

Handout 2.1

Gender mainstreaming: putting women's rights at the heart of all we do

Summary of key messages

- Oxfam will not be able to contribute to overcoming poverty and suffering if it does not put women's rights at the heart of all it does. It is everyone's responsibility to take gender equality seriously.
- Oxfam takes two approaches to promoting gender equality and women's empowerment: integrating gender equality into everything we do ('gender mainstreaming'), and implementing targeted, women-specific programmes to raise women's status.
- There are simple steps that we can take to integrate gender equality into each stage of the programme cycle.

Discriminatory cultural, religious, and legal practices based on gender stereotypes and unequal power relations deny millions of women their fundamental human rights – for example, the right to health, the right to education, or the right to participate in decisions that affect their lives.

Oxfam's vision is that women will gain more power over their lives and live free from violence through changes in attitudes, ideas, and beliefs about gender relations, and through increased levels of women's engagement and leadership in institutions, decision making, and change processes. To achieve this vision we need to put women's rights at the heart of all we do.

What does it mean to put women's rights at the heart of all we do?

Oxfam takes two approaches to promoting gender equality and women's empowerment:

Gender mainstreaming: Oxfam aims to ensure that all its work, and the way it is done, promotes women's rights by transforming the balance of power between women and men. Oxfam promotes gender equality through all its programme and campaigning work and through its internal policies and practices.

Stand-alone gender programmes: Oxfam has a number of targeted, women-specific programmes aimed at raising the status of women and overcoming women's disadvantages. This includes work to end violence against women, to promote women's leadership in politics and the economy, and to uphold women's rights.

Why do we put women's rights at the heart of all we do?

Gender inequality and poverty are intrinsically linked. Promoting gender equality is therefore key to achieving our goal of overcoming poverty and suffering. Putting women's rights at the heart of all we do is:

- A question of justice: as a result of discrimination and inequality, the majority of the world's poor are women. We must specifically target women, and address women's needs and concerns, in order to redress this denial of their rights;
- A way of addressing poverty more effectively: men and women experience many aspects of poverty differently. We need to be aware of, and address, these differences or we risk further entrenching poverty and the subordination of women. By supporting women to meet their potential, we benefit not only women but also their families and communities.

How do we put women's rights at the heart of all we do?

Gender mainstreaming is one of the strategies we use to promote gender equality. In practice, this means making sure that both women and men are consulted, and their different needs and perspectives considered, at all stages of the programme cycle. This ensures that our programmes benefit women and men equally, do not harm or exclude women, and help to redress existing gender imbalances. It also means examining our organizational practices and ensuring that they support gender equality.

Gender mainstreaming requires that all Oxfam staff have knowledge and awareness of the ways that gender relations affect their work so that they may address gender issues wherever appropriate and thus make their work more effective. The table below identifies some of the key issues that should be considered at each stage of the programme cycle. They are based on Oxfam's experience of, and learning from, its work on gender equality.

Stage of programme cycle	Issues to consider
Programme identification	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Examine gender roles and relations in terms of the distribution of power and resources, and how these are affected by social factors such as age, disability, caste, class, and ethnic differences.• Ensure data collected are disaggregated and analysed by gender in order to identify the different perspectives of women and men on poverty issues.• Ensure objectives and strategies address the gender issues identified in the situation analysis.• Identify whether potential partner organizations have gender-sensitive policies and practices, e.g. staff training, resources, and leadership on gender, and select partners who share Oxfam's gender concerns.
Programme planning and design	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Ensure the representation and participation of women and men from diverse, marginalized groups in the planning process, and check that their interests and opinions are reflected in decisions made.• Consider whether it is necessary and/or appropriate to include activities that directly address gender discrimination.• Identify gender-sensitive indicators, e.g. changes in the balance of women's and men's access to resources and decision making, incidence of gender-based violence, discriminatory attitudes against women, and women's empowerment.• In emergency contexts, ensure that a culturally appropriate strategy for enhancing the dignity of women and girls has been developed.• Explore whether project activities are gender-sensitively planned. Does the programme aim to reduce discrimination against women, and how will this be monitored?

<p>Programme implementation and management</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure appropriate participation of both sexes in project implementation and monitoring. Ensure that participation of women does not merely increase their workload, but means their active involvement in decision making. Ensure that men understand the reason for this and support it. • Adopt management practices that are aware of and supportive of the different professional needs, ambitions, and challenges of men and women.
<p>Programme evaluation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure that evaluating impact on gender equality is included in evaluation Terms of Reference. • Evaluate the different impacts the project may have had on women and men and on the power relations between them. Consider how women feel about Oxfam's interventions. • Ensure a gender balance of staff on the evaluation team.

Some of the key outcomes that we should aim to achieve are:

- Women and men participate in private and public decision making more equally;
- Women have more equal access to, and control over, economic and natural resources, and basic social services;
- Fewer women suffer gender-related violence, and women have increased control over their own bodies (e.g. reproductive decisions);
- Gender stereotypes and discriminatory attitudes towards women and girls are challenged and changed;
- Women's organizations are established, strengthened, and included in key processes;
- Women's self-confidence and leadership skills are increased.

Source: 'Oxfam GB's Programme Framework', Oxfam (2010)

Handout 2.2

Rescuing the past: Using indigenous knowledge to reduce climate-related risk in Bolivia

The flooding that devastated the Amazonian department of Beni in 2008 was the worst in at least 50 years, affecting 118,000 people and around three-quarters of the total surface area of Beni. In the previous two years there had also been widespread damage from flooding. One local resident of the capital, Trinidad, summed it up when they said, '2006 was a bad year; 2007 was really bad; but 2008 was extraordinarily bad'. The extreme nature of the 2008 flooding is linked to the La Niña weather cycle, which in Bolivia can cause intense rainfall in the east of the country. While the way that climate change will affect El Niño/La Niña in the coming years is poorly understood, there is at least some evidence that it might become more frequent and intense.

Agricultural production in Beni is severely constrained by both the annual cycle of floods and droughts, and poor soil conditions. Slash-and-burn agriculture predominates; whereby the land is productive for two to three years before new areas are cleared. During the rainy season large expanses of land are submerged for several months, when water recedes into the tributaries that run into the Amazon, it takes nutrients with it, leaving sandy brown soil where it is difficult to grow crops.

Three thousand years ago, pre-Columbian 'hydraulic cultures' developed across large areas of the northern and central South America. They developed a complex system of water and earth engineering to support agriculture in the context of seasonal droughts and floods. Throughout Beni they built around 20,000 manufactured lomas (artificial hills), some of which reached a height of 20 metres around a base of 30 hectares. In addition, they constructed 5,000 kilometres of dykes and 1 million hectares of camellones (raised fields).

The project

The Kenneth Lee Foundation, supported by Oxfam, is working with communities in Trinidad to build modern camellones, based on this ancient system and drawing on modern scientific understanding of agro-hydrology. The system is very sophisticated, producing fertile soil, fish stock, animal fodder, localized drainage and water management, nutrient production, and organic recycling.

Activities

Five communities are involved in the camellones project; in Copacabana the whole community of 34 families collectively run 6 camellones. In Loma Suárez the community of 30 families has opted to run them at the household-level individually, and in Puerto Almacén, five families each have a camellon, but the women and children work together on all of them. Women are the main participants in the project, and usually have the leadership roles, reflecting their responsibility for providing food for the family.

Each camellon measures approximately 500 square metres, and can vary in height from 50 centimetres to two metres, depending on the flood risk in a particular area and the capacity for water run-off. This protects the seeds and crops from being washed away, as they are above the level of the flooding. Surrounding the raised beds are water channels where a combination of plants and fish produce a fertile environment. Tarope is grown, as it both purifies the water and acts as a fertilizer when spread over the soil. The fast-growing, indigenous plants can also be used for animal fodder. Because water surrounds the camellones, irrigation is very easy, and once the system is established there is less need for watering.

Climate change in Bolivia

- Temperature increases
- Changes in rainfall patterns (frequency and intensity)
- Reduced agricultural production.
- Glacial melt, more quickly than predicted
- Impacts on water availability and electricity generation
- Malaria moving into new areas.

Objectives

- Support women leadership in food production for nutritional diversification and income generation
- Construct camellones for agriculture production and water management
- Develop knowledge of camellones and their potential for climate change adaptation
- Reduce vulnerability to floods and strength post-flood recovery.

'In the old system we lost a lot of plants and seeds when the flood came. Then we had to wait for the water to go down before we could start replanting...but in this system the land, where the plants are growing, doesn't get covered with water when the flood comes. So we can still harvest and then we can immediately sow seeds again...' Yenny Noza, Local Farmer

'This system not only offers an alternative to cutting down the rain forest but it creates a balance between the dry and wet seasons, enabling people to live with the process of nature rather than challenging it.' Oscar Saavedra, Kenneth Lee Institute

Lessons learned

- Indigenous and modern scientific knowledge can work together to produce effective solutions.
- Natural resource management can support soil fertility and increase yield and the reliability of harvests.

What next?

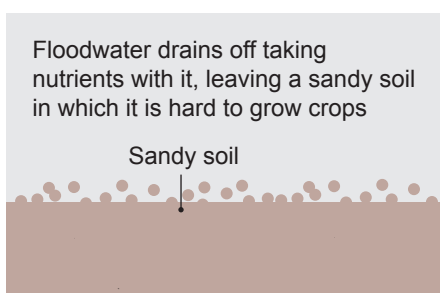
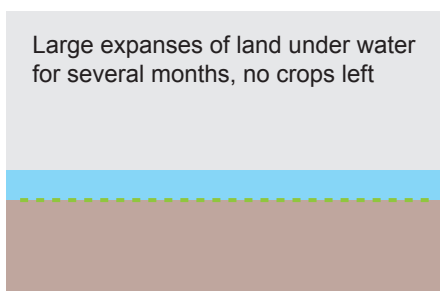
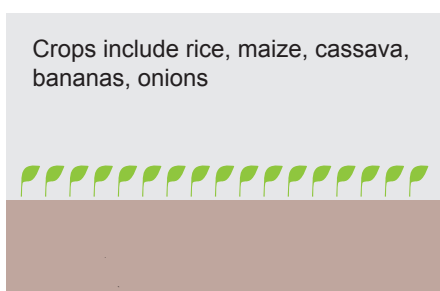
- Oxfam hopes to extend the project to 1,000 families (currently 400).
- Though successful under current climate variability, further investigation is needed to understand the sustainability of camellones in a changing climate.

'This project shows that solutions often lie within indigenous culture and knowledge. Oxfam has only recognized that the answer was there and we had the sensibility and audacity to "innovate" with a technique perhaps 3,000 years old.' Simon Ticehurst, Oxfam Bolivia Programme Manager

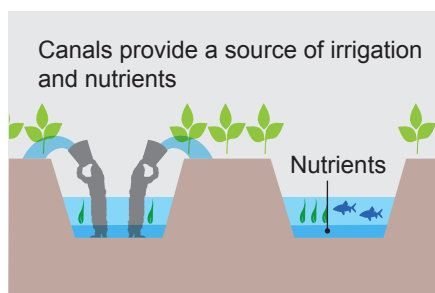
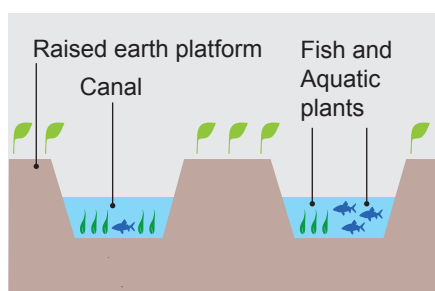
For more information: Contact: Roger Quiroga Email: rquiroga@oxfam.org.bo

Turning excess water to advantage

Current land usage



Camellones project



Outcomes

1. Reduced impacts and harnessed opportunities of floods The camellones offer a sustainable solution to flooding and drought by managing the floodwaters and preserving them for times of drought. Instead of being victims of flooding, low-income women and men were able to turn the excess water to their advantage. The camellones were able to withstand even the extreme floods of 2008, and women were able to produce a variety of crops for consumption and income generation. The camellones also act as a natural seed bank, ensuring farmers have their own seeds to plant within 15 days of the floodwaters receding, enabling them to take advantage of the natural fertility of the soil and avoiding additional costs of replacing lost seeds.

2. Improved household nutrition Soil is more fertile, and in some cases the camellones are already producing three harvests a year. Women are successfully producing tomatoes, cucumbers, and lettuces on the camellones, and fish bred in the channels provide an additional source of protein.

3. Income generation In addition to household consumption, produce can be sold on the local market (currently 80 per cent of tomatoes, cucumbers, and lettuces are imported from outside Beni).

4. Protection of local rainforest The need for slash-and-burn agriculture has been reduced, thus reducing practices that exacerbate local flooding, soil nutrient loss, and climate change.

Handout 2.3

Capacity and Vulnerability Analysis: background

The dynamics of poverty and vulnerability to disaster are complex. They involve the interaction of inter-related elements: economic, political, social, psychological, etc. Various methods have been developed to assist in the identification and analysis of the different factors. Among the most commonly used is the Capacity and Vulnerability Analysis (CVA) devised in the late 1980s.¹

The CVA is a valuable tool. It provides a way to organize and systematize information to make it easier to identify of the possibilities for creative – and developmental – programme responses. The completed CVA matrix shows a comprehensive picture of the context.

The CVA is a key component of disaster risk analysis. It helps to

- Identify vulnerable groups;
- Identify the factors that make them vulnerable and show how they are affected;
- Assess their needs and capacities;
- Empower and mobilize vulnerable communities/groups; and
- Ensure that projects, programmes, and policies address these needs through targeted interventions or prevention and mitigation of potentially adverse impacts.

The tool can be applied in a number of different contexts (such as poverty reduction, sectoral development, disaster management) and at different levels (from national or programme level to community and household level). It can perform a range of functions: scoping or screening, programme or project design, research, baseline studies, and monitoring and evaluation.

Capacities and Vulnerabilities Matrix

Vulnerabilities		
Physical/material What productive resources, skills and hazards exist?		
Social/organizational What are the relations and organization among people?		
Motivational/attitudinal How does the community view its ability to create change?		

¹ M Anderson and P. Woodrow (1998) *Rising From the Ashes*, 2nd edition, Rugby: Practical Action Publishing.

Five other factors can be added to the basic matrix to make it reflect complex reality. These are disaggregation by gender; disaggregation by other differences (for example, economic status); changes over time; interaction between the categories; and different scales or levels of application (for example, village or national levels).

The following matrix provides some practical examples of factors of vulnerability and capacity.

	Vulnerabilities	Capacities
Physical/ material	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hazard-prone areas/impact of global climate change Environmental degradation and processes including coastal erosion/deforestation Lack of contingency and stocks Buildings at risk and unsafe infrastructure (including critical facilities) Poor application and enforcement of construction standards/materials Rapid urbanization Socio-economic level: poverty Lack of assets Mono-crop agriculture Indebtedness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Physical and natural environment capital Responsible natural resource management Biodiversity Hazard-proofed infrastructure Safe areas/evacuations Funds available for preparedness and response Storage facilities Health facilities and kits Protected watershed Secure livelihoods Communication equipment Trained HR/skills End-to-end early warning system
Social/ organizational	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Occupation of unsafe areas High-density occupation of sites and buildings Lack of land management Poor network of local actors Low level of education/skills Conservatism and/or fundamentalism Migration or lack of mobility Vulnerable occupations Vulnerable groups and individuals Low perception of risk Lack of information on international aid/development agencies Corruption 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Social capital Good governance and policy Effective disaster management framework and bodies Adaptive strategies Community-based organizations Clear roles and responsibilities of actors; local leadership Participation of all social groups in decision making; gender Positive religious/traditional hierarchy Knowledge of cultural/agricultural/social calendars Memory of past disasters
Motivational/ attitudinal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reluctance to change Individualism Behaviour towards the environment Corruption 'Ethno-centric' Lack of good governance Lack of awareness Low international interest Responsibility Relief/ welfare dependency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ability to listen/adapt to change Interaction/exchange between communities Accountability and transparency for leaders Community participation Awareness and prioritization Solidarity Altruistic role of the private sector

Source: E. Turvill and H. de Dios. (available from Oxfam) *Participatory Capacity and Vulnerability Analysis Training Pack*, pp. 112–113.

Handout 2.4

Capacity and vulnerability analysis: categories and factors

Physical or material	
<p>Structures</p> <p>Housing materials and condition Location of settlements Accessibility and distance of community to town centres, service institutions</p>	<p>Livelihoods</p> <p>Productive resources in the community Access to and use of the productive resources Means of livelihood Access to and use of land and property (heritage, customary laws) Access to and use of production tools Access to farm inputs, extension services Access to capital Access to credit Level of indebtedness Who has access to and control over productive assets of the community? Few individual families? Men? Women? Which ethnic group/s?</p>
<p>Education and skills</p> <p>Access to educational services: schools, facilities, teachers, equipment, distance of school building to community Attendance at classes and school activities (girls/boys) Integration of indigenous cultures, beliefs and practices with educational system Educational level of people in the community, literacy level Productive skills Indigenous skills Access to and use of local technologies Who has skills and education: Men? Women? Boys? Girls? Which ethnic group/s?</p>	<p>Health</p> <p>Access to food, adequacy in quantity and quality Morbidity and mortality profile Environmental sanitation Access to and use of health care services: types of health care services available; availability of equipment and facilities; mother-child assistance; family planning; nutrition; paediatric care; care for the elderly Sanitation facilities adapted to specific needs of women, children, and elderly people Indigenous health care practices in the community or of ethnic groups Integration of indigenous health care beliefs and practices to health services Access to and availability of drinking water and sanitation facilities.</p>
<p>Hazards and other threats</p> <p>Natural hazards they experience in the community Presence of military and armed groups Impacts of hazards on their life, livelihood, properties For children: safety in attending school activities, safe areas for playing For internally displaced persons: factors in displacement; loss and damage to their properties; conditions in evacuation centres; access to basic services and facilities in evacuation centres</p>	

Social or organizational	
<p>Family decision-making process: use or allocation of household income; use of household properties; decisions regarding reproductive health and planning the family</p> <p>Family structures: task distribution inside the household; family relations</p> <p>Social roles: men, women, children – in the family, community, in production/labour</p> <p>Relations between ethnic groups</p>	<p>Conflicts inside the community: between ethnic groups? Individual families/clans? Powerful and poor families?</p> <p>Marginalized groups, and factors for marginalization</p> <p>Who are the members of the organization? Men? Women? Children? Who decides and influences the decisions of the organization?</p>
Attitudinal or motivational	
<p>Belief systems, faith, ideologies</p> <p>People's interpretation of events affecting their lives (crisis, armed conflict, disasters)</p> <p>Perception of roles in the family, community, production/labour: as men and women, children and youth</p>	<p>People's view of community problems, issues, and how to address and cope with problems (as men, women, children)</p> <p>View of the future, participation in changing present conditions</p> <p>Sense of empowerment, fighting spirit</p>
Political or institutional	
<p>Political or institutional structures in the community: government and non-government organizations; traditional organizations; formal and informal political structures</p>	<p>Community decision-making processes: people's participation in prioritizing issues and problems and in taking actions to address community problems</p> <p>Relationship of the community with government and non-government organizations</p>

Source: E. Turvill and H. de Dios (available from Oxfam) 'Participatory Capacity and Vulnerability Analysis Training Pack' pp. 115–116.

Handout 2.5

Rough guide to gender analysis

What is gender analysis?

We all live and work in societies that are permeated by gender differences and gender inequalities. These shape the way that decisions get made, resources get allocated, and people interact with the world. A gender analysis explores the relationships of women and men in society, and the unequal power in those relationships. It brings inequalities to the surface and to the attention of people who can make a difference.

One of Oxfam's priorities is to address gender inequality through every aspect of its work (gender mainstreaming). Conducting a gender analysis is the first stage in this process: it allows us to understand how poverty affects men, women, boys, and girls differently, and the differences between poor men's and women's needs and concerns. Once we have this information, we can identify what our gender equality goals should be, and design our work in a manner that is sensitive to, and reflects, the different experiences and needs of women and men.

This is important, first of all, because more women than men suffer from poverty, so it is a **question of justice**, or basic rights; and secondly, being aware of the distinct needs and concerns of men and women, and acting on this awareness, means that we can **address poverty more effectively**. If we fail to base our work on gender analysis and just assume that our work will benefit men and women equally, we will reflect and probably reinforce the imbalances that exist.

What information should a good gender analysis provide?

The purpose of conducting a gender analysis is to identify the specific aspects of gender relations and inequalities that are present in a programme context, and to examine their implications for programme design and implementation. It should explore the following areas.

- The differences in the lives of poor men and women;
- The barriers that unequal gender relations present to women's development;
- The status of women and their ability to exercise their human rights;
- The different skills, capacities, and aspirations of women and men;
- The division of labour: men's and women's different activities, and their access to, and control of, resources.

What does gender analysis involve?

There are some basic things that you can do to highlight gender concerns in any analysis:

- Disaggregate and analyse the data you collect by sex;
- Actively involve women, men, girls, and boys in data collection, to ensure that different opinions are heard;
- Identify existing sources of information and analysis (e.g. women's groups, past evaluations);
- Include gender analysis in Terms of Reference, and ensure researchers have the necessary skills.

Some basic questions to ask:

- Who has power?
- Who owns/controls resources?
- Who takes the decisions?
- Who sets the agenda?
- Who gains, and who loses?
- Which men, and which women?

Using a gender analysis framework will guide you in gathering information and designing programmes which promote gender equality. The Oxfam book *A Guide to Gender Analysis Frameworks* gives information on a number of well-known frameworks, and examples of how they have been used. Bear in mind that frameworks should be adapted to take account of cultural and other differences. Also, be sure to allow adequate resources, including time, skills, and preparation. If you are unsure about doing it yourself, ask your regional gender adviser or a local gender specialist for advice.

What happens next?

Conducting a gender analysis is a means to a much bigger end: that of devising and implementing programmes which take the needs and perspectives of both women and men into account, which do not exclude or harm women, and which will help redress some of the existing gender imbalances. Gender analysis will help to plan the work that can be done to confront women's subordination, but afterwards the work must still be done! Following the analysis, you must ensure that your objectives and strategies address the gender issues you have identified, and continue to monitor the impact of our work on gender relations throughout the programme cycle.

Tools and resources

C. March, I. Smyth, & M. Mukhopadhyay (1999) A Guide to Gender-Analysis Frameworks, Oxfam GB. Available from <http://developmentbookshop.com>

UNDP (2001) Learning and Information Pack: Gender Analysis, <http://www.undp.org>

Handout 2.6

Case study:

Cyclone warning in country X

A category 4 cyclone* is threatening to hit Country X, which has a population of about 65 million people. This country is prone to frequent visits from cyclones. The last and most severe one occurred in 2005 and killed 200,000 people and affected more than 3 million nationally, of which 60 per cent were women. The cyclone flattened housing units and damaged many others. The country's agriculture-based economy suffered from a decline in production, and the worst affected provinces – also the poorest provinces – suffered hunger for the nine months following the disaster. This pattern of damage has been repeated many times over the last 50 years.

Weather experts predict that the threatened cyclone will be as strong as, if not stronger than, the last one. Unfortunately for Country X, its anticipated arrival is about three weeks before the scheduled harvest of rice, the staple food.

Coastal provinces A and B are identified as being in the cyclone's path. These provinces have as sources of income a combination of fishing, farming, and employment as skilled labour for men outside the village. Province C, an adjacent province fully dependent on fishing and labour, is also in the cyclone's path. The three provinces happen to be the poorest in the country, with a high malnutrition rate. Due to past disasters and coastal erosion, many houses are now closer to the shore. Saltwater intrusion, which has affected soil fertility and hence a steady decline in rice production in Provinces A and B, explains why there is an increasing number of men who are forced to migrate to other provinces for labour. Meanwhile, saltwater intrusion has also meant that there is less and less space for vegetable cultivation. Poor road conditions and damaged bridges caused by the past two cyclones have isolated the provinces from the provincial capital. This problem delayed and severely hampered emergency relief and rescue operations during the last cyclone. There was also an absence of disaster preparedness by the national government.

Run by a dictatorship, the country allocates a large part of its budget to the military, and little is allocated to social services. There is a lack of schools, and existing ones are in a dilapidated condition. Health centres are non-existent in the villages of the three provinces. For serious medical cases, such as complications during pregnancy, accidents, and major illnesses, residents travel to Province D. Care during childbirth is administered in the villages and regular illnesses are treated using traditional healing techniques. Family planning, although introduced several years ago, is not practiced by couples, as many said they could not afford birth control pills. The three provinces have a very high birth rate. In a recent survey by a local NGO, infant and maternal mortality during delivery was high. The survey also recorded that a total of 75 mothers from Province A and B are due to give birth this month. There are very few cases of pregnant women in Province C, and the research related this to the fact that many women were widowed during the 2005 cyclone.

* CATEGORY 4 (severe tropical cyclone): Significant roofing loss and structural damage; many homes destroyed and blown away; dangerous airborne debris; widespread power failure. Strongest winds are very destructive: winds with typical gusts of 225–279 km/h over open flat land. These winds correspond to the highest category on the Beaufort scale: Beaufort 12 (Hurricane).
Source: <http://www.bom.gov.au>

Water facilities are lacking, as the few tube wells were damaged during the last cyclone and not repaired. Twenty of the twenty-eight villages in the three provinces have only one or two unprotected deep wells each as their main source of water. On average, each well is 5 kilometres away from houses, making water collection more difficult for women who traditionally hold this responsibility.

The disaster experience of the country has led to a campaign for disaster risk reduction, led by the NGO Center for Disaster Management (CDM). This group has made progress in terms of organizing awareness-raising sessions and capacity building workshops to increase awareness about disaster risk reduction. The CDM has just started its work in the three provinces, and have partnered with the male-dominated local government units of each of the provinces. They have managed to mobilize women in some of their activities, although they acknowledge difficulty in getting more women to join the disaster committees they are organizing. They attribute this to the fact that traditionally, women have been confined to their homes and not encouraged to participate in public activities by their fathers or husbands. CDM takes inspiration, however, from the fact that women played a major role in helping to manage relief distribution, supporting and comforting families who had lost members, and providing important information about the circumstances of evacuation during the last cyclone.

Instructions for the learners

1. Identify the vulnerabilities of women and men to the potential impact of the cyclone forecast to affect Provinces A, B, and C of Country X.

Present your analysis in a matrix format (similar to handout 2.9, CVA Matrix). You may classify the vulnerabilities according to the categories below. You may choose to separate political factors if you wish.

- Physical/Material
- Social/Organizational/Political
- Behavioural/Attitudinal

2. Using the case study, identify the capacities of women and men to cope with, and recover from, the potential impact of the forecast cyclone and other potential disasters in the future, in Provinces A, B, and C of country X.

Note for the facilitator

This case study may be revised and adapted to a relevant context for the workshop participants.

Handout 2.7

Case study: Rainwater harvesting¹

For two years in the late 1990s, southern Sri Lanka suffered a prolonged drought, described by locals as ‘the worst in 50 years’. Some areas did not see a successful crop for four or five consecutive seasons. Livestock died, water in wells dropped to dangerously low levels, children were increasingly malnourished, and school attendance fell. An estimated 1.6 million people were affected.

Muthukandiya is a village in Moneragala district, one of the drought-stricken areas in the ‘dry zone’ of southern Sri Lanka. Rainfall in the area varies greatly from year to year, often bringing extreme dry spells between monsoons. But this drought was much worse than usual. Despite some rain in November, only half of Moneragala’s 1,400 tube wells were in working order by the following March. The drought devastated supplies of rice and freshwater fish, the staple diet of inland villages. Many local industries closed down, and villagers headed for the towns in search of work.

The villagers of Muthukandiya arrived in the area in the 1970s as part of a government resettlement scheme. Each family was given six acres of land, with no irrigation system. Because crop production, which relies entirely on rainfall, is insufficient to support most families, the village economy relies on men and women working as day-labourers in nearby sugar-cane plantations. Three wells have been dug to provide domestic water, but these are dry for much of the year. Women and children may spend several hours each day walking up to five kilometres to fetch water for drinking, washing, and cooking.

In 1998, communities in the district discussed water problems with Practical Action South Asia. What followed was a drought mitigation initiative based on a low-cost ‘rainwater harvesting’ technology already used in Sri Lanka and elsewhere in the region. It uses tanks to collect and store rain channelled by gutters and pipes as it runs off the roofs of houses.

The community of Muthukandiya was involved throughout. Two meetings were held where villagers analysed their water problems, developed a mitigation plan, and selected the rainwater harvesting technology. Two local masons received several days’ on-the-job training in building the 5,000 litre household storage tanks – surface tanks out of ferro-cement and underground tanks out of brick. Each system, including tank, pipes, gutters, and filters, cost US\$195 – equivalent to a month’s income for an average village family. Just over half the cost was provided by the community, in the form of materials and unskilled labour. Practical Action South Asia contributed the rest, including cement, transport, and payment for the skilled labour. Households learned how to use and maintain the tanks, and the whole community was trained to keep domestic water supplies clean. A village rainwater harvesting society was set up to run the project. To date, 37 families in and around Muthukandiya have storage tanks. Evaluations show clearly that households with rainwater storage tanks have considerably more water for domestic needs than households relying entirely on wells and ponds. During the driest months, households with tanks may have up to twice as much water available. Their water is much cleaner, too.

1 This case study has been adapted for the ‘Gender, Disaster Risk Reduction, and Climate Change Adaptation’ training pack by Dyvia Mukand. For full details of the case study, refer to ‘Rainwater Harvesting’, http://practicalaction.org/?id=rainwater_case_study

Government and other programmes have also propagated the concept of roof rainwater harvesting, albeit in a top-down manner, with free tank installation and no training in the skills needed to build and maintain them properly.

Nandawathie, a widow in the village, has taken full advantage of the opportunities that rainwater harvesting has brought to her family. With a better water supply now close at hand, she began by growing a few vegetables. The income from selling these helped her to open a small shop on her doorstep. This increased her earnings still further, enabling her to apply for a loan to install solar power in her house. She is now thinking of building another tank in her garden so that she can grow more vegetables. Nandawathie also feels safer now that she no longer has to fetch water from the village well in the early morning or late evening. She says that her children no longer complain so much of diarrhoea. And her daughter Sandamalee has more time for schoolwork.

In the short term, and on a small scale, the project has clearly been a success. The challenge lies in making such initiatives sustainable, and expanding their coverage.

At a purely technical level, rainwater harvesting is evidently sustainable. In Muthukandiya, the skills required to build and maintain storage tanks were taught fairly easily, and can be shared by the two trained masons, who are now finding work with other development agencies in the district.

The non-structural elements of the work, especially its financial and organizational sustainability, present a bigger challenge. A revolving fund was set up, with households that had already benefited agreeing to contribute a small monthly amount to pay for maintenance, repairs, and new tanks. However, it appears that the revolving fund concept was not fully understood and it has proved difficult to get households to contribute. Recovering costs from interventions that do not generate income directly will always be a difficult proposition, although this could be overcome if the process was explained more fully at the outset.

The Muthukandiya initiative was planned as a demonstration project, to show that community-based rainwater harvesting was feasible. Several other organizations have begun their own projects using the same approach. The feasibility of introducing larger tanks is being investigated. However, a lot of effort and patience are needed to generate the interest, develop the skills, and organize the management structures needed to implement sustainable community-based projects. It will probably be some time before rainwater harvesting technologies can spread rapidly and spontaneously across the district's villages without external support.

Handout 2.8

Case Study:

Changing perceptions of masculinity in Rajasthan, India¹

Rajasthan is an Indian state facing stark gender and caste inequality. A patriarchal hierarchy maintains women's low status. Women experience restricted mobility (many do not step outside the boundaries of their village) and lack decision making in their households (they cannot speak before the elders of the household and are expected to cover their faces outside their house and before elder male and female relatives). They do not inherit property or own any other assets. Despite their long working hours in agriculture and household chores, their productive and reproductive contribution to the household is not recognized.

This is the story of Omi who lives in a remote village in the Thar Desert in western Rajasthan. Omi is the wife of Nikkuram. They own five hectares of land, one buffalo, and a few goats. In this desert area, where drought is a frequent visitor, Nikku and Omi adopt a range of strategies to eke out a living. They sell goat kids to the Muslim trader who visits their village; they sell buffalo milk; and they practice rain-fed agriculture. Omi has been a member of the women's group or sangathan organized by a local NGO Urmul Setu Sansthan (USS), for the last eight years. Unlike other women in her village who have never been to school, Omi has the advantage of having studied up to Grade 5.

Oxfam and USS in consultation with the local community designed a project to promote fodder cultivation in the area, to prevent distress sales of livestock during drought and to reduce people's vulnerability to drought. A gender analysis was conducted to understand the sexual division of labour between men and women as well as to sensitize NGO staff and community members about women's unequal access and control over resources.

Omi is one of the 160 beneficiaries of the programme under which 0.5 hectares of the land have been fenced and planted with suitable fodder grasses and trees. Development of these 'fodder plots' involved: barbed-wire fencing to protect against wild animals and grazing livestock, construction of rainwater harvesting structures, and sowing grass and plants.

USS facilitated key women leaders of the women's sangathan to form a purchase committee: Omi was one of the members. Omi along with six other women went on a three-hour long bus ride from her village to the market at the district headquarters to select cement and bricks. The NGO had briefed them on the different types of cement in the market so that they could select the best one. In the words of Omi: 'Just like for us women the first experience of going to a market for purchase of cement and requesting shopkeepers for quotations, the shopkeepers all of which were male were amazed that women could actually be involved in these purchases.' The women were also in charge of supervising the arrival and distribution of construction materials in the villages and quality checks. Once the women took a decision to return a consignment of bricks because the quality was not up to standard.

1 This case study was prepared by Dyvia Mukand when she was working for Oxfam on a drought mitigation project in Rajasthan. For further details contact Programme Manager, Oxfam GB West India Office, Ahmedabad, India (Ahmedabad@oxfam.org.uk).

A five-member women's group was also constituted for monitoring construction of the rainwater harvesting structures (RHS). While four of the women were from the women's sangathan, the fifth was a woman outside the sangathan. This was to maintain objectivity in the process. These RHS were constructed in the women's names.

According to Omi, she was happy that the RHS had been constructed and was in her name. For the first time in her life, it gave her a sense of ownership of a tangible physical asset. After her 14-day residential training at an agricultural institute, she carefully tends to the plants in the plot, waters them every 10 days, applies compost once a year, and medicine for termites twice a season. As a result, she has reaped 6.5 quintals of green fodder grass, which sufficed as fodder for her buffalo for a little over a month in the lean period, saving her approx Rs 1000 (USD 25).

Omi's journey would have been impossible without her own determination and also the vital support of Nikkuram. Nikkuram relates how initially the villagers used to tell him that his wife was a 'Phitur' (one who was making her husband dance to her whims). Omi also relates how she would have to face barbed comments from her wider network of relatives. However Nikkuram dismisses these claims saying, 'Mein manta nahi hoon, woh shikshit ho rahi hai' (I wont believe others, she is becoming more educated). Nikkuram has evolved a new concept of masculinity in the region by taking on household chores including taking care of livestock and cleaning the cow dung (traditionally this work is done by women) to allow Omi to spread her wings.

Handout 2.9

Promoting gender equality in humanitarian programmes: key terms and definitions

Categories and Factors CVA matrix

Categories and factors	Capacity		Vulnerability	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Physical or material				
Social or organizational				
Attitudinal or motivational				
Political or institutional				

Source: Turvill, E. and de Dios, H. (available from Oxfam) 'Participatory Capacity and Vulnerability Analysis Training Pack', pp. 115-116.

Handout 2.10

Sustainable livelihoods analysis

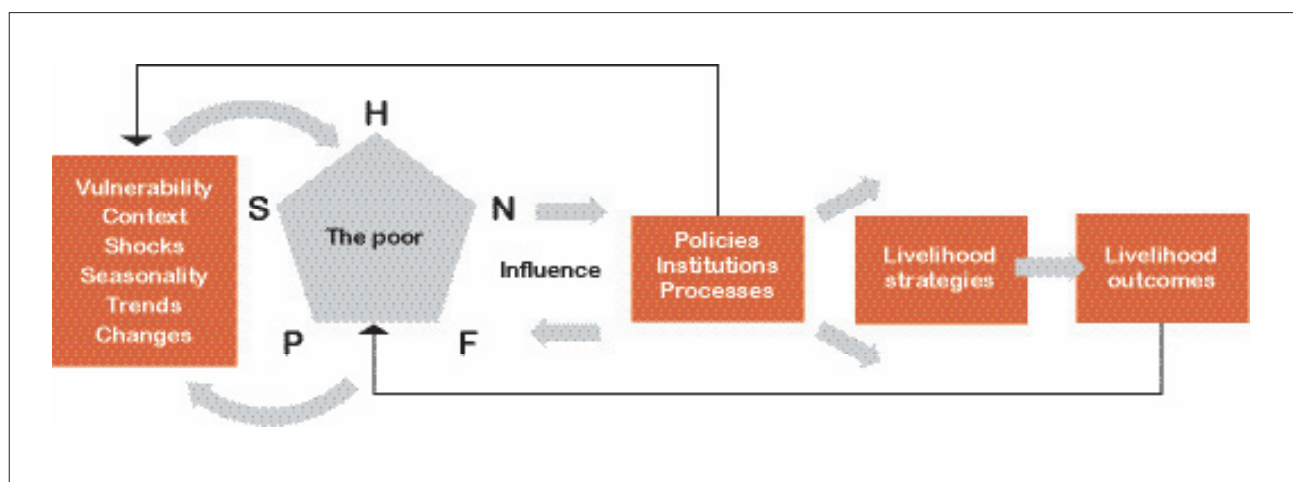
The sustainable livelihoods framework

The sustainable livelihoods approach (SLA) is another tool that helps to understand how people are affected by, and can deal with, disasters. The SLA, as developed by the UK Department for International Development (DFID), draws on the sustainable livelihoods thinking developed by Robert Chambers¹ during the mid-1980s, in an attempt to improve understanding of the livelihoods of poor people and to enhance the efficiency of development cooperation.

The SL framework places people, particularly rural poor people, at the centre of a web of inter-related influences that affect how these people create a livelihood for themselves and their households. Their access to resources and livelihood assets, including natural resources, technologies, their skills, knowledge and capacity, their health, access to education, sources of credit, and their networks of social support is strongly influenced by their vulnerability context. The vulnerability context takes account of trends (for example, economic, political, technological), shocks (for example, epidemics, natural disasters, civil strife) and seasonality (for example, prices, production, employment opportunities). Access to resources and assets is also influenced by the prevailing social, institutional, and political environment, which affects the ways in which people combine and use their assets to achieve their goals. These are their livelihood strategies.

Meanwhile, access to these assets also determines the level of people's vulnerability to, and capacity to cope with and recover from, shocks, trends, and seasonality.

The figure below is a schematic representation of the main components of SLA and how they are linked. The arrows are ways to show the relationships or level of influence between the different elements that affect livelihoods. The pentagon and the letters represent people's strengths (assets or capital endowments), which are important to meet livelihood needs. The key assets are: human capital (H), social capital (S), physical capital (P), financial capital (F), and natural capital (N).



Source: International Fund for Agricultural Development, Sustainable Livelihoods Approach <http://www.ifad.org/sla>

¹ For background, see Chambers and Conway (1991) *Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: practical concepts for the 21st century*, IDS, University of Sussex, UK, <http://www.eldis.org/go/home&id=12998&type=Document>

The SL framework is a flexible tool that can be adapted. The main disadvantage of the SL framework is that it does not differentiate between women and men in analysing the main constraints and opportunities that they face. It is critical, therefore, that gender analysis tools are used in combination with the SLA to understand the different vulnerabilities of women and men to disasters, and their different capacities to achieve sustainable livelihoods.

Handout 2.11

The Pressure and Release Model

The Pressure Release Model (PRM) or 'Crunch Model' was developed to analyse and describe the progression of human vulnerability to natural hazards. It builds on the concept that a disaster results from the interaction of two 'forces': those processes generating vulnerability on one side, and physical exposure to a hazard on the other. Thus, to reduce the risk of disaster, the vulnerability of people exposed to hazards needs to be reduced, and their capacities strengthened (see Figure 3).

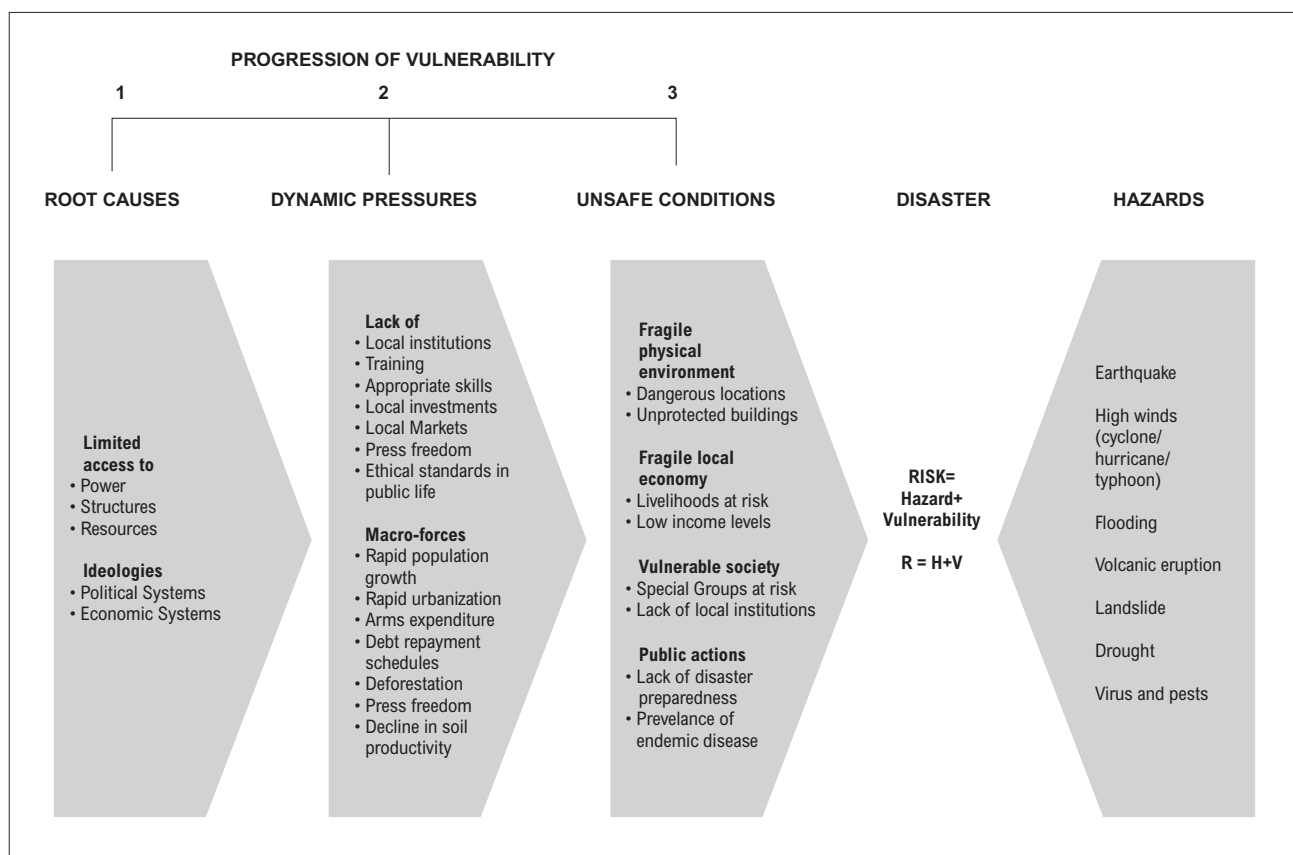


Figure 1: Progression of Vulnerability

The three inter-related vulnerability-creating processes are:

Root causes or underlying causes are the most remote influences. They are economic, demographic, and political processes within a society (including global processes). They reflect the distribution of power in a society and are connected to the functioning and power of the state.

Dynamic pressures channel the root causes into particular forms of insecurity that have to be considered in relation to the types of hazards facing vulnerable people. These include reduced access to resources as a result of the way regional or global pressures work through to localities.

Unsafe conditions are the specific forms in which a population's vulnerability is expressed in time and space in conjunction with a hazard. Examples include people having to live in dangerous locations being unable to afford safe building, having to engage in dangerous livelihoods, or having minimal food entitlements.

In addition, each of the three phases is divided into specific topics and issues (Figure 1).

Figure 2 illustrates the practical example of landslide and flood risk for the city of La Paz, Bolivia (adapted from F. Nathan, Graduate Institute of Development Studies).

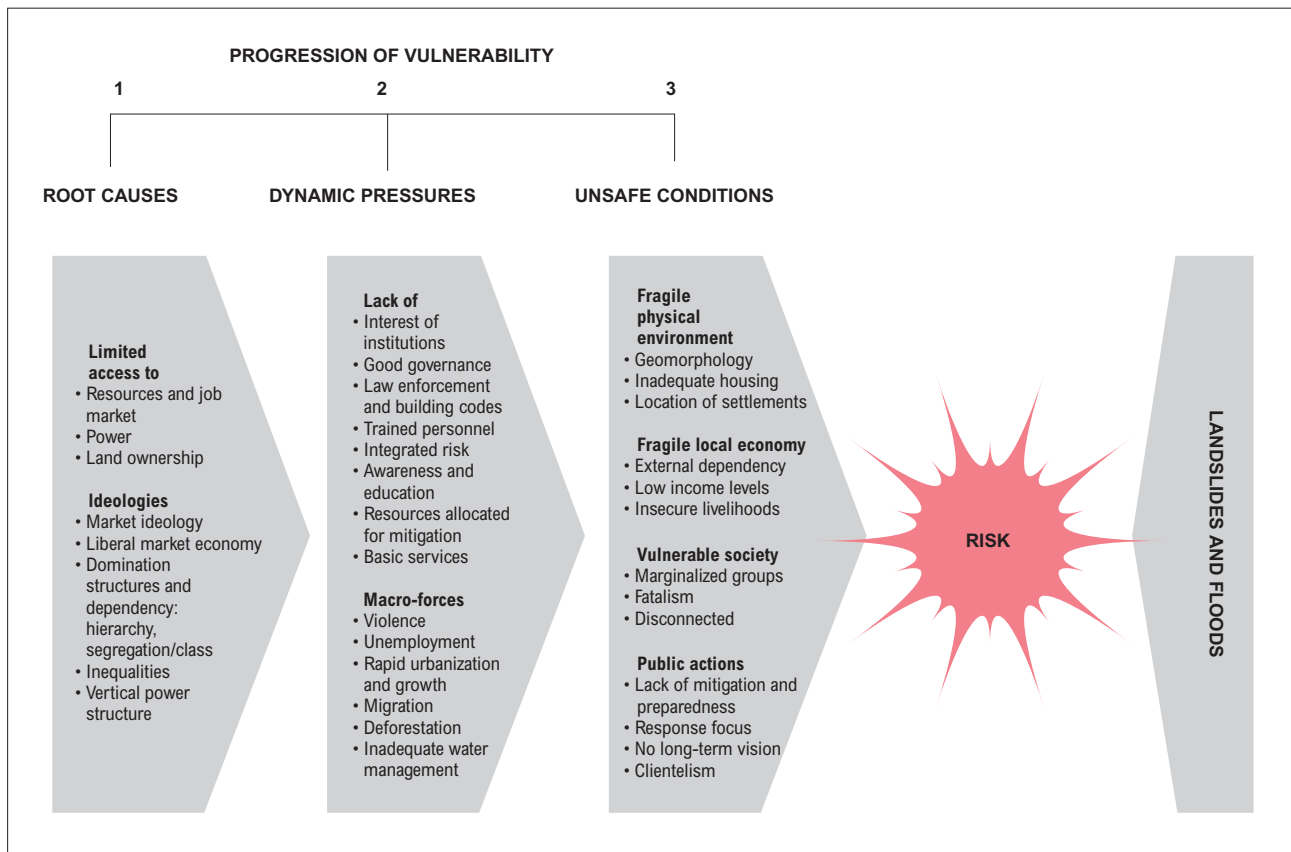


Figure 2: Practical example for the case of La Paz, Bolivia

The diagram illustrates the practical example of landslide and flood risk for the city of La Paz, Bolivia. (Adapted from F. Nathan (2008) 'Risk Perception, Risk Management and Vulnerability to Landslides in the Hill-Slopes in the City of La Paz, Bolivia'. A Preliminary Statement, Disasters, Volume 32: 3,337–357.)

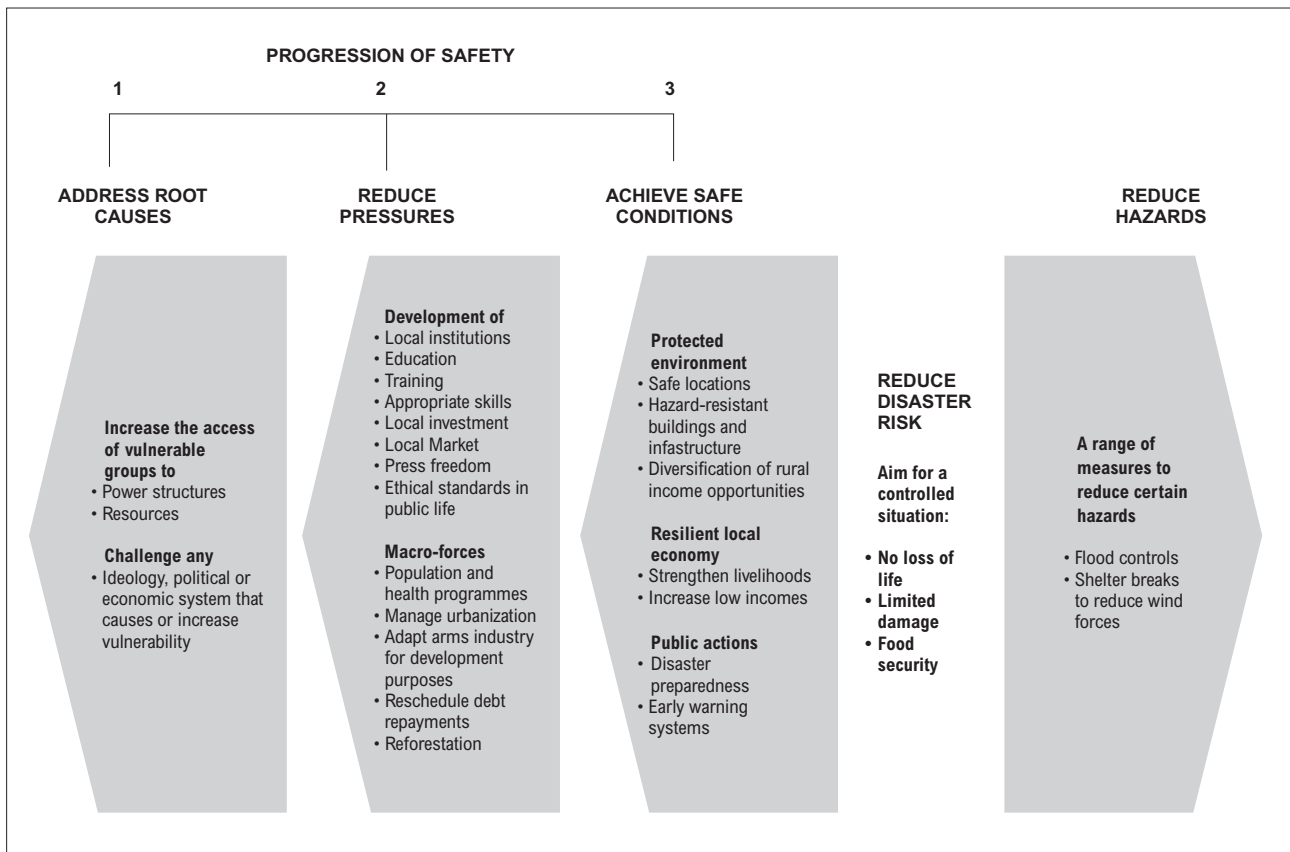


Figure 3: Progression of Safety

Source: Turvill, E. and de Dios, H. (available from Oxfam) Participatory Capacity and Vulnerability Analysis Training Pack.