligations between women and men. The other levels, the basic causes correspond to what some gender analysis frameworks term **strategic gender interests**, because they challenge the power relationships between women and men. Example, property rights, decision-making, the application of the rule of law to family relationships.

4.1 Technical Note 1: How to use the 10 Key Questions tool

Step 1

Answer each of these questions 1-10 Tool 1, highlighting and addressing gaps in information. [You can use this tool with Tool 2 (Macro Meso Macro Tool) at micro and meso level and some of the questions can be answered at macro level[on activities and output, income, spending, as part of national accounts]

Step 2:

Examine relationships among the 10 key questions for women and men separately (and differentiating among women and among men, using relevant variables)[You will find that the relationship between activities and resources for instances can be traced by looking at the micro and meso levels e.g state provision of infrastructure and fiscal decentralisation at meso level and resources available to producers at micro level]

Step 3:

Identify disparities between each of these, for example between activities and resources, between obligations and rights[. The Micro-meso-macro Tool can be used as a map to examine linkages]

Step 4.

Develop strategies and development interventions to address these disparities and gender-based disparities. These should be done in as participatory and gender-inclusive a manner as possible (note that gender-inclusive looks at other relevant variables such as age, education, position in hierarchy for men and women).

5 Briefing note 5: The Hierarchy of Causes Tool (useful for logframe development)

The gender analysis tools have been developed to be an integral part of known tools for socio-economic analysis and to enhance socio-economic analysis, not just add gender to them.

The 10 key questions tool can be used to undertake the situation analysis, construct a base line and identify problems.

It can be organised to construct a hierarchy of causes, to identify immediate, intermediate and more basic, structural causes in a particular context. Such an analysis can be done with participatory research and action [PRA or more recently known as Participatory Learning and Action]. Such a situation analysis enables the development of Logical Framework Analyses [Log Frames] for programme design, which can be results-based.

5.1 Technical Note 2: How to use the hierarchy of causes tool

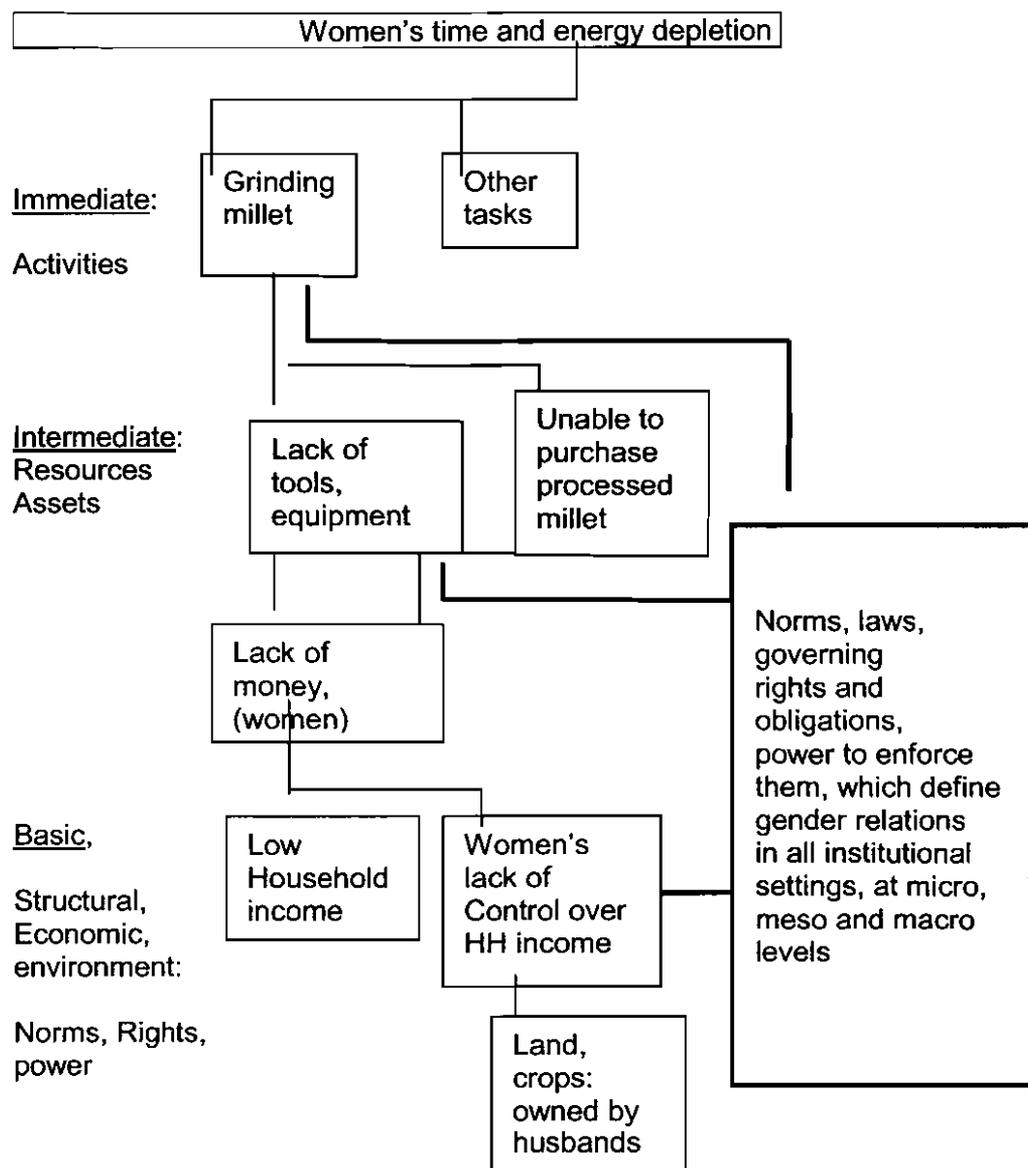
You start with identifying a development problem. This can be the result of an examination of a woman's daily calendar for instance. This can help set out the activities. It is the answer to the question, Who does what? and from then you can ask further questions For each of the questions, you ask the question why.

An example for a key development problem and a major issue of gender inequality is the time and energy burden of women's work particularly in rural areas. Why is women's time and energy depleted. Because of multiple tasks. Look at the activity of grinding millet. Why does she use time and energy to grind millet because of lack of access to grinding equipment. Why because of lack of money. Why? And so on.

You can trace the chain of causes to the meso, macro level starting from this micro situation analysis. You will find how useful and strategic it is to do this, when you look at the Checklist for a Gender Impact Assessment. [See **Error! Reference source not found.**]

This chain of causes provide you with the framework to develop policies and programmes and upstream, to identify the data and indicators, the research that needs to be made, when gaps exist.

This chain of causes will then enable to develop a results tree or chain, which is the logical frame for developing impact [MDG] and outcome focussed [PRSP type] policies and programmes.



6 Briefing note 6: The Micro-meso-macro tool of gender analysis

The Micro Meso Macro Tool is used for identifying how and to what extent institutions are structured by gender relations, asymmetries and inequality.

For example in households, the distribution of paid and unpaid labour between women and men, the degree of flexibility of reproductive work.

In the formal, private and public sector institutions, the extent of gender segregation, both vertical and horizontal, in occupations and in broad economic sectors.

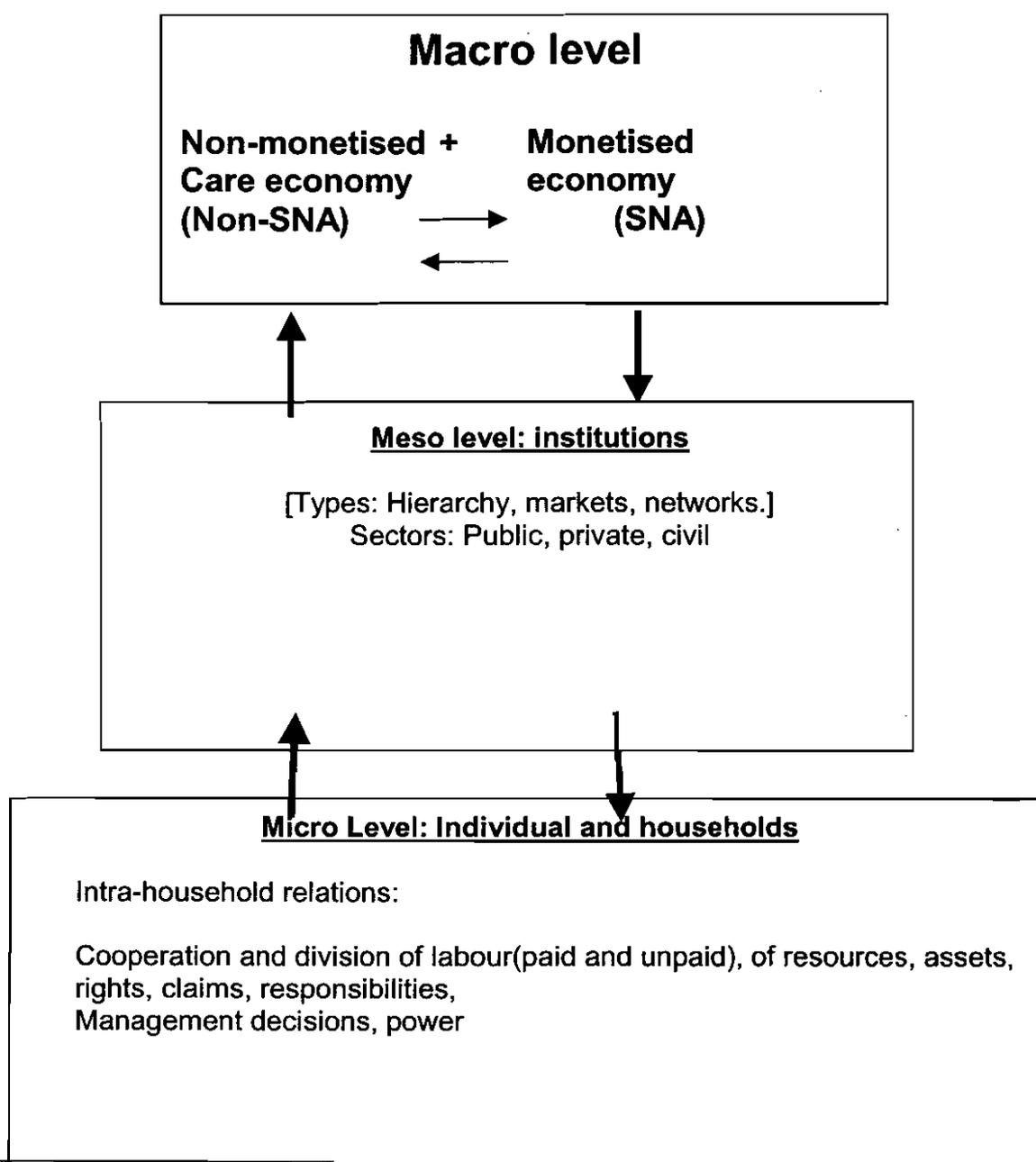
It would also look at the distribution of unpaid labour and the differential ease of entry into labour, goods and service markets by women and men, for example, or how differential wages in the labour market can affect bargaining and negotiation in households over who does unpaid labour.

6.1 The conventional economy.

The framework considers the micro, meso, macro, level of the economy and society. The conventional economic framework has at the macro level, the macro policy dimension and the macro level economic aggregates, information on which to base policy, such as the System of National Accounts, of which GDP is the main indicator.

The meso level mediates between the policy level and the individual economic agent at the micro level. The market and the state are considered the key institutions to coordinate economic life and to allocate resources. Economic agents respond to economic policies and to market signals at the micro level.

Figure 1:A gendered economy⁴



⁴ Based on the earlier analytical framework developed by Professor Diane Elson and the Genecon Unit, University of Manchester

6.2 A gendered structure:

The economy is a gendered structure. It presents structures of opportunities and constraints that are very different for women and men. Relationships and roles can be gender ascriptive: They denote gender, such as daughter. They can be gender bearing, have gender connotations, such as surgeon, nurse. Or activities can be presumed to be gender neutral, neither connotating nor denoting gender, because impersonal.

1. The **macro level** is thought of as **gender neutral**, as it is about monetary aggregates. It is not even about people, whether differentiated as women and men. However, women and men's relationship to money is quite different. Counting only the monetary aggregates of productive activities obscures the time/energy economy of social reproduction, the caring and nurturing of human beings and the maintenance of social cohesion in families and communities. It also ignores the interaction between the time and the money economy, the time/energy budget and the money budget. The interaction is revealed by the activities of women and through their economic and social relations with men.
2. The **micro level**, the basic economic unit is often seen as the household. Households need to be disaggregated, by age and gender. There are gender divisions of labour, income, resource management, ownership and control. There are rights and obligations according to age and gender. Economic behaviour cannot be understood by looking at individuals irrespective of their gender and the economic relations they are engaged in. Women's behaviour as economic agents in the formal money economy cannot be understood without considering their activities, in the caring economy. Men's economic behaviour can appear to be unaffected because the importance of the sector to them is mediated through their relations with women.
3. The micro level is gender ascriptive. The relations are of cooperation and conflict, as relations within the household are asymmetric. The ability of women and children to effectively bargain for resources, for control over time, income, assets and labour is more limited than men.
4. It is not enough to identify the practical gender needs of women and men. The next step is to build the needs arising from these activities into the analysis of the operation of the economy at that level and at higher levels of aggregation, to the macro level.
5. The **meso level** of institutions. The hierarchy within organisations is often a gendered hierarchy and jobs, skills and activities are stereotyped or segregated by gender. For example, farmer still denotes a man. The state is not a gender neutral institution. Economic infrastructure and public expenditure on roads, extension services, marketing centres target male farmers.

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Even food security interventions in Sub-Saharan Africa continue to neglect the fact that women are the main food producers as well as cash crop producers. Export marketing and export revenues from trading in international markets are primarily male activities from which women, without access and control to land, labour and incomes, are excluded. Women in the region would be considered as beneficiaries/clients of the health and nutrition state agencies. State and private sector agencies concerned with the productive economic sector would not even identify the practical gender needs of women.

6. **Are markets gender neutral?** This question is important for gender aware policy development. This is the institution where entrepreneurs are located. For if markets are gender neutral and do not have inherent gender bias, then the policy and intervention issue for promoting women's economic position is to remove constraints to market access. A closer gender analysis of markets is necessary, within a framework for analysing real markets and not the formal abstract markets of economic theory and on which much economic policy is based.
7. **Real Markets** are social institutions, made up of rules, norms, procedures, networks of buyers and sellers. There are relationships of competition but also of cooperation and trust between and among buyers and sellers. Markets by themselves cannot guarantee economic production and exchange of goods and services. Firms and corporations exist to plan and coordinate the allocation of resources. These institutions can vary from one person organisations, sole entrepreneurs to large hierarchical organisations, huge private bureaucracies organised along command and control lines.
8. **Hierarchies**(bureaucracies), markets, networks are different forms of **economic governance**. They are structures of relations between individuals for decision-making over the allocation of resources.
9. **Social institutions** exist relying on rules, norms, obligations, reciprocity, trust and commitment to regulate and coordinate economic life. The reason why anonymous impersonal markets alone cannot do so is because there are hidden costs to economic activity: (market) contracts are incomplete because of the inherent uncertainty of human life. There are costs of information as well as costs of making transactions, of entering into them, making them binding over time. Real markets are made of often face to face transactions between real people, a sphere where gender relations intervene. While entrepreneurs are characterised as risk takers, very many institutions have developed to reduce the uncertainty of economic activity and facilitate risk-taking.

A more complete picture of the meso level

	Hierarchy	Market	Networks
Public	WTO, States EASRO, COMESA	quasi-markets (contracts)	regional cooperation
Private	Transnationals, Chambers of Commerce	Financial commodities	Producer and tax payers' networks Subcontracting Patron-client networks
Civil Society	International NGOs NGOs Political parties, church organisations Unions	quasi-markets	Ngo networks, East African Gender Budget Network, Community, kinship, migrant religious

10. In addition therefore to individualised material resources, there are intangible resources: rights, obligations, claims, access to networks (such as savings and loans tontines), connections at the meso level. Rules governing who is in and who is out, who is included, who is excluded. These are elements of social capital, which make economic activity and private enterprise development possible by building trust and by reducing uncertainty. Women's lack of access to intangible resources can be a source of exclusion from enterprise development. Many meso level institutions such as NGOs have been created to provide the intangible resources, the mediating institutions necessary to promote women's enterprises.
11. One of the interesting and often seen as paradoxical, features of globalisation is the tendency to develop regional cooperation networks and more formal regional organisations. The uncertainty of global markets and rapid economic and technological change has intensified the need for developing institutions based on trust and cooperation.

6.3 Technical Note 3 How to use the macro-meso-micro tool.

This tool can be used in combination with the Ten Key Questions Tool.

- 1 The 10 Key Questions Tool can be applied to each level, to any organisation and institution
2. What are the factors at each level which affect entry to the next level: what are the barriers and what are the opportunities, for women and men separately?
3. How do the conditions in one level(micro) using the 10 Key Questions, affect the conditions of entry in the other level(meso)? There are two-way interactions.

You can look at how your answers to the questions at each level influence entry and exit into different levels/linkages between levels. For example how do state or market-based entitlements influence women's position in the household? What are barriers to entry in markets or political space stemming from care work in the home? What specific processes of exclusion, inclusion, segregation, discrimination exist?

- 3 You can look at relationships within the meso level. How does the shift from state to market influence conditions of access to the meso level and conditions at the micro level, using the 10 Key Questions?