

## C.7 Gender-sensitive appraisal and planning

This section is about the appraisal and analysis which is essential to gender-sensitive planning for development or relief interventions. It includes a number of analytical frameworks developed in different parts of the world by institutions and individual trainers, and a variety of checklists. All of these are tools for the initial appraisal of situations or projects as well as tools for assessment of gender needs at any stage of the project cycle. There are other frameworks and analytical tools which we have not included because we have not used them: but references to them (such as the Gender Analysis Matrix, GAM) will be found in the Resources Section at the end of the manual.

This section is divided into two parts:

**Analytical frameworks**

**Case studies**

### Analytical frameworks

The ‘package’ of GAD analytical tools presented in this Manual will be completed with this section, which introduces a number of analytical frameworks which have been used in gender training in Oxfam-run workshops.

It is important to realise that you can only provide an *introduction* to an analytical framework in the course of a short gender-training workshop, illustrating its use through analysing case studies. Participants who learn these frameworks need to use and practise them in concrete situations before they will feel completely comfortable with them, and learn how to adapt them to their own needs. It is not advisable to try and teach too many frameworks in a training — select one or two that are most appropriate to your group, and concentrate on helping participants to learn them thoroughly.

This section completes the full **Moser Gender Planning Framework**, a cluster of inter-related methods which Oxfam has used extensively and whose components have already been introduced in **Sections C.5 and C.6**.

Summaries of some of the other frameworks, and their strengths and weaknesses, are presented below:

# 1 The Harvard analytical framework (see Handouts 38 -45)

The **Harvard Framework**, sometimes called the **GFA (Gender Framework Analysis)**, is designed to provide the basis for a gender profile of a social group. It is very adaptable and is composed of three basic elements:

- an **activity** profile, based upon the gender division of labour, which lists the tasks of women and men, allowing for disaggregation by age, ethnicity or class, as well as where and when the tasks are performed. Activities are grouped under three headings: productive activities, reproductive or household activities and social/political/religious activities;
- an **access and control profile**, which lists the resources needed to carry out these tasks, and the benefits derived from them. The resources may be material or economic, political or social, and include time; access to these resources and benefits, and control over them is disaggregated by gender.
- the **influencing factors** which affect the division of labour and the access and control profile of the community.

In a version developed by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), known as the **Framework for People-Oriented Planning in Refugee Situations**, the profile is completed twice, the first relating to the situation of the refugees before the flight, the second to their actual situation. The second profile indicates not only what the refugee group does and does not have, but also who has lost what and who has gained what. The comparison underlines the fact that a refugee or displaced group is unlikely to be totally destitute: people bring with them skills, knowledge, attitudes, values and means of organising themselves, even if they have lost all their material resources. Refugees and displaced people can be active participants in the solution of their own problems. This framework brings out a crucially important issue for women — **protection** — often jeopardised during a crisis.

Particularly useful elements of these frameworks are:

- the differential access to and control over resources and benefits in relation to women's and men's responsibilities, and the distinction between access to resources and benefits, and control over them.
- a broad view of what resources means, not just material resources but also less tangible things like skills and social organisation, and — most importantly for women — time.
- the idea that individuals and groups lose resources over time but also retain some and gain others. This aspect is particularly important for long-term development

work with strategic aims, and also in relation to emergency relief work. For while sudden disaster may rob women and men of some resources, others may arise and provide sources of strength: these are opportunities for relief work to focus on people as actors in, rather than victims of, their situation.

The weakness of the Harvard Framework is that while it works well when used by people who have detailed knowledge of the social group in question, it is difficult to use without access to accurate detail. It is also difficult to use across a region where people's social and economic circumstances differ widely.

## 2 Capacities and Vulnerabilities Analysis (CVA)

The CVA framework was developed as a tool for predicting and/or assessing the extent to which relief and development projects support or undermine development. The central question it poses is 'how can agencies plan and implement interventions which meet the immediate needs of people affected by a disaster and also promote long-term development?'

The CVA framework enables agencies to map the **vulnerabilities** of women, men and children in an emergency, and their **capacities** to deal with their situation. It is based on a matrix which sets out the different categories of factors which affect people's lives, and the relationship between the factors. The categories are:

- the physical and material category: resources which people need to gain their livelihoods, such as land, climate, health, skills, technologies;
- the social and organisational category: social networks, political organisations, systems of distributing goods and services, social resources such as education;
- the psychological or attitudinal category: the complex of beliefs, attitudes, aspirations or dependencies which influence how people react to situations.

The CVA matrix allows all these categories to be differentiated by gender, race, class, ethnicity and any other social factor, and can also be used for analysis over time.

Its greatest value is that it brings into focus people's strengths in times of crisis, so that they are not considered as just victims of the situation. This is particularly important to women, who not only constitute the majority of refugees and displaced people, but whose strengths are so often overlooked.

(This framework is presented in **Section C.8 Global Issues**, for use in relation to conflict.)

### **3 The Longwe hierarchy of needs**

This framework may be applied to any situation as a guide to where to focus future activities. It looks at equity between men and women in relation to certain key development indicators. They are:

- Control over resources
- Participation in decision-making
- Conscientisation
- Access to resources
- Well-being

These are arranged in a hierarchy. The framework assumes that the objectives of women's development are ordered according to this hierarchy, so that equality of control of resources is not truly possible unless equality in the other four spheres has been achieved.

The Longwe grid thus presents a progression. It permits an assessment of the existing advantages in women's situation and what remains to be done.

Its disadvantage is that it can be rigid, not allowing for the way situations change over time. Some of its basic assumptions (for example that the different stages have to be worked through in order) have been questioned.

### **4 Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA)**

A number of appraisal methods have developed since the late 1970s to overcome some of the problems inherent in formal data-collection methods — such as slow, cumbersome and often inaccurate questionnaire-based survey methods, and the seasonal, geographical and social biases which resulted from the way development personnel conducted their field investigations.

Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) was the first. It gave rise to Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and a number of other variations, such as Participatory Action Research (PAR), Participatory Learning Methods (PALM) and Participatory Assessment, Monitoring and Evaluation (PAME). This Manual does not attempt to teach any of these methods — they are complex and require specialised training.

However, the emphasis on participation in all of the practical methods of information-gathering means that gender sensitivity should be central to all of them. Indeed, if women are in any way excluded or marginalised in PRA or PALM processes they cannot be said to be participatory, and cannot fulfil their own objectives. What this Manual offers are some guidelines to ensure that if participants are using PRA/RRA or other field-based information-gathering

techniques, they integrate gender into the process.

The Munro method (**Activity 49**) includes some PRA tools, and the PRA ‘Timeline’ method is used in **Section C.8 Activity 63**. **Activities 52** Mapping for mars and **53** Bangladesh maps are examples of mapping activities often used in PRA. There are now a number of resources on PRA and gender available: these are listed in the Resources section of the Manual.

## Case studies

We present with this section a number of case studies, which have guide questions, and can also be adapted for training use with the analytical framework and appraisal tools. You can of course provide or design your own case studies. **Activity 56** offers a general method for using case studies, with some notes on adapting case studies to bring out particular gender issues. We also include with this Activity, some guideline for writing case studies (**Handout 59**).

Please read all the handouts in this section before embarking on the activities.

## C.7 Activities

### 1 Analytical frameworks

47	Moser method	2 hrs	253
	<i>(Handout 37 Gender planning summary table)</i>		255
48	The Harvard Framework	2-2½ hrs	257
	<i>(Handout 38 Programme planning: forestry in Indonesia)</i>		259
	<i>(Handout 39 Harvard analytical framework)</i>		267
	<i>(Handout 40 Activities profile)</i>		269
	<i>(Handout 41 Access and control profile)</i>		271
	<i>(Handout 42 People-oriented analytical framework)</i>		273
	<i>(Handout 43 Activities analysis)</i>		275
	<i>(Handout 44 Resource use and control)</i>		277
	<i>(Handout 45 Determinants analysis)</i>		279
	<i>(Handout 46 Women refugees in Bangladesh)</i>		281
49	Comparison of methods	1 hr	287
50	Longwe Method	2 hrs	289
	<i>(Handout 47 Gender awareness)</i>		291
	<i>(Handout 48 Charts for project gender profile)</i>		301
	<i>(Handout 49 Gender profile of country programme)</i>		303
51	Gender awareness in projects	45 mins-1 hr	305
	<i>(Handout 50 Gender awareness in project planning)</i>		307
52	Mapping for Mars	2 hrs	313

53	Bangladesh maps <i>(Handout 51 Bangladesh maps)</i>	25 mins	315 317
54	Checklists <i>(Handout 52 Harvard method checklist)</i> <i>(Handout 53 Check list for disaster relief)</i> <i>(Handout 54 Integrating a gender perspective)</i> <i>(Handout 55 Checklist for development projects)</i> <i>(Handout 56 Women's status criteria)</i>	1-1½hrs	319 321 325 329 331 335
55	Design a project	1½-2 hrs	337

## **2 Case studies**

56	Using case studies <i>(Handout 57 Case study: Ngwee nutrition group)</i> <i>(Handout 58 Case study: Mozambican refugees)</i> <i>(Handout 59 Designing case studies)</i>	1-2 hrs	339 341 343 347
57	Mwea rice scheme <i>(Handout 60 Mwea rice scheme Part 1)</i> <i>(Handout 61 Mwea rice scheme Part 2)</i>	1½-2 hrs	351 353 355
58	Mini case studies <i>(Handout 62 Mini case studies)</i>	40 mins	357 359
59	Women in a Sudanese refugee camp <i>(Handout 63 Meeting with women Part 1)</i> <i>(Handout 64 Meeting with women Part 2)</i> <i>(Handout 65 Meeting with women Part 3)</i>	1½ hrs	361 363 365 367

## Moser method

### Objectives

- 1 To relate the concepts learnt about gender roles, needs and policy approaches to real examples from the day-to-day work of development agencies.
- 2 To introduce the Moser method of analysis that can be used by development and relief workers to help to assess projects and programmes.

### Method

- 1 **Preparation:** Well before the training, ask participants to provide two project application forms used in their programmes, one filled out for a women's project and the other for a project not specifically for women. Ask the participants not to include model projects, but the most recent projects approved in each category.

Before the training begins, the facilitation team has to meet and analyse all these projects using the gender planning summary tables (see **Handout 27**). Choose five projects for the training. The selection criteria are:

- Simplicity: at least the first two should be simple and clear in their objectives.
  - Variety: a range of areas or countries and types of project.
  - Gender mix: there should be women-only, mixed projects, men-only.
  - Range of needs, roles, and policy approaches.
  - Agreement amongst the facilitators on the analysis of the projects.  
(this preparation may take 1 day)
- 2 If possible, give a copy of the five project write-ups to each participant to read the day before the activity.

- 3 Divide the participants into three to five small groups, representing a mixture of country teams or work experience in each group.

Give out handouts (project application forms and gender planning summary tables). Ask the groups to complete the table as outlined in **Handout 28**. All groups should finish four case studies. Those who finish early should go on to the fifth case study.

Prepare flipchart for answers. Go round the groups, sitting-in on discussion and assisting. (1 hour)

- 4 Lead discussion in the large group and write the correct answers on flipchart. Make sure each person understands why a project is classified in a certain way, and is prepared to change their classification in the light of new facts or arguments. (This includes the trainers if new information has come to light in the discussion.)

(30 mins)

## Materials

Five Project Application Forms

### Handout 37

Flipchart, pens

### *Facilitator's Notes*

*1 This activity is the final step of learning the Moser method. Activities 36, 37, and 42 on gender roles and needs and policy approaches must be done first.*

*2 It is very important that there is no value judgement implied in relation to projects. At this point participants are there to learn a method, not to judge, or be defensive about the project or the way the project document is completed.*

*3 If any participant is closely involved with the project they may either be defensive or add information that changes the classification. This is particularly likely to happen if the project is analysed as being 'welfare', when the person involved hoped it was 'empowerment'. This may lead to discussion about whether and how projects can actually lead to empowerment, and how we can judge this. It may also show up shortcomings in the way project documents are completed, and lead to calls for their redesign to incorporate specific references to these concepts.*

*4 Some people working for NGOs feel uncomfortable applying the policy classifications to their projects, because NGOs may not have a unified policy approach, or the policy may not refer to gender, or they may not apply gender policy to all projects. Nevertheless, people do find this a useful activity and it is important to show that all projects have a gender implication whether explicit or implicit.*



**Gender planning summary table**

Project Title/Number	Roles on which focussed?			Gender needs met		Policy Approach	Further information comments
	Reproductive	Productive	Community	Practical	Strategic		

Source: Caroline Moser



## **The Harvard framework**

### **Objectives**

- 1 To introduce the participants to the Harvard method of analysis.

### **Method**

- 1 Introduce the main features of this form of analysis using prepared OHP transparencies or prepared flipcharts. (See Handouts)  
*(20 mins)*
- 2 Distribute a copy of the case study in **Handout 38** to each participant and ask them to go through it thoroughly, referring to the **Handouts 39, 40 and 41**  
*(30 mins)*
- 3 Divide the participants into groups of three to five, who discuss the case, making notes for discussion in the whole group.  
*(30 mins)*
- 4 Reconvene the whole group and jointly analyse the case study with the participants, filling in the charts on prepared flipcharts.  
*(30 mins)*
- 5 If you are doing the UNHCR version of this framework prepare two versions of each chart on **Handouts 43 and 44** for pre- and post-flight situations. Use **Handout 46** as a case study and **Handouts 42 and 45** as a guideline to the method.

### **Materials**

Flipchart, paper, pens, transparencies

**Handouts 39, 40 and 41**(for Harvard Framework)

**Handouts 42, 43, 44, 45, and 46** (for UNHCR version)

## **Facilitator's Notes**

1 The tables for the original version of the Harvard framework are provided in **Handouts 39, 40 and 41**. They are useful in that they contain the crucial categories of time spent on different kinds of work, and where the work is done. This is most important for women who spend much of their time on work in the home as well as on the land or in markets, factories or in the village or urban community. It is useful to consider the Activities Profile in conjunction with the triple role concept.

2 Disaggregation by ethnic identity, economic status, caste and race can add further dimensions to this framework, and it can be adapted to any level.

3 The framework is best suited for individual projects, or easily-delineated areas, where it would be possible to gather information and data in all the categories. In all cases, it is crucial to stress that information should be gathered directly from the women themselves. The category of Influencing Factors requires a broader analysis of socio-economic, political and cultural factors than may be readily available, but participants should nevertheless be encouraged to put down all they know that is relevant in this category.

4. The People-oriented Framework (**Handouts 42, 43, 44 and 45**) developed for the UNHCR for use in the planning of refugee programmes, is based on the Harvard Framework. It can thus be introduced to participants using the same activity as for the Harvard Framework, using a case study of a refugee project (**Handout 46**). Participants need to fill out a 'before and after' analysis for each of the charts for this framework, so you need to ensure that your case study has information about the lives of the refugees before the crisis as well as in their current situation.

5 If the participants are to prepare the case study, they should have clear guidelines from facilitators about the level of information needs. You could also use one of the long case studies from the original book, **Gender Roles in Development Projects: A Case Book**, edited by Overholt, Anderson, Cloud and Austin.

6 The checklist of questions linked to this framework is found with **Activity 54 Checklists**.

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## Programme planning and implementation in community forestry

### Background: Forestry in Indonesia

Conventional forestry projects (concerned with planting and maintaining or cutting forests) usually have two objectives: wood production for commercial use or tree growth for environmental protection. Commercial forestry in Indonesia involves the logging of timber, processing into saw logs, plywood and veneers for export, also for fuel wood, building material, and non-timber forest products for trading and domestic use. Intensive silviculture is done only in the teak forests of Java. Forests maintained for environmental objectives prevent soil erosion, and control run-off and water supplies. Conventional forestry projects are the major activity of the Indonesian Ministry of Forestry, and are also undertaken through the State forestry management company.

'Forests for People', an Indonesian programme developed by the Ministry, has recognised that, especially in adjacent areas, forests should benefit the community as well as State and corporate interests. A different set of objectives, activities and management style from traditional forestry projects has evolved.

Community forestry may involve activities similar to those in conventional forestry, but most community forests are for consumption by rural people. Community forestry objectives may include production of fuel wood, animal fodder, poles and timber for building, food products (leaves, nuts, fruits, herbs) as well as environmental protection. As rural development activities, these projects may also aim to increase rural employment, raise the standard of living of the rural poor (through increasing forest output and income), and involve the rural community in local self-help activities. Institutional inputs may include extension, training, guidance, technical help, the provision of materials/tools, and training.

In Indonesia, the community forestry approach has had good results. Since 1964, Gadjah Mada University has been involved in reforestation based on a participatory

approach to communal development. In West Java, participatory action research has been used to involve the rural population in dealing with problems of soil erosion, increasing resource management, and improving the livelihood of rural people. WALH, a federation of 15 Indonesian environmental organisations, worked with government and NGOs to promote tropical forest conservation, soil protection, and community forestry.

## The pilot project area

In February 1983, the village of Biyasan (not its real name) was given approval for a community forestry project, one of several villages in three neighbouring *kecamatan*s targeted by government for community forestry programmes. The village, located in an upland area of East Kalimantan near the headwaters of a major river, is made up of seven hamlets, scattered within walking distance. It covers 1200 hectares of hilly terrain.

In 1983, Biyasan had a population of 3843, 1680 males and 2163 females, with an average of 5.9 people per household. Over the previous 15 years, the area had seen considerable population growth and then a decline. Population growth, at 1.6 per cent per year, was low due to migration. Most villagers (600 households) had been in the area for generations. Twelve years ago farmers from elsewhere (50 households) were resettled in Biyasan and given small (0.5 ha) plots of land.

Though the soil was stony and shallow in places, there was good seasonal rainfall, and farmers harvested one crop of sawah rice each year. They also grew dryland crops. 38 per cent of the land was in agricultural production, 12 per cent home gardens, 7 per cent private woodlots, 15 per cent fallow and 33 per cent unproductive due to the river, the slope of the land, previous clearcutting, and poor soil. The main crops in the area included rice, and *palawija* (cassava, corn and peanuts). Tree crops included cashews and coffee, and were primarily cash crops, as were peanuts.

Women and men both owned and inherited land. Men owned 68 per cent of all productive land, women the remaining 32 per cent — a result of traditional inheritance patterns. The average size of landholding per household was 0.7 hectares, when 6 per cent holding more than 3.5 hectares. Twenty per cent of households were headed by women, and in another 10 per cent of households, the men had migrated in search of waged employment.

Wealthy farmers might employ wage labour at harvest time, as well as using family labour. Many of them obtained credit for fertilisers and some had access to machinery for weeding and hulling. They were also converting fallow fields to cloves, chocolate and coffee tree crops. Because of poor soil quality, steep slopes and soil erosion, wealthy farmers' fields expanded further and further from the village.

The poorer farmers had significantly poorer yields in recent years, and had not been able to benefit from commercial inputs. Few farmers, however, were landless sharecroppers. Seasonal agricultural labour was primarily unpaid family labour, and *tolog menolong*. For poor farmers, returns on family land were not usually enough to provide for a household, and other income had to be earned.

In nearby timber estates, trees were, and continue to be, cut and sawlogs shipped to urban areas. Depletion of the nearby forest because of widespread clearcutting resulted in problems. A number of necessary ingredients for natural medicine were becoming scarce. It was harder to find choice trees for wood forest products. Reforestation had provided employment for a number of men and women over the last 10 years, but at the time of the case study, these jobs had decreased because of concession holders' low priority on reforestation. Women's earnings traditionally came from making rattan products and other non-wood forest goods and trading in the market. During reforestation efforts, women were the main wage labourers in tree nurseries.

Wage labour accounted for 30 per cent of male income, (down 10 per cent in five years), and 17 per cent of female income (down 15 per cent in five years). The drop reflects a decline in local forestry employment, increased mechanisation by wealthy farmers, and land-use changes by large landholders — from increasingly unprofitable agriculture to private woodlots — which decreased the need for hired labour.

Farmers had not concerned themselves with planting and maintaining private woodlots, because there appeared to be abundant forests which could be cut, with or without licenses. Their concern was food production. But, clearcutting, the resulting soil and water losses, and a growing need for building material and fuel wood, made private woodlots desirable for those who could afford it. At the time of the case study, no income had been generated from private woodlots.

## Activities

Local men who had not migrated for work were involved in agriculture, either on family land or as hired labour. Men carried out field preparation, terrace construction, and ploughing with oxen. They were also involved in animal care and feeding. Their daily work might also include some artisanal craft production, (making rattan furniture), and trading. From time to time, men raided the reforested area for building material, or additional space for home gardens. Families planted trees for fencing around their gardens, and for soil conservation; but more trees were needed for home construction and other building.

Women managed the households. They were involved in seasonal rice planting, transplanting, hoeing, weeding and harvesting, rice processing and storage, and

work in their gardens. Many women worked as unpaid labourers alongside their husbands who were employed by the state forestry company. Some also worked seasonally for wages, picking and drying coffee and tobacco for wealthy farmers.

Year-round, women collected fuel wood and natural medicines, made non-wood forest products from rattan, and traded at the market. They collected wood from the piles made when fields were cleared (often with their children), or walked further into the hills. As clearing moved further away from home, women walked greater distances for fuel wood. Sometimes they collected it from the reforestation area closer to home. As they returned home, they also collected leaves and fruit along the way. Women were active in traditional wedding and funeral activities, and found alternatives to institutional credit by raising money through participation in the local *arisan*.

Girls were involved in household work from an early age. At seven, they helped feed animals, carry water, gather fuel wood. By the age of ten, girls were helping to plant and harvest rice. Boys were active in feeding and caring for the animals, and helping with their fathers' work. There was a primary school in the village which both boys and girls attended, but, as they got older, girls were needed to help at home for longer hours than boys. Girls, especially those whose mothers worked as labourers or traded in the market, had to drop out of school.

Poverty in the area was a result of the complex relationship between high population density, poor quality soil, inequitable land tenure arrangements, and migration of men. The poorest people tended to be women and their families in single-headed households. Women traditionally did not benefit from credit and extension programmes for farmers as much as men. Women's incomes had declined and, because of a multitude of factors including lack of education, there were few employment opportunities for women.

## **The project: integrated community forestry**

The pilot project in Biyasan was initiated by the Ministry of Forestry in conjunction with Walhi (environmental organizations). Village involvement was enlisted in the planning stages through a bottom-up planning process, and the LKMD.

The present objectives were to:

- improve the living standards of rural people, especially the poorest: through cash income or home consumption, encouraging increased village production of fuel wood, fodder, timber, and non-wood forest products;
- decrease consumption of fuel wood by testing, manufacturing and distributing improved stoves;



- promote rural self-reliance through active participation in forest resource management, including individual woodlots and communal forests;
- reduce environmental destruction, through including soil conservation, terracing, and protecting water resources; and
- improve women's role in rural development, and increase their productivity.

The objectives were to be accomplished through specific project strategies:

- Re-establish nurseries for seedling production and distribution; establish forest estates for communal use, as well as household woodlots and windbreaks.
- Develop and distribute improved stoves.
- Increase forestry extension services to improve tree planting and maintenance, encourage the use of the stoves, and promote better farming methods (including increased forage production within forest estates).
- Encourage more active participation of rural people in the project activities and their management.
- Enhance income-generating possibilities for rural women through the expansion of non-wood processing.

A number of objectives were not stated in the project outline but were understood. These were implicit assumptions.

- Men and women would contribute equally to project management.
- Both villagers' leadership skills and farmers' sense of responsibility and participation would be developed.
- Credit was not offered, but incentives would be offered at the discretion of the Village Head.
- The work efficiency of women in cooking would be increased and more time could be spent on making rattan mats and baskets.
- The market for non-wood products had potential for expansion.
- More intensive land use would be encouraged (more agroforestry).
- Farmers' incomes would improve, as would living standards from more productive land and less soil erosion.

- Little social change would occur in the village, except improved economic position for all.

The project involved a number of management levels. Watershed rehabilitation and reforestation of State-owned forests were part of the [State] Programme for the Preservation of Forest, Land and Water. Activity on farmers' land was considered 'regreening'.

The official responsible for the project was the District Head, assisted by Walhi for many of the activities, and a regreening specialist. The project manager was Head of the District Forest Service. Head of Implementation was the Subdistrict Forest Service staff person and implementers were the farmers' groups. The farmers formed groups of 20 to 40 people, each grouped by a key farmer and a Walhi community development officer. They served as project contact for the extension workers, and handled instructions, distribution of materials and incentives. Meetings were held regularly to discuss problems. Extension was done through demonstration plots.

Women were involved with local decision-making, through the PKK which was consulted for this project. It was an enthusiastic supporter, since the project fitted into its concern with village beautification and the home-garden movement. A PKK representative was assigned to each farmers' group.

## **Project activity**

After the project was approved, stage one began and a survey was conducted.

- An inventory was done of male and female farmer holdings, noting home gardens, and agroforestry activity (pekarangan). Species and numbers of trees and plants were enumerated.
- Fuel wood needs and patterns of collection were surveyed.
- Data was collected on both men's and women's roles and needs in forestry development activity.

Stage two was more difficult. Initially it was hard to enlist farmer support for long-term tree planting. With little land, little time, and few resources — and because forests surrounded the village — poorer farmers did not see tree planting as a priority. The poorer women were too busy to be concerned with beautification, and had little contact with the PKK. Since the forest estate nearby had employed labourers, people felt that it was the state forest company's responsibility to do the work or at least pay for it. Incentives became important.

The project's nursery-based seedling production, previously wage labour done by women, became a job done by men because the incentive was donation of seedlings for private planting instead of wages. Women were too busy producing handicrafts and training to engage in non-remunerative work. The incentive was appropriate to enlist the involvement of men, the dominant landowners, not women. Those with more land could use fallow and marginal (non-productive) land for tree planting. Because tree maintenance involved low labour and low risk, the larger landowners were more easily convinced of the benefit of establishing woodlots.

Input into choice of seedlings to be grown and planted was open to all. With assistance from the extension workers, the final decision was made at the farmers' group level. Men were concerned about fodder for animals, building materials and fuel wood; women were interested in fuel wood and in varieties for non-wood processing. Fast-growing pine trees were not preferred for fuel nor for use in cottage industry, but were thought to be most useful for short-term environmental protection and faster economic returns for sale as building materials.

Since the government had further plans for resettlement, some people were uncertain about security of land tenure and whether trees planted as woodlots would remain theirs. It was unclear who would have the use of trees planted for erosion control along the river and in some steeper areas on the hillside.

Extension activity was aimed at both men and women, although there were few female forestry extension workers, and the timing of training did not consider whether men or women could attend. Providing female extensionists and timing to suit women became a priority, in order to enable more women to have training in the areas that affected their work in home garden, food production and non-wood processing. As gatherers of fuel wood, women's learning about forest maintenance was also seen as important, but a low priority because of their busy schedules. Their previous expertise in tree nursery skills was overlooked.

Incentives were assigned to heads of households for household participation in the forestry programme, equal to the value of the tools and materials. Wages for tree planting were borne by the farmers. Establishing nurseries, tree planting and forest maintenance were not waged work. Family members who had time to participate were generally older sons and the male head of household.

Skills training and information on the improved stoves and their construction was directed at the men, since it hadn't been specified in the project proposal who should be involved. The timing of the training also meant women would not be able to attend because of work in the rice cycle (post harvest processing).

(Source: *Two Halves make a Whole: Gender Relations in Development*, MATCH. This case study was especially prepared by MATCH for teaching the Harvard Analytical Framework.)



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## The Harvard analytical framework

This framework was developed in the 1980s in the Harvard Institute for International Relations to facilitate the integration of women into project analysis. It is outlined in *Gender Roles in Development projects: A Case Book*, edited by Catherine Overholt, Mary B. Anderson, Kathleen Cloud, and James E. Austin. It is a useful tool for gathering data, understanding women's and men's roles in a society, and taking account of external forces which affect development planning. It is a flexible instrument which can be used at many different levels of planning and analysis, and can be expanded to disaggregate data according to cultural, ethnic and economic factors as well as gender and age. The framework can also be used as a planning and implementation tool for programmes and projects. There are four inter-related components:

- **The Activity Profile**, which is based on the gender division of labour and delineates the economic activities of the population in the project area. It provides for disaggregation by sex, age, and other factors, and for recording the amount of time spent on activities, and the location of the activities. (See Table 1, **Handout 41**)
- **The Access and Control Profile**, which identifies the resource individuals can command to carry out their activities and the benefits they derive from them. By distinguishing between access to resources and benefits, and control over them it is possible to assess the relative power of members of a society or economy. (See Table 2, **Handout 42**)
- **Factors Influencing Activities, Access and Control**: factors (such as gender division of labour, cultural beliefs) which create different opportunities and constraints on women and men's participation in development. The impact of changes over time in the broader cultural and economic environment must be incorporated into this analysis.
- **Project Cycle Analysis** is the final component which consists of examining a project proposal or area of intervention in the light of gender-disaggregated data and social change.

**Note on the use of the tables:** The Activity Profile charts productive activities, such as those related to agriculture or employment and then lists specific activities under the headings of each area.. There can be a large number of categories, depending on the nature of the situation. Under 2, Reproductive Activities are listed. These may be related to water, fuel, small livestock, child care etc

The influencing factors would include political, economic, cultural, legal, international factors..

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## Table 1 — Activity Profile

Socio-economic Activity	Gender/Age <sup>1</sup>						TIME	LOCUS <sup>3</sup>
	FA	MA	FC	MC	FE	ME		

### 1 *Production of Goods and Services*

- a Product/Services
1. Functional Activity
  2. Functional Activity
  3. Functional Activity

- b Product/Services
1. Functional Activity
  2. Functional Activity
  3. Functional Activity

### 2 *Reproduction & Maintenance of Human Resources*

- a Product/Services
1. Functional Activity
  2. Functional Activity
  3. Functional Activity

- b Product/Services
1. Functional Activity
  2. Functional Activity
  3. Functional Activity
  4. Functional Activity
  5. Functional Activity

Code:<sup>1</sup> FA = Female Adult MA = Male Adult FC = Female Child  
MC = Male Child FE = Female Elder ME = Male Elder

Code Percentage of time allocated to each activity; seasonal; daily

Code:<sup>3</sup> Within home; family, field or shop; local community; beyond community  
(Source: *Gender Roles in Development Projects: A Case Book* edited by Overholt, Anderson, Cloud and Austin.)





**Table 2 — Access and Control Profile**

<i>Resources</i>	<i>Access (M/F)</i>	<i>Control (M/F)</i>
Land		
Equipment		
Labour		
Production		
Reproduction		
Capital		
Education/Training		
<i>Benefits</i>	<i>Access (M/F)</i>	<i>Control (M/F)</i>
Outside Income		
Assets Ownership		
In-kind goods		
(Food, clothing, shelter, etc)		
Education		
Political Power/Prestige		
Other		

(Source: *Gender Roles in Development Projects: A Case Book* edited by Overholt, Anderson, Cloud and Austin.)



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## The people-oriented analytical framework

The Framework for People-Oriented Planning in Refugee Situations was devised by Mary B Anderson and the UNHCR Senior Coordinator for Refugee Women following the adoption by the UNHCR of a Policy on Refugee Women which called for the improvement of participation and access to resources of refugee women in all programmes. It is based on the Harvard Analytical Framework and is intended as a practical planning tool for refugee workers.

There are two key elements (common to all human experience, and centrally important to women), that are particularly acute in refugee populations: change and protection. When people flee from disaster or conflict, their lives change rapidly and dramatically. Even in long-term refugee settlements where women's and men's roles may stabilise, they will be different from those pre-flight, and may be regarded as temporary by refugees themselves. Protection is both a legal and social concern, and refugees lose their national status and the social networks which may have offered them some protection. These issues will be very different for women and for men, and this framework should help to identify these differences.

The Framework has three components:

- **The Activities Analysis:** because the existing gender division of labour and roles is disrupted by flight, it is essential to find out what women's and men's roles were before flight, and how they have changed for women and men as refugees. Protection, legal, social and personal is a crucial activity to be highlighted, particularly for women and girls. (See Table 1, **Handout 35**).
- **The Use and Control of Resources Analysis:** this provides for gathering data on resource used and controlled by women and men before flight, and which they control as refugees. Women and men may have lost control permanently over resources in their place of origin and be unable to regain it. The new situation will affect gender relations and may introduce opportunities for positive change for women. (See Table 2, **Handout 36**).
- **The Determinants Analysis:** these are the factors both within the refugee groups

and in the receiving country which determine or influence the roles and responsibilities of women and men and change their use and control of resources. They include economic and demographic factors, institutional structures, socio-cultural factors in the refugee group and the host country/population, legal factors and international political events and trends. This helps to identify the external opportunities and constraints which it is necessary to consider in planning.

(Adapted from: A Framework for People-Oriented Planning in Refugee Situations: A Practical Planning Tool for Refugee Workers, United Nations High Commission for Refugees, UNHCR)

**Table 1 Activities analysis**

(Complete for both the pre-refugee experience and the present situation)

Activities	Who	Where	When/ how long	Resources used
<b>Protection</b>				
<b>Production of goods...</b> e.g. carpentry metal work				
<b>...and services</b> e.g. teaching domestic labour				
<b>Agriculture</b> e.g. land clearance planting care of livestock				
<b>Household production</b> e.g. childcare home garden water collection				
<b>Social/political/religious</b> e.g. community meeting ceremonies				

Source: UNHCR



**Table 2 Resource use and control**

<b>Lost</b> <i>Resource</i>	<i>Who used</i>	<i>Who controlled (men/women)</i>
land livestock shelter tools education system health care income		
<b>Brought by refugees</b> <i>Resource</i>	<i>Who has</i>	<i>Who uses (men/women)</i>
<i>Skills</i> e.g. political manufacturing carpentry sewing cleaning agricultural animal husbandry		
<i>Knowledge</i> e.g. literacy teaching medicine/health		
<b>Provided to refugees</b> <i>Resource</i>	<i>To whom</i>	<i>How (male heads of household (female heads of household)</i>
food shelter clothing education legal services health		

(Source: UNHCR)





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## Determinants analysis

A final stage in the analytical framework is to look at determinants. These are the factors both within the community and in the receiving country which determine or influence the roles and responsibilities — and the resource use — of women and men and which, therefore, can affect the outcome of your planned activities. They are broad and interrelated and include such factors as:

general economic conditions, such as poverty levels, inflation rates, income distribution, international terms of trade, infrastructure;

institutional structures, including the nature of government bureaucracies and arrangements for the generation and dissemination of knowledge, technology, and skills;

demographic factors;

community norms and social hierarchy, such as family/community power structure and religious beliefs. These can be particularly important among refugee groups where men's and women's roles are changing;

legal parameters;

training and education;

political events, both internal and external;

national attitude to refugees; and

attitude of refugees to development/assistance workers.

We do not provide a table for this analysis because the purpose of identifying these *determinants* is to consider which ones affect activities or resources and how they affect them. This helps you to identify external constraints and opportunities that you should consider in planning your programmes. It will help you to anticipate and predict the inputs of your programmes.



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## **Women refugees in Bangladesh**

In 1991-2 about 300,000 Rohingya refugees from Myanmar (Burma) took shelter in south-east Bangladesh. Muslims from the Rakhaine state, numbering between one and two million, are distinct linguistically from the Buddhist Burman majority of Myanmar. The repression of Muslims is part of a consistent pattern of human rights violations against all political opposition and dissent, and against vulnerable and weak sectors of the country's population, such as ethnic minorities, who the military authorities suspect may not support its nationalist ideology. Muslims from the Rakhaine state fled in similar numbers (two hundred thousand plus) to Bangladesh in 1978 and were later repatriated after an agreement between the two countries was reached.

At first the government of Bangladesh showed remarkable hospitality and provided land and shelter to this large-scale influx. UNHCR was requested to assist in mid-February 1992.

Oxfam's involvement was at first to fund health services, then at the urging of UNHCR, Oxfam brought in water equipment and engineers in April 1992 to provide water for some of the camps. Later Oxfam took on another wide-ranging project in the sector of sanitation and environmental health services in two of the camps where it had helped instal water supplies. This is rounded out with a health education programme.

### **Repatriation agreement**

An agreement signed by the Governments of Bangladesh and Myanmar in late April of 1992 to repatriate all refugees over six months provided no provision for UNHCR supervision or involvement in the repatriation process on either side of the border. After several attempts by the UN at different levels the government of Bangladesh allowed UNHCR's protection officers to verify the 'voluntary' repatriation through individual interviews and access to repatriation transit camps in Bangladesh. Refugees wish to remain in Bangladesh until they are sure of their future safety in Myanmar and UNHCR's active involvement on the other side of the border. The government of Bangladesh is encouraging refugees' departure by ordering all NGOs to terminate employment of refugees, restricting movement between camps, and closing down the small makeshift shops inside and around the camps. Refugees are increasingly being confined to their camps and actively discouraged from using local markets.

Myanmar signed a Memorandum with UNHCR in November 1993 allowing them to monitor repatriation in Rohingya areas in Myanmar. UNHCR is now work-

ing out the detailed tasks and activities to implement the memorandum. Both UNHCR and Government of Bangladesh are expecting January 1994 to see the start of the accelerated repatriation.

## **Forced to ‘volunteer’: Amina’s story**

‘When they started pushing they pushed us first, now you start pushing and again we are the first,’ said Amina, a widow in her early forties with five children under 12, when armed police ‘helped’ her pack her belongings hurriedly on the way to a transit camp for ‘voluntary repatriation’ in September, 1992.

After the repatriation agreement between the two governments, the authorities instructed each ‘camp-in-charge’ to arrange for volunteers for repatriation. Each camp-in-charge had to fulfil a fixed quota by producing a weekly list of the refugees who were ‘willing’ to go back. The camp-in-charge have used a ‘carrot and stick’ policy to fulfil their quota. Most of the time they are so desperate that they start with less carrot and more stick and end up with no carrot and all stick. Widows with children are the easiest victims of this voluntary repatriation operation.

I met Amina first in January 1992 in Dhechuapalnog area among the first group of refugees. At that time only the workers of Gonoshastya Kendar, an NGO with a long history of medical work dating back to the Liberation War, was working with the refugees. Its workers had started a survey and needs assessment. I asked a worker to help me as an interpreter as I wanted to talk with some women who came without husbands, father or a male guardian.

Amina had had to cross the border with her children as the members of the Burmese paramilitary force ‘Lone Htein’ started raiding their villages to collect the able-bodied people as forced labour. ‘Lone Htein’ were not happy with only able-bodied men, they took the women as well in their camps for ‘household’ work. They targeted women-headed families as the easiest sources when they were looking for young girls to take advantage of. First they asked for money in lieu of male labour, then livestock, then poultry. If nothing was available, they would take a girl. This happened to Amina. At first they took her life-savings of 500 kyats, two goats, and gold earrings. The second time, when she had nothing to offer, they asked her to hand over her 12-year-old daughter just for two or three days. ‘I refused and cried. Then they took me to their camp and they kept me there the whole night. Next day they released me but took me again the following day for another two nights.’

Amina took a decision and crossed the River Naf for a secure life in Bangladesh and to protect her children from the hands of ‘Lone Htein’. Crossing the border was not a pleasant event. ‘Lone Htein’ confiscated her money (which she had borrowed from the village head man to meet the costs of the journey), her national registration cards, and her few possessions.

After eight months of refugee life in Bangladesh, moving from one shelter to another, Amina found herself again trapped by authorities against whom she was powerless. This time her 9-year-old son was caught red-handed by the Camp Guards breaking the law when he was trying to sell some pulses (which the refugees are

given but don't like as food) to buy some vegetables and dried fish. (At that time dried fish was not in the food basket of UNHCR.) They confiscated the pulses and took him into custody. Hearing of the incident, Amina with their Mahjhi (head man), rushed to the camp office to plead for her son. The guards asked her to choose one of two options — either face the police case as her son broke the law, in which case the authorities would send him to jail; or list her name in the voluntary repatriation list and get herself ready for repatriation within a week. 'Go back or face the trial': the solution was as simple as that. What could Amina do in such a situation? She was not ready to leave her only son in the hands of foreign police so she opted for repatriation. There are so many such Aminas still struggling in the camps.

## **The vulnerability of women refugees**

Many of the women arrived with a history of rape, and came from divided families with lost husbands or children. They may have been unaccompanied, possibly pregnant or with VD, but they had little hope of being treated sympathetically by male doctors. They have found themselves in camps where the space for them to lead anything but the most restricted lives is unavailable, and where the level of curiosity at what they had been through made them the object of unwelcome attention from the media and local population.

It became very hard to find a safe place for women who suffered at the hands of the forces on the other side of the border; the same vulnerability followed them like a shadow, even in a friendly country. We have heard allegations of harassment of women by security forces at the water collection points, and regular sexual abuse of refugee women by the security forces has also been reported. It is not easy to address these problems in a situation when all the camp officials are men and they work entirely through the — mostly male — Mahjhis.

## **Recognising gender issues**

There was no specific gender component in our initial water programme but gradually we started responding to the gender issues. It is difficult to work in a gender-blind situation, where every decision is taken and implemented by male officials living in the bachelors' dormitory far from their family, with no positive motivation to work with distressed people. As the only organisation whose staff live in the camp, we have some advantages over other organisations whose workers are only available during the day. Moreover, from the very beginning, we tried to stick to the principle of 'more female, less male' in the working team. Female engineers and health educators became our strength in pointing out and responding to women's concerns. Moving the tap-stands to a safer location, to avoid harassment of women by a section of the security forces, and changing the timing of supplying water to suit the routines of both the women and the men was the first attempt to change the gender-blind situation into a positive gender-sensitive approach.

## Setting up women's health centres

Health Educators tried to make it possible for the women to benefit from the services and health education programme by arranging women's gatherings and group meetings. Later on this became difficult, when camp officials banned all group meetings and gatherings to prevent any anti-repatriation activity. Then the team took new initiatives to reach the women by setting up women's centres in the camp. In the first phase the women's centres, which were called 'health education centres' to make them more acceptable, were constructed by a mixture of voluntary and paid labour. Later on we supplied the materials and women managed the construction on their own. Gradually these centres became a refuge for the women, a place of talking, sharing of emotions and releasing of tensions. Health educators also benefited from these centres as a place of contact and discussion.

Refugee women proposed to use the centre for their children as children's health education centres (schools were not allowed), in the morning while the women were busy with cooking and other domestic activities. That gave birth to our 'child to child' programme.

Ultimately these centres became the learning place for the Health Educators as well. New ideas for garbage disposal, construction of women's bathing places using refugee voluntary labour, ways of using the refugee labour in desludging full latrines, watching the water sources, guarding and protecting the latrines and other communal areas, all came up from the discussions at the women's centres. The original idea behind these centres was just to make better contact with families, and hence the refugee community at large, through the women and children; but gradually they became more than that. Individuals who are attending the centres are also getting benefits personally. The benefits are often intangible — some comfort or ease, perhaps, from the informally organised activities in congenial company.

## Attempts to close the health education centres

When the health education centres became the women's centres in a real sense, the male folk, both officials and refugees, felt threatened and started plotting a conspiracy against them. It has become a common practice of chief camp officials to issue verbal orders to our Health Educators and sometimes to our coordinator to close down the centres, claiming that they are the breeding ground of conspiracy against repatriation, and other anti-law-and-order activities. This has never been backed up with evidence, and we continue. A desperate and very organised attempt was made in the last 'Ramadan' (the Muslim holy fasting month), when a group of male Mahjhi sought permission to convert a centre into a mosque (where women's entrance is not encouraged). The women resisted from the very beginning when they heard about it. Giving up the attempt, the Mahjhis changed their strategy and sought permission for using the centres just for one month. Again, it was the women of the centres who uncovered the plot. They warned the Health Educators about the consequences of the proposal if we endorsed it. 'We will never be able to change the sta-

tus of a mosque into a women's centre no matter what the agreement was.' This is how a mere sitting and chatting place of women become a source of power and learning for both parties.

## **Protecting the rights of women refugees**

It is true that as refugee workers with the limited responsibility of supplying water and ensuring sanitation we have very little scope to play a substantial role to protect women like Amina or to allow them repatriation with dignity, but I don't think we should not try. If we can organise the refugees, especially the refugee women, through women volunteers and workers and achieve some confidence among them I think nothing is impossible.

It is also high time to detail the requirements to protect women's rights in refugee camp situations, on behalf of NGOs who are willing to be involved in future refugee programmes managed by UNHCR in a situation where local authorities have different attitudes and conceptions. Otherwise NGOs will remain the enlisted or pre-qualified subcontractors of UNHCR, with no choice. Nobody will be there to ensure UNHCR actually achieves its own intention of ensuring gender issues are addressed in a positive way in every programme.

(Source: Gawher Nayeem Wahra in *Focus on Gender*, 2:1, Oxfam.)





## **Comparison of methods**

### **Objective**

- 1 To help participants to compare the salient features of two methods of analysis, e.g. Moser and Harvard methods, and their usefulness in the field.

### **Method**

- 1 Divide the participants into small groups to discuss each method, based on the introduction to these methods in **Activities 47 and 48**. Ask the group to prepare a chart listing the most important features of each method on a chart.  
*(15 mins)*
- 2 Using their chart, ask the groups to discuss the usefulness of these methods in project analysis.  
*(25 mins)*
- 3 Reconvene the whole group, and ask a spokesperson from each group to report back. Ask each group to report one salient feature until the list is complete.  
*(20 mins)*
- 4 List main features on flipchart.

### **Materials**

Flipchart, paper, pens

## ***Facilitator's Notes***

*1 This exercise can only be done after doing both the Moser method (Activity 47) and the Harvard method (Activity 48).*

*2 The facilitators should have studied the two methods and be able to add any key features that the group omits.*

*3 This activity is useful if you have studied more than one analytical framework — it helps participants to think about them in a comparative way, and identify relative strengths and weaknesses.*

*4 It can be used to compare any two analytical frameworks.*

## Longwe method

### Objectives

- 1 To provide a method of analysis to assess projects and programmes.
- 2 To show the possible negative as well as positive effects of considering or failing to consider gender issues.
- 3 To provide greater understanding of what equality and empowerment mean in practice.

### Method

- 1 **Preparation:** Before the training ask participants to provide two project application forms used in their programmes, one for a women's project, the other for a project not specifically for women. Ask participants not to include model projects, but the most recent projects approved in each category. If you are doing the Moser method, you can use the same documents.

Before the training begins, the facilitation team should read **Handout 47**, then meet and analyse the projects, using the Women's Development profile (**Handout 48**). Choose five projects for the training. (See **Activity 47** Moser method for criteria for selection).

- 2 If possible, give a copy of each of the project documents to the participants the day before the activity.
- 3 Present the Longwe method based on **Handout 47**, using OHP or flipchart where applicable. Distribute the handout. Invite questions and discussion.
- 4 Analyse the first project with the group. Choose one that has some negative, neutral, and positive elements.

- 5 Divide the group into four groups. Give each group four copies of the Gender Profile Chart, **Handout 48**. Ask the group to fill in one for each project.
- 6 In the large group, each small group presents their profile of one project. Write this on the prepared flipchart. Other people in the group can then add their comments. If you and other facilitators disagree with groups' analysis, explain why.
- 7 Lead a general discussion. Hand out one copy of the charts (**Handouts 48 and 49**) to all participants for future reference.

## Materials

### **Handouts 47, 48 and 49**

Prepared flipcharts, pens

### *Facilitator's Notes*

*1 Sara Hlupekile Longwe is a consultant on gender and development based in Lusaka, Zambia. She has introduced the 'Women's Empowerment Framework' as a basis of her own distinctive method of gender analysis of development projects. This method of analysis is based on the approach that gender awareness means an ability to recognise women's issues at every stage of the development cycle. It emphasises that development means overcoming women's inequality with men in every respect.*

*2 The method is particularly useful in explaining the role of empowerment as intrinsic to the process of development, and therefore to illuminate aspects of development work which had previously not been sufficiently recognised or appreciated. It is a method to change attitudes.*

*3 For those groups who are committed to equality and empowerment, but whose projects may not reflect this, this is a particularly valuable method of analysis.*

*4 There is a strong ideological component and the training aims at conviction - and liberation from more limited theoretical perspectives.*

*5 The handout is based on an earlier account of the Longwe method, which appeared in an Oxfam publication. Sara Longwe now prefers to use the phrase 'Women's Empowerment Framework' to characterise her method.*

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## **Gender awareness: the missing element in the Third World development project**

### **Introduction**

Although development agencies and Third World governments are trying to formulate and implement new policies on women's development, success with these policies depends on increased gender awareness amongst development personnel. This paper therefore considers at what gender awareness means in looking at women's development in the Third World, and defines this awareness in terms of an ability to recognise women's issues at every stage of the development project cycle.

The paper presents a five-point Women's Development Criteria as an analytical framework for understanding what Third World development projects ought to be doing in order to contribute towards women's development.

### **The need for gender awareness**

The general lack of attention to women's needs within the development process stems from a general lack of gender awareness amongst those who plan and implement development projects. The project target group is often treated as an undifferentiated group of 'people' without recognising the special needs of women; more likely, and worse, a male-biased vocabulary is used to describe the target group which becomes 'men' rather than 'people': in this way the women actually disappear from sight — and from thought. Typically a project document describes the Third World farmer as 'he'; but in actuality, the Third World farmer is usually a woman.

Development in the Third World is not merely about increased productivity and welfare, although these things are important. Development is also about meeting the needs of those who are most in need, and about increased participation, and equality.

Development is therefore also concerned with enabling people to take charge of their own lives, and escape from the poverty which arises not from lack of productivity but rather from oppression and exploitation. The typical rural woman in the Third World is a hard-working producer of food who remains, with her children, short of food and malnourished: the food is consumed by the husband rather than the wife; by men rather than women and children; by landlords rather than tenants; by townspeople rather than rural people; by rich consumers rather than poor producers.

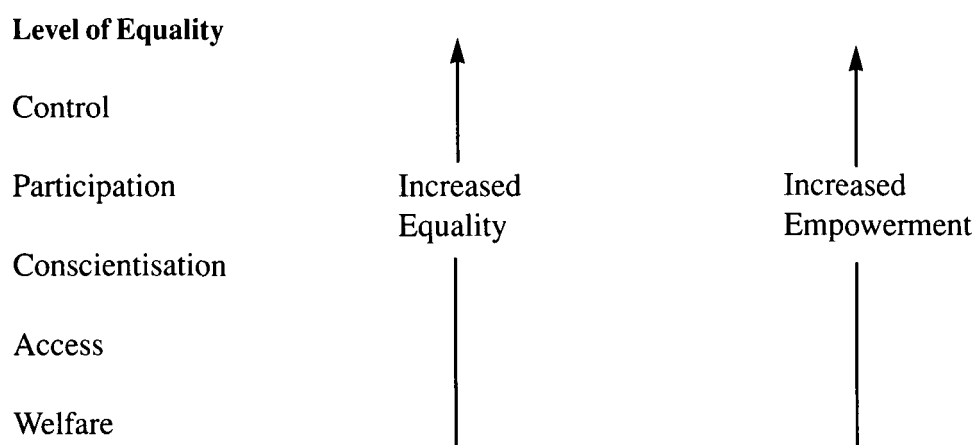
Thus, the problem in women's development is not primarily concerned with enabling women to be more productive, more efficient, or to use their labour more effectively. The central issue of women's development is women's empowerment, to enable women to take an equal place with men, and to participate equally in the development process in order to achieve control over the factors of production on an equal basis with men.

## Criteria for recognising women's issues

Women's development is here defined as being concerned with women's issues, where the overall issue is equality with men, and overcoming inequality.

There is a need to spell out the different forms and levels of equality that constitute development. Much of the development literature on this subject is concerned with defining equality according to the conventional sectors of the economy and society: equality in education, employment, under the law, and so on. The difficulty with this system of analytical division is that it provides a focus on areas of social life, rather than the role of increased equality in the development process. I shall therefore introduce five different levels of equality as the basis for criteria to assess the level of women's development in any area of social or economic life.

### Women's Development Criteria (Women's Empowerment Framework)



These levels of equality are in hierarchical relationship, so that equality of control is more important for women's development than equality of welfare. The higher levels of equality are automatically higher levels of development. This is a hierarchy of empowerment, since the higher levels are concerned with providing women with the means towards increased control over their own lives.

These five levels are presented as criteria for measuring the extent of women's development in any area of social life. They are:

i) **Welfare.** The level of material welfare of women, relative to men, in such matters as food supply, income and medical care. This level of equality is concerned purely with relative level of welfare, and is not concerned with whether women are themselves the active creators and producers of their material needs: such involvement would suggest a higher degree of empowerment and development, which is considered in the higher levels of the criteria.

ii) **Access.** Women's access to the factors of production on an equal basis with men: equal access to land, labour, credit, training, marketing facilities and all publicly available services and benefits on an equal basis with men. Here equality of access is obtained by ensuring the principle of equality of opportunity, which typically entails the reform of the law and administrative practice to remove all forms of discrimination against women.

iii) **Conscientisation.** The understanding of the difference between sex roles and gender roles, and that the latter are cultural and can be changed; conscientisation also involves a belief that the sexual division of labour should be fair and agreeable to both sides, and not involve the economic or political domination of one sex by the other. Belief in sexual equality lies at the basis of gender awareness, and provides the basis for collective participation in the process of women's development.

iv) **Participation.** This level of equality is concerned with women's equal participation in the decision-making process; this means participation in the processes of policy making planning and administration. It is a particularly important aspect of development projects, where participation means involvement in needs assessment, project formulation, implementation and evaluation. Equality of participation means involving the women of the community affected by the decisions taken, and involving them in the same proportion in decision making as their proportion in the community at large.

v) **Control.** This level entails not only the participation of women in the decision-making process, but a utilisation of this participation, through conscientisation and mobilisation, to achieve equality of control over the factors of production, and equality of control over the distribution of benefits. Equality of control means a balance of control between men and women, so that neither side is put into a position of dominance or subordination.

A development project is concerned with women's development when it is concerned with a women's issue, defined in terms of the above five levels of equality. The term women's issue is here defined differently from a women's concern, which is here used to denote matters connected with women's sex roles, or their traditional and subordinate sex-stereotyped gender roles. By contrast a women's issue is concerned with equality with men in any social or economic role, and involving any of the above five levels of equality. Therefore, a main purpose of the above five-point criteria is to distinguish between women's issues and women's concerns.

In terms of the above criteria, poverty relates to the basic level of welfare, where family income falls below the level necessary to meet basic needs and subsistence. There is nothing in this definition of poverty which necessarily means that poverty is a women's issue. Poverty is, first and foremost, a general concern which affects both men and women. It becomes more of a women's concern where women have the main responsibility of producing the food crop, and where women have the responsibility of ensuring the welfare of children. Poverty becomes a women's issue where food and income is not fairly distributed between men and women, and where women do not receive a fair share of the fruits of their labour.

With the above Criteria as our analytical tool, we are now in a position to take a critical look at any Third World development project, and to analyse the prospects for better attention being paid to the requirements of women's development.

## **Women's issues and the project cycle**

This method here can be used at each stage of the project cycle, to consider typical inadequacies in terms of the Women's Development Criteria. But we shall look only at the inadequacies which seem to be most important, or which point to the current obstacles to women's development.

### **1 Assessing women's needs**

Project formulation ought to begin with an investigation into people's needs, both by considering the needs which are implicit in their situation, and by asking them about their felt needs and priorities. The first and perhaps most important reason why women's issues are overlooked is that no needs assessment is carried out; it is not merely that women's needs are overlooked in a needs assessment, but rather that no needs assessment of any sort takes place.

Typically a project is formulated by a consultant or programme officer who has no detailed or specific information on the situation or particular needs of the affected community, but who identifies project objectives on the basis of knowledge of the overall national situation and development priorities and objectives. Typically, this



background knowledge includes little or no information on the general situation of women in the country, or the main issues which need to be addressed in women's development.

The stage is set for the formulation of a project which overlooks the position of women entirely, and which is likely to have a negative effect on women's development, especially by increasing the burden of labour upon women, whilst allowing project benefits to be controlled by men.

Such a project is well set for failure, since many women will quietly opt out of project activities as they see the extra burdens put upon them, and the lack of benefit to themselves and their children.

The implication of the Women's Development Criteria is that the needs of women in a target group and affected community must be assessed at all five levels: welfare, access, conscientisation, participation and control, with a view to suggesting how the project intervention can make a meaningful contribution to women's development at each of these levels. It is also necessary for the needs assessment to identify priority target groups, such as female heads of household or landless widows, who are more in need of development assistance in terms of the criteria, and who are more at risk if the project intervention does not take account of their special position and needs.

## **2 Women's issues in project identification**

The usual situation is that women's issues are completely overlooked when identifying the project objectives. If the agency responsible for formulating the project is asked why there is nothing concerning women's development in the project document, a typical answer is that 'This project is not concerned with women, it is a forestry project', or simply 'This is not a women's project'.

There is still a common perception amongst development personnel that women's development is confined to separate and special women's projects, and that these separate projects should be concerned with income-generating activities, especially in women's clubs and in the sex-stereotyped activities of knitting, sewing and cooking. However, in terms of the Women's Development Criteria introduced in this paper these 'women's club projects' cannot be seen as a contribution to women's development, but rather as a subtraction from it.

In addition to the levels of women's development according to the Criteria, it can be useful to identify the extent to which the project objectives are concerned with women's development purely in terms of whether women's issues are ignored or recognised. From this point of view it is possible to identify three different levels of recognition of women's issues in project objectives, as shown below:

## **Level of recognition of women's issues**

- i) The Negative Level, where the project objectives make no mention of women's issues. Experience has shown that Third World women are very likely to be left worse off by such a project, in that its effects are negative for women's development.
- ii) The Neutral Level, where the project objectives recognise women's issues, but concern remains at the neutral and conservative level of ensuring that the project intervention does not leave women worse off than before.
- iii) The Positive Level, where the project objectives are positively concerned with women's issues, and with improving the position of women relative to men.

From this categorisation, we may go on to talk of negative or positive projects, according to the overall balance of the project objectives.

Neither the above Levels of Recognition nor the Women's Development Criteria say anything about whether the project target group is women only, men only, or partly women and partly men. Women's development is defined in terms of whether it addresses women's issues, as defined in the Criteria; these issues of equality between women and men must be the concern of both women and men.

It is now possible to produce a project profile which categorises the project objectives in terms of the Levels of Equality, and the Levels of Recognition, using the charts shown in **Handout 48 Chart for the Gender Profile of a project**.

Since the women's development component is typically missing at the stages of needs assessment and project identification, it follows logically and unsurprisingly that there is usually little to be found at the final stage of project formulation — project design.

The main point is that the Criteria interpret women's development as a process of women's increased welfare, income, production and skills. The development project is part of this process, and must remain true to it. Therefore the strategies and methods of implementation must exemplify the process of women's empowerment in such matters as the proportion of women in the team concerned with implementation, the level of gender awareness within the team, the proportion of female members of the target group who are members of the project management committee, equal conditions of employment for men and women, and so on. Conversely, a male dominated and patriarchal style of project administration contains implicit lessons and messages which negate project objectives concerned with women's development.

## **4 Women's issues in project implementation**

For the few projects whose design is seriously concerned with making a contribution to women's development, it is sad to see this concern evaporate at the stage of implementation. One reason can be that the members of the implementing team are themselves not gender aware, and not committed to the process of women's development, and fall easy prey to various forms of bureaucratic resistance. Therefore it is common to hear the excuse that 'we are trying to do things which are against the local custom, and nobody seems interested, so why should we bother?' At the stage of project implementation the most important level of the Criteria is conscientisation — amongst the implementing team!

## **5 Women's issues in project evaluation**

There is a general lack of know-how on how to evaluate a project's contribution towards women's development. This is compounded by the confusion of different methodologies in project evaluation, as well as the domination of the field by cost-benefit analysis — a method which has little relevance to the field of women's development. Cost-benefit analysis is concerned with measuring project outputs, whereas the evaluation of a women's development project must be concerned with assessing whether the social and political processes of empowerment are taking place. The evaluation of women's development must take place at each stage of the project cycle, and the Women's Development Criteria can provide the basis of the evaluation criteria.

Taking as an example the Criteria's concern with participation, the project appraisal must consider the proportion of women amongst those who will be providing project inputs, and amongst those who will be receiving project benefits. It should look at the proposed proportion of women, including especially local and target group women, who will be involved in decision making in project planning, management, implementation, and evaluation.

During the implementation stage it is important to monitor and evaluate progress towards women's participation and empowerment. It is necessary to set actual development against the original objectives and project design, to see if the women of the target group and affected community are participating in project activities and decision-making activities in the numbers and proportion (relative to men) that were originally intended. If the intended participation is achieved, the next thing to monitor is the evidence of women recognising women's issues and interests, mobilising to pursue their interests, influencing the decision making and changing the course of events to achieve increased access to and control over the factors of production.

It is only towards the end of the implementation period that it will be possible to measure project outcomes in terms of whether women's position, relative to men, has

improved in such matters as increased income and welfare, and reduction of the burden of labour. More important, as long-term effects, are women's continued participation in the development process, and their continued collective mobilisation to recognise and address women's issues in development. It is in this sense that any material benefits are secondary: the main purpose of the women's development component of the project should be concerned with enabling and promoting the process of empowerment, so that women can act collectively to improve their own situation and not remain the passive recipients of decisions made by others.

## **Women's issues in a development programme**

Typically the individual development project is part of an overall programme of projects — the so-called Country Programme. Such a programme is guided by overall policies, and has its own priorities and themes. The question here, therefore, is whether women's development is a strong element within the overall theme, or is seen as a side issue.

The Women's Development Criteria provides the potential basis for evaluating a whole programme. For instance, an appraisal of the women's development component within a programme may be done by drawing a Gender Profile Chart for the whole programme which shows the level of concern with women's issues in the objectives of each individual project, as shown in **Handout 49**.

Women's development would become a strong theme at the programme level if there is a programme level commitment to include women's development in all projects to ensure that a range of levels of women's development are addressed in various different projects, and if the programme includes some projects which have a priority interest in addressing particular aspects of women's development.

It is also important for the programme as a whole to take account of the overall situation of women in the Third World country, to take account of the policies on women's development of the Third World country, and to work out feasible starting points for introducing more projects concerned with women's development into the programme.

Such considerations might suggest quite different sorts of projects from anything which arises from attempting to bolster the women's development component in general development projects. For instance, if the low level of gender awareness amongst development planners and implementers is an obstacle to progress, then a women's development project might take the form of providing training workshops for development personnel within the implementing agencies. Similarly, a contribution towards women's development may be made by assisting with the improvement of institutional capacity to plan, implement and evaluate projects concerned with women's development.

However, it may be difficult for individual agencies to tailor a Country Programme around particular development priorities, and a Country Programme is always in danger of being a mere collection of projects without inter-connections or common theme. The building of a balanced and purposeful theme concerned with women's development suggests close collaboration with other development agencies which are operating in the particular Third World country. It is this sort of close collaboration which will enable the local office of the development agency to achieve a better Third World perspective on women's development, and make a more appropriate and meaningful contribution to this area of great need, but small progress.

(Source: This paper by Sarah Hlupelkile Longwe is an edited and slightly abridged version of the paper that was previously published in GADU Newsletter No. 11. A much shortened version appeared in *Changing Perceptions: Writings on Gender and Development*, Oxfam, 1991)



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## **Chart for the Gender Profile of a Project**

For photocopyable tables see reverse

Project title: \_\_\_\_\_

Level of Recognition Levels of Equality	Negative	Neutral	Positive
Control			
Participation			
Conscientisation			
Access			
Welfar			

Project title: \_\_\_\_\_

Level of Recognition Levels of Equality	Negative	Neutral	Positive
Control			
Participation			
Conscientisation			
Access			
Welfar			

Project title: \_\_\_\_\_

Level of Recognition Levels of Equality	Negative	Neutral	Positive
Control			
Participation			
Conscientisation			
Access			
Welfar			

Project title: \_\_\_\_\_

Level of Recognition Levels of Equality	Negative	Neutral	Positive
Control			
Participation			
Conscientisation			
Access			
Welfar			



## Gender Profile for a Country Programme

		Level of Concern with Women's Development				
Sector	Project	Welfare	Access	Consciousness	Participation	Control
Agriculture						
Education and Training						
Commerce and Industry						
Women's Projects						



## **Gender awareness in projects: overview**

### **Objectives**

- 1 To provide an overview of gender issues in project-planning.
- 2 To link project planning and appraisal with work with groups.
- 3 To provide a framework for linking different activities.

### **Method**

- 1 Before the training, read **Handout 50** Ensuring Gender Awareness in the Planning of Projects. Write the main elements on four flipcharts:
  - A. Introduction and entry strategy.
  - B. Improving awareness of gender relations.
  - C. Improving ways of consulting women.
  - D. Improving quality of information for planning.
- 2 Give input based on flipchart A and Handout. *(10 mins)*  
Allow discussion and questions.
- 3 Give input based on flipchart B. *(10 mins)*  
Refer to **Activity 48** (Harvard method)
- 4 Give input based on flipchart C. *(10 mins)*  
Then do, for example, **Activity 82** Finding out about Women.
- 5 Give input based on flipchart D. *(10 mins)*  
Then do **Activities 52** Checklists.(+)
- 6 Summarise and give out **Handout 50**. *(10-20 mins)*

## Materials

**Handout 50** Ensuring Gender Awareness in the Planning of Projects.  
Four flipcharts based on this Handout

### *Facilitator's Notes*

*1 This paper is particularly useful for groups who have some specific knowledge and experience of gender analysis and need a broader overview to link the elements of their knowledge.*

*2 It can be used in the way described, or can be used as an introduction to project appraisal (with groups with some previous knowledge of gender) or as a summary. The Handout can be given out prior to the session for overnight reading, if preferred.*

*3 The timings should be adjusted depending on how you use it.*

## Ensuring gender awareness in the planning of projects

Planning for rural development is too often shaped by a primary focus on the output of the plan at the expense of the process through which the plan is prepared and designed. This process involves people; their perceptions of how they fit into plans can take radically different directions. This fit between beneficiaries' needs, project performance and the role of the NGO (non-governmental organisation) begins with the learning capacity of the agency: how well it copes with mistakes and contingencies, how it uses its experience to strengthen institutional capacity and to what extent it shares the knowledge gained with the community.

The way an NGO approaches and works with the community at the planning — and subsequent — stages is crucial; the importance of the entry strategy cannot be overestimated. This strategy must be based on adequate knowledge, understanding and communication with the community, and women are vital to this process.

### The importance of the entry strategy

A productive relationship between a rural development agency and a community will depend on the agreement reached between them at the planning stage, about the process of change. This will determine the entry strategy to be adopted. Three stages are important:

agreeing with the population on the values and goals which will guide the intervention;

negotiating an agreement on what the population and the agency have to offer each other; that is, how participation is to be organised and the role each will play in achieving the outcomes which are jointly planned;

arriving at a common analysis of the situation so that not just the problems and needs are identified but the reasons for them are jointly understood.

What must be avoided is the imposition of values important to the agency alone. For example, a Western feminist policy may not be easily or desirably transferable; but

a commitment to security of livelihood for the poorest groups may stimulate development for both men and women which may bring about a desired shift in the balance of power between the genders, in favour of women.

Implicit in this approach is the establishment of a partnership in which the agency listens, learns and consults. This is important not just because the poorest groups in a community — particularly women — are easily overlooked, but because every community exists within a wider context. Developing an informed perspective on the links women have to wider environmental, political and socio-economic systems implies the agency's willingness, and ability, to appraise both women's practical and strategic interests.

However, identifying both women's practical and strategic interests must be a process which is sensitive to the community, and to the capacity of that community to work with the agency's different cultural perspective on relations between men and women, and vice versa.

Any jointly-negotiated and agreed plan of action which details what it is possible to achieve for the benefit of women, should contain the ingredients for policy, project design, and implementation. Moser and Levy (1986) identify two factors which are very important for a gender-conscious entry strategy: the first is an informed judgement about which practical and strategic needs can be met in the socio-economic and political conditions of a particular place and time. The second is an assessment of the extent to which women have access to local institutions and whether these institutions can be used to meet some or all of the particular practical and strategic needs.

*There are three approaches which an agency might consider in order to develop this informed judgement and accurate assessment. These are to improve its understanding of how gender relations work within the community; to improve its ways of consulting women; and to improve the quality of information used for planning purposes.*

## **Improving awareness of gender relations**

Understanding the relative access to and control over resources and benefits has to include an awareness of the differential access to power which is integral to the division of labour by gender. In conventional project appraisal the unit of analysis is the household, represented for purposes of estimating costs and benefits by assumptions about the behaviour of a male head of household. But it is a major misconception in project planning to see the household as a homogenous decision-making unit; this is clearly not the case in many rural societies where different members have separate productive and entrepreneurial roles and there are competing, unequal and often conflicting claims on resources and outputs for the satisfaction of basic needs.

There is an argument for an increased understanding of gender relations within a household structure, in order to prevent a distortion of the entry strategy. There is a danger of being swamped by diversity and of looking at increasingly complex social relations without testing their impact on what happens outside the household. For example, women may have to get men's permission to work co-operatively with other women in an all-female organisation or they may want to receive men's sanction on their separate activities; this will not necessarily mean that the decision making is male-dominated. At the same time, male control of financial gains from a women's group may be detrimental to the group's autonomy and growth and may also undermine individual women's decision-making power in the household.

How is it possible to arrive at an understanding of gender relations within a rural household? A key principle is to consult both men and women, most simply by documenting their different activities, resources and responsibilities which can then be compared. Indicators of how, for example, women and men experience changes to the environment, seasonality, access to preferred technologies, large family size, increasing costs of inputs for production, and an agency's style of intervention, can contribute to a body of qualitative information about women's activities, the resources they command, and the responsibilities they manage. What has to be avoided is placing an exclusion zone around a target group of women, both during and after the planning phase, simply in order to reinforce their target-group status.

## **Improving ways of consulting women**

Women are not a homogenous social group and their needs will differ according to their relative ages as well as their different activities, resources and responsibilities. A needs assessment should therefore take into account this social and personal heterogeneity. Women may well need support in defining their needs, and various techniques have been employed to facilitate this process: documenting and sharing life histories; stimulating discussion around a series of photographs of the women themselves and other women; using a situational analysis or other data collection tools to highlight inequalities in the gender allocation of tasks. This is also a learning process for the agency.

It is important that the context and style of discussion should be accessible to women for whom speaking out may be an unfamiliar event; the location, materials used, the size and membership of the group may all be significant. A group action may require organisational skills. Providing women with enabling skills for group management or supporting existing organisations that women use may be a vital investment in the development process even before the entry strategy is agreed.

As Moser and Levy say, consultation on issues that perpetuate gender inequality, and the active participation of women in the planning process is desirable not only as a means of achieving development objectives, but as an end in itself. At the same time,

women's expression of their situation and their demands for the fulfilment of certain practical interests may well provide a more accurate appraisal of what assistance would be appropriate than blueprinted objectives developed by outsiders based on strategic interests. How the meeting of practical needs is linked to longer-term strategic needs must be decided as a result of frequent consultation and monitoring with the women concerned, and then a testing of solutions within the community.

## **Improving the quality of information for planning**

A balance has to be struck between spending time on diagnosing gender inequalities and formulating proposals. Participative techniques can provide the means for the community and the agency to learn about each other's values and criteria. Testing this data in an interactive way is part of the process of building up a body of planning and monitoring information. The employment of Rapid Rural Appraisal techniques in a range of situation is beginning to show the importance of using a portfolio of methods. Three of these techniques are as follows:

### **i Direct matrix ranking and preference ranking:**

In situations where women hold particular indigenous skills and knowledge, it is important to understand the criteria leading to their decisions and preferences regarding productive or organisational practices. Ranking methodologies have been used with some success to identify local knowledge. Direct matrix ranking involves the respondent(s) listing criteria which are important to them when considering the value of a resource or when considering why one type of the resource is preferred to another. Scores are allocated to each criteria for each resource type and a matrix is constructed which can pinpoint the preferred type as well as indicating why one type, for example, a high yielding variety (HYV) or a traditional variety of the same crop, is not preferred for that particular locality. The ranking of preferences can be conducted between two types of an item or between several types, thus building up a scoring matrix of ranked preferences. Two characteristics of the method seem potentially important:

The quality of discussion required to arrive at a consensus within the group on the criteria to be ranked and then scored is a valuable learning process for all concerned, and yet one that is conducted under the control of the group.

The criteria chosen by the group are often indicators of links in the system of resource management and decision making, which might not otherwise appear. Once these links are known they can be a further reinforcement of a shared analysis.

### **ii Situational analysis and food paths:**

Gathering data through group interviews is a method requiring training and



practice. A methodology which focuses on the stages and sequences of an activity can facilitate the process of acquiring gender sensitive data in a group interview. The situational analysis builds up a diagrammatic representation of a sequence of activities by focusing on the situation (e.g. introducing contour ploughing or allocating irrigation water). Each stage of the sequence can be examined and discussed to highlight the gender allocation of labour, resources and responsibilities. Using this technique for a 'food path', focusing on one crop, tracing the production of food from the purchasing and planting of the seed to the sale or preparation of the food, enables further layers to be added, such as hours spent, technology used, and seasonal variations identified, throughout an interactive process of discussion.

### **iii Checklists**

Although checklists have become established as gender-conscious tools for planning a project, the checklist can become a barrier to effective interaction between agency and community unless, like any tool, it is frequently refined and sharpened in the context in which it is used. Our understanding of this context is, after all, only the first step in the process through which women may come to realise the benefits from jointly planned interventions.

## **Conclusion**

The importance of fitting projects to the real needs of a community cannot be over-emphasised; and to achieve this it is essential for agencies to discuss and negotiate fully with the community. In order to ensure that women are an integral part of the process it is important to improve gender awareness among all the participants, to find ways of communicating with the women directly, and to base planning on the best level of information possible.

(Source: Adapted from 'Ensuring Gender Awareness in the Planning of Projects' by Miranda Munro, in *Changing Perceptions*, ed. Wallace and March, Oxfam 1991.)



## Mapping for Mars

### Objectives

- 1 To enable participants to experience for themselves the variety of perspectives on an issue.
- 2 To enable participants to recognise the importance of acknowledging and encouraging expression of the diversity of perspectives, particularly in relation to gender.

### Method

- 1 Explain to the group that you are a development worker from Mars. Tell them that you are developing their country or region this month, and you are trying to understand the issues that are important to them.
- 2 Divide the group up into groups of about five according to gender and geographical origin, or other criteria which will ensure that the members of each small group have strong characteristics in common.
- 3 Ask each group to use flipchart papers and marker pens to draw a big map of the *same* and with the same title. For instance, you could ask them all to draw the same village, town, country, or continent. Explain that each group is to draw on their own map 5-10 issues of particular importance to their group. Ask them to use no writing as you do not read earthscript, and use symbols and drawings only
- 4 Go around to each group as they are working on the maps, and point out:
  - a. The importance of drawing on the ground, where all can see clearly;
  - b. The importance of the use of symbols, not words, so as to include everyone, whether literate or not;
  - c. The importance of letting the people in the community do the discussion and analysis, while the development worker observes;
  - d. The opportunity this gives the development worker to observe group dynamics, including leadership, disputes, those excluded, etc.

- e. The opportunity it gives the development worker to listen to people's process of analysis. (50 mins)
- 5 Bring the groups together again, and put the maps up on the wall, or leave them on the floor if there is space. Ask one member of each group to present their map to the whole group, explaining what the symbols mean and what information is on the map.
  - 6 Then ask the group to decide which map is the best. Explain that you will take the best one back to your head office on Mars. If the group cannot decide, choose the map of the most vocal group.
  - 7 Then ask those whose maps were not chosen how they felt about their maps being left out. Point out that there are more people in the room whose ideas are not represented, than there are those whose ideas are represented on the chosen map.
  - 8 Allow a discussion to develop about finding a solution to the problem. (40 mins)

## Materials

Flipchart, pens

### *Facilitator's Notes*

*1 Emphasise throughout that the quality of the drawing is not important: it is what is portrayed that is significant. Once symbols are explained to us we can all remember and understand them.*

*2 Often a woman's map will include an issue which is of importance to women, but which will not even appear on men's maps: and vice versa. It is important in this activity to keep emphasising that we learn more from several separately collected perspectives than we would from one general meeting where the dominant view would prevail.*

*3 When this activity was tried out in Zimbabwe, the maps drawn were all very different. One map emphasised literacy, one AIDS, another environmental problems. When the trainer suggested taking one back to Mars, the group discussed this and asked her to take all the maps, to ensure that all perspectives would be taken into account. Each one had its own story to tell and, like pieces of a jigsaw, filled in a fuller picture of Africa. It was concluded that there was **no best map**.*

*(Source: Alice Welbourn)*

## Bangladesh maps

### Objectives

- 1 To enable participants to test their own assumptions about other societies.
- 2 To use maps drawn by people of a village or community to give participants an example of the different perceptions and priorities of different people.

### Method

- 1 Explain the objectives of the session. Then ask participants to break into small groups of four or six, and give each participant a copy of the three maps on **Handout 51**.
- 2 Tell participants that one map was drawn by women, another by old men, and another by young men, but do not reveal which was drawn by which people. Ask the small groups to try to work out which map was drawn by whom, and give their reasons.

(10 mins)
- 3 Next, ask each group to present its conclusions. Then tell them the story of the village, as it was told by the people drawing the maps.

*The villagers are squatters on the banks of the Jamuna river. Old men, young men and women respectively were asked to draw a map of their village.*

*The old men, through their map, told the story of their ancestral land, which now lay under the flooded river. They said 'we must stay squatting here, so that we can reclaim that land, once the flood has receded'. The Law states that villagers must continue to pay tax on the land, otherwise it reverts to the Government. How could they make sure that they could stay?*

*The women gave most detail of the immediate settlement, stating that 'we need to*

*earn money here, but can't move from our settlement because we are women. What do you suggest?' What work could they do?*

*The young men emphasised the road and the railway, which links them to the far-away places where they seek migrant labour. They get sizeable advance loans, which then must be repaid with interest. They spend about eight months of the year away. How could they find work nearer home?*

4 Tell the group which map was drawn by which people, and lead a short discussion, bringing out the importance of finding out about people's different concerns and priorities. Draw out especially the gender issues, related to women's mobility, opportunities for income-earning etc. in contrast with men's. Draw out how incomplete a picture would have been obtained if only one map had been used to assess possible interventions to help the villagers. *Emphasise that there is no best map.* (See Activity 52 Mapping for Mars.)

*(15 - 20 mins)*

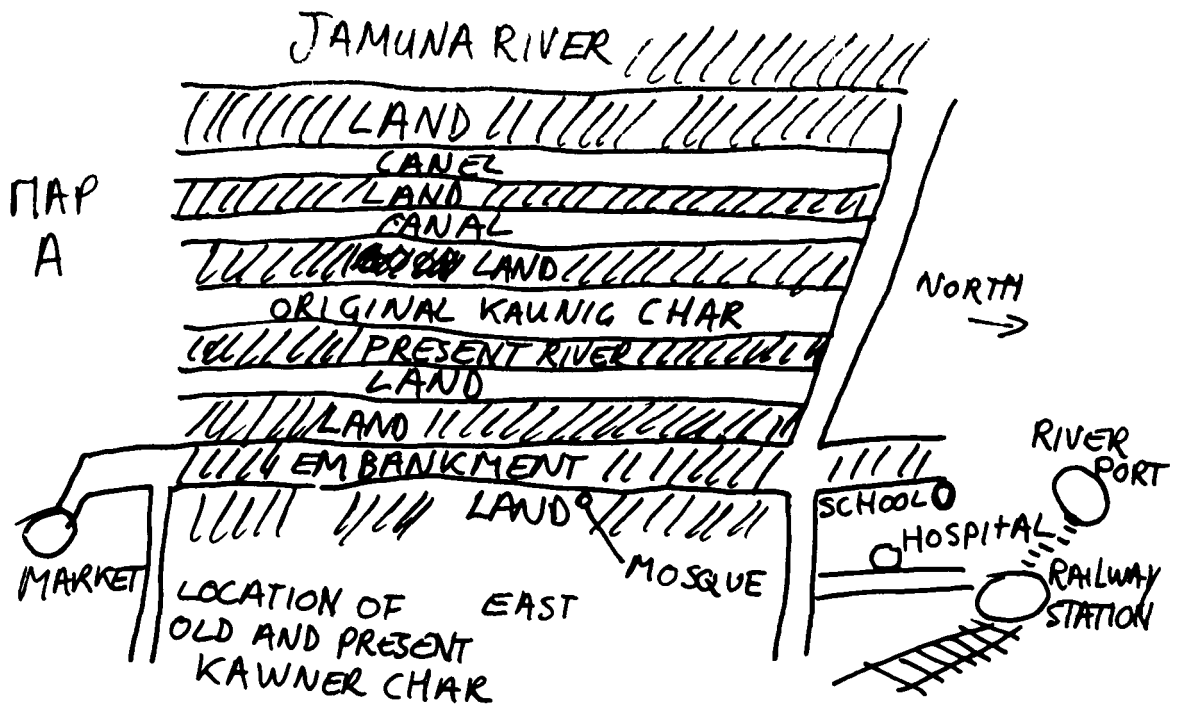
### ***Facilitator's Notes***

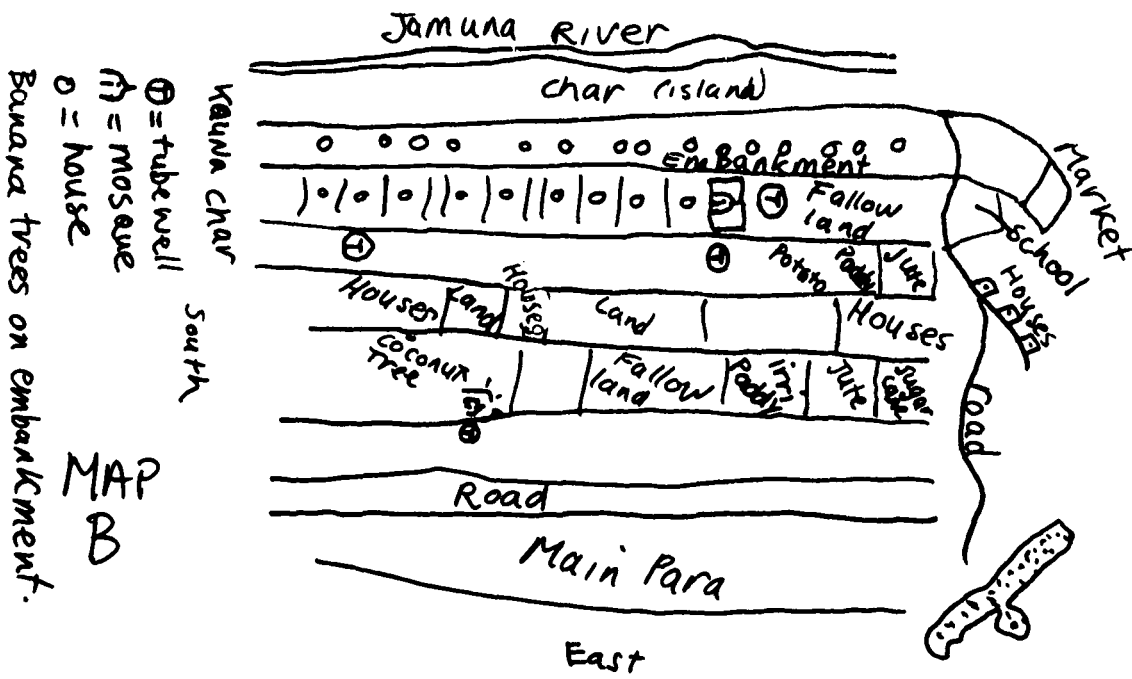
*1 Map A was drawn by the old men; Map B was drawn by the women, and Map C was drawn by the young men. Let the participants work out who drew them and why they think that. They rarely get it all right!*

*2 You may use your own maps, if you have suitable ones available.*

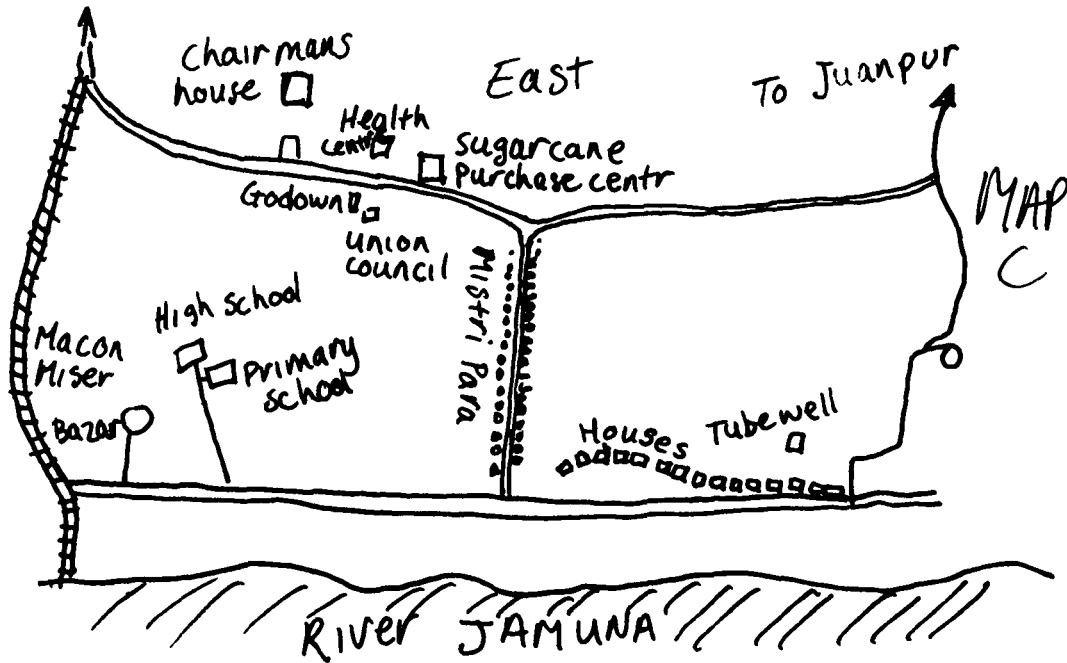
*(Source: Alice Welbourn/ActionAid Bangladesh.)*

# Bangladesh maps





MAP B





## Checklists

### Objectives

- 1 To introduce a variety of checklists, their uses and limitations.
- 2 To enable participants to write or adapt a checklist for their own use.

### Method

- 1 Divide the group into small groups, and give out two or three of the checklists from **Handouts 52 to 56**.  
(5 mins)
- 2 Ask each group to discuss the uses and limitations of these checklists.  
(20-30 mins)
- 3 Ask each group to design a new checklist based on their own needs, using ideas from the checklists and any other methods taught.  
(30 mins)  
(alternative 2 hrs +)

### Materials

At least two or three handouts from **Handouts 52 -56** for each participant.

## ***Facilitator's Notes***

*1 This activity can be used either as a short introduction to checklists, or as a much longer exercise where the aim is to write a checklist which the team will actually use in practice.*

*2 If the aim is to write a 'real' checklist, the small groups should be teams of people who work together, and the people should have the power to be able to use it.*

*3 Checklists are always both too short (in that it is impossible to ask every relevant question), and too long (in that they take a long time to fill out, and there is a danger that they will not be used).*

*4 A checklist is most effective when used by the people who have been involved in drawing it up, and who thus understand the concepts and rationale behind it. It then serves as a reminder in the training process, rather than an outside imposition.*

*5 As an additional exercise, an existing or new checklist can then be tested out using a case study.*

*6 The Harvard Method checklist is presented here as **Handout 52**. You can use this in conjunction with the Harvard Analytical Framework in **Activity 48***

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## Harvard method: checklist

The following sets of questions are the key ones for each of the four main stages in the project cycle: identification, design, implementation, evaluation.

### Women's dimension in project identification

#### Assessing women's needs

- 1 What needs and opportunities exist for increasing women's productivity and/or production?
- 2 What needs and opportunities exist for increasing women's access to and control of resources?
- 3 What needs and opportunities exist for increasing women's access to and control of benefits?
- 4 How do these needs and opportunities relate to the country's other general and sectoral development needs and opportunities?
- 5 Have women been directly consulted in identifying such needs and opportunities?

#### Defining general project objectives

- 1 Are project objectives explicitly related to women's needs?
- 2 Do these objective adequately reflect women's needs?
- 3 Have women participated in setting those objectives?
- 4 Have there been any earlier efforts?
- 5 How has the present proposal built on earlier activity?

#### Identifying possible negative effects

- 1 Might the project reduce women's access to or control of resources and benefits?
- 2 Might it adversely affect women's situation in some other way?
- 3 What will be the effects on women in the short and longer term?

## **Women's dimension in project design**

### **Project impact on women's activities**

- 1 Which of these activities (production, reproduction and maintenance, socio-political) does the project affect?
- 2 Is the planned component consistent with the current gender denomination for the activity?
- 3 If it is planned to change the women's performance of that activity, (ie locus of activity, remunerative mode, technology, mode of activity) is this feasible, and what positive or negative effects would there be on women?
- 4 If it does not change it, is this a missed opportunity for women's roles in the development process?
- 5 How can the project design be adjusted to increase the above-mentioned positive effects, and reduce or eliminate the negative ones?

### **Project impact on women's access and control**

- 1 How will each of the project components affect women's access to and control of the resources and benefits engaged in and stemming from the production of goods and services?
- 2 How will each of the project components affect women's access to and control of the resources and benefits engaged in and stemming from the reproduction and maintenance of the human resources?
- 3 How will each of the project components affect women's access to and control of the resources and benefits engaged in and stemming from the socio-political functions?
- 4 What forces have been set into motion to induce further exploration of constraints and possible improvements?
- 5 How can the project design be adjusted to increase women's access to and control of resources and benefits?

## **Women's dimension in project implementation**

- 1 Are project personnel sufficiently aware of and sympathetic towards women's needs?
- 2 Are women used to deliver the goods or services to women beneficiaries?
- 3 Do personnel have the necessary skills to provide any special inputs required by women?
- 4 What training techniques will be used to develop delivery systems?
- 5 Are there appropriate opportunities for women to participate in project management positions?

## **Organisational structures**

- 1 Does the organisational form enhance women's access to resources?
- 2 Does the organisation have adequate power to obtain resources needed by women from other organisations?
- 3 Does the organisation have the institutional capability to support and protect women during the change process?

## **Operations and logistics**

- 1 Are the organisation's delivery channels accessible to women in terms of personnel, location and timing?
- 2 Do control procedures exist to ensure dependable delivery of the goods and services?
- 3 Are there mechanisms to ensure that the project resources or benefits are not usurped by males?

## **Finances**

- 1 Do funding mechanisms exist to ensure programme continuity?
- 2 Are funding levels adequate for proposed tasks?
- 3 Is preferential access to resources by males avoided?
- 4 Is it possible to trace funds for women from allocation to delivery with a fair degree of accuracy?

## **Flexibility**

- 1 Does the project have a management information system which will allow it to detect the effects of the operation on women?
- 2 Does the organisation have enough flexibility to adapt its structures and operations to meet the changing or new-found situations of women?

## **Women's dimension in project evaluation**

### **Data requirements**

- 1 Does the project's monitoring and evaluation system explicitly measure the project's effects on women?
- 2 Does it also collect data to update the Activity Analysis and the Women's Access and Control Analysis?
- 3 Are women involved in designating the data requirements?

## **Data collection and analysis**

- 1 Are the data collected with sufficient frequency so that necessary project adjustments could be made during the project?
- 2 Are the data fed back to project personnel and beneficiaries in an understandable form and on a timely basis to allow project adjustments?
- 3 Are women involved in the collection and interpretation of data?
- 4 Are data analysed so as to provide guidance to the design of other projects?
- 5 Are key areas of WID research identified?

(Source: *Gender Roles in Development Projects* edited by Overholt, Anderson, Cloud and Austin. Kumarian Press Inc, Connecticut, 1985.)

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## Checklist for disaster relief

While there has been increasing understanding that gender planning is a vital component of development programmes, it has been less widely recognised that gender awareness is also central to effective planning and implementation of relief and emergency programmes. The need for rapid response and short-term specialist inputs has often meant that relief programmes are conceived and implemented in a top-down manner.

Complex logistics requiring co-ordination with a wide range of governmental and non-governmental organisations, political sensitivities, and the very large numbers of people often involved are also factors which affect organisational responses to emergencies.

In practice, the approach whereby speed of delivery is a priority, has often precluded proper discussion with the affected people, overlooked gender considerations, and resulted in an inappropriate and therefore ineffective response.

Women, especially, lack access to discussions about their needs, and are rarely involved in planning or policy making. Yet the majority of those affected by emergencies, for example refugees or displaced, are likely to be women and children.

It is therefore essential to understand the gender dimensions of an emergency and to find ways of working with women and involving them at all stages in the response.

### Data collection

1. Gather information from women and men separately.
2. Involve women in data collection, in survey teams etc.
3. Disaggregate data by sex and age — this may reveal a high proportion of women-maintained households, or groups of unaccompanied children.

## Basic gender needs

Gather information from women about their concerns:

**Water:** siting and maintenance, distribution mechanisms, methods and times of collection, containers and storage facilities; cultural practices in water use; washing/bathing sanitation facilities;

**Food:** involve women in targeting, monitoring and distribution of food rations, allocation at household level, needs of vulnerable groups. Will processing/cooking of food give women more/less work? Is fuel easily available?

**Shelter:** consult women about siting and design, bear in mind women's needs for security, privacy, safe access to facilities eg washing/bathing/sanitation. Camp design should take account of women's vulnerability to sexual harassment.

**Health:** involve women as health workers, consult women directly about health needs and to identify target groups eg for nutrition, health care and support; rape is a tool of war and women survivors will need medical help, moral support and a safe environment.

## Empowerment and disempowerment: changing roles and responsibilities

Refugees and displaced people are experiencing change which will also have an impact on gender relations. Women and children are among the most vulnerable in most communities. In an emergency situation their vulnerability will be increased but there may be new opportunities. Relief programmes must be designed in such a way as to reduce vulnerability and strengthen the capacity of both women and men to cope. It will be useful to remember that *women may be further disempowered:*

if they are deprived of their customary authority over the management of water and food (eg men control access/distribution);

in the home (often culturally their place of authority) if shelter is inadequate, inappropriately designed, increases their vulnerability to harassment and violence;

in their community leadership roles. These are often less formal and therefore less visible than those of the men, and outsiders such as camp authorities/agency workers may overlook/bypass women's community groups through lack of awareness and thus reduce women's authority.

*Women may be empowered:*



if they are treated with respect, and their needs, views, skills and experience are regarded as important;

by being consulted directly about their needs;

by being involved in programme design and implementation;

by having positions of authority in their traditional sphere e.g. in food distribution mechanisms, health care services;

by also receiving support, encouragement and skills training for the new roles they have taken on in the new situation.

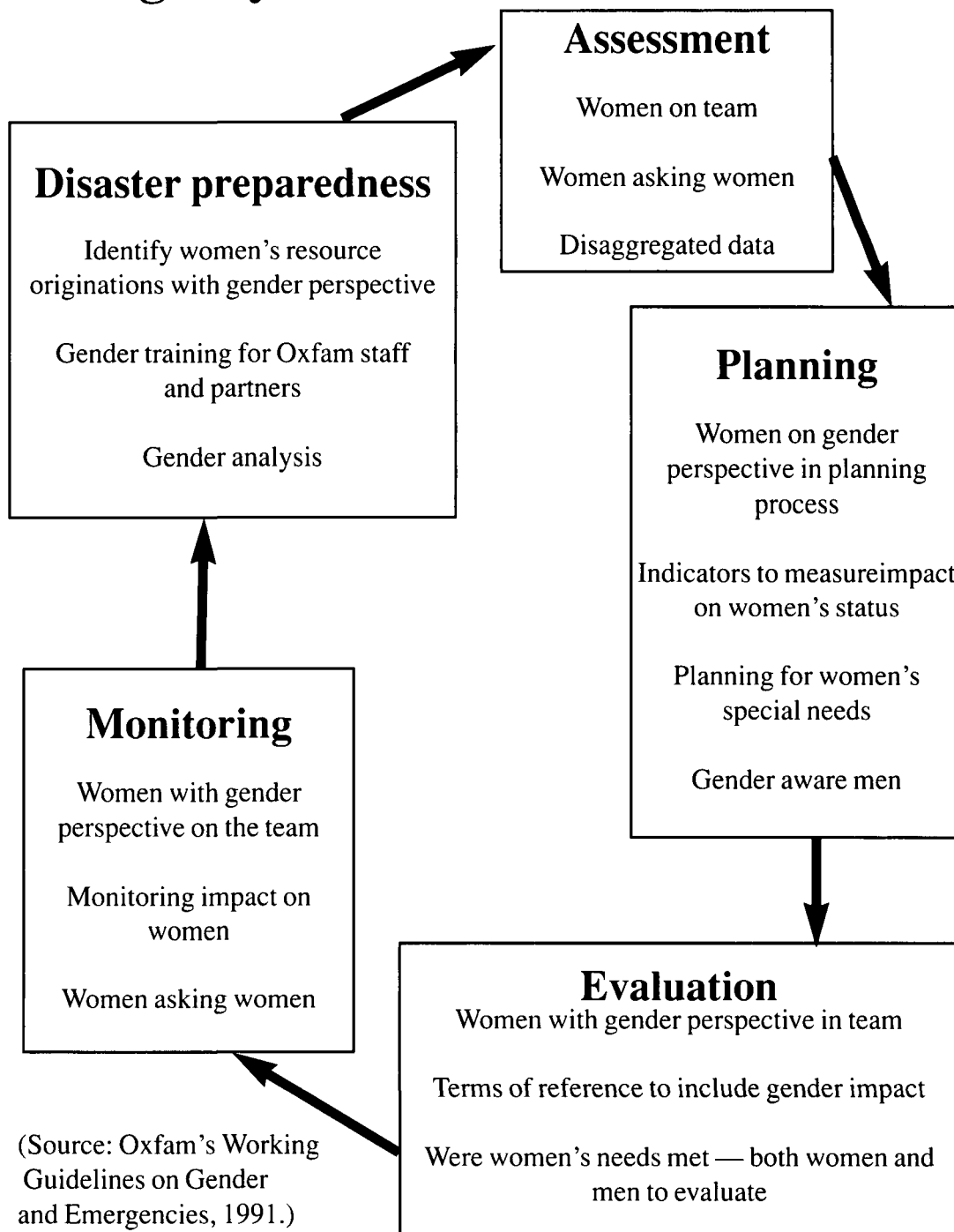
## **Conclusion**

The above suggestions are not exhaustive but are intended as guidelines for the development of gender-sensitive programming in emergency situations. Although situations will differ depending on context it is crucial for the success of emergency and relief programmes that gender issues be raised, included, and monitored at all stages in the response.

(Source: Adapted from Oxfam's *Working Guidelines on Gender and Emergencies*, adopted in 1991.)



# Integrating a gender perspective into emergency work





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## **Checklist for development projects: if integration of women in development is an objective**

### **Project objectives**

- 1 What are the objectives of the project?
- 2 Are women specifically mentioned as either agents or beneficiaries?
- 3 What, if any, are stated benefits for women? eg:  
acquisition of skills  
increased productivity  
opportunity to earn cash income, etc
- 4 What assumptions are made in believing that project inputs will lead to these benefits?
- 5 If women are not specifically mentioned as participants, would their actions be relevant to the objectives of the project? Would a component for women be a useful addition to the project?

### **Availability of basic information**

- 1 What socio-economic information is already available which is relevant to the target group in general and women in particular?
- 2 Is information on economic arrangements at household level, including role of women, adequate for purposes of project:  
structure and size of households, and developmental cycle  
division by sex/age of labour, decision making, rights to land control over saleable products, sources of cash incomes, including off-farm activities, of household members; seasonality of labour demands.

- 3 If more information is essential, what arrangements are being made to obtain it?
- 4 If consultants are assisting with feasibility studies, have they been briefed to consider situation and contribution of women, as appropriate?

## **Project design and preparation**

- 1 Has there been consultation with people whose lives will be affected by the project, and what attention has been given to women in this?
- 2 Are women involved at any level in the professional planning and implementation of this project?
- 3 Are women to be given access to the new opportunities and services which the project provides? (local training and overseas fellowships; agricultural extension; new allocation of land rights; credit arrangements; membership of cooperatives; employment during either constructional or operational phase)
- 4 If not, what are the reasons?
- 5 Are resources adequate to provide these services for women? Are women extension staff available in sufficient numbers if approached by male staff is not culturally acceptable?
- 6 If project is likely to have adverse effects for women (see below) what actions are planned to counterbalance this?

## **Anticipated impact**

- 1 How will project affect women's access to economic assets and cash incomes? (access to land; opportunity for paid employment or other income-earning activity; assistance with economic activities from other members of household; control over sale of product) Are there gains expected other than those stated in Objectives (see above)?
- 2 How will project affect women's allocation of time?  
Will their workload increase/decrease as a result of innovation or changes? (mechanisation; new agricultural inputs and cropping patterns; withdrawals of labour by other household members; agricultural advice, nutritional or health teaching, if implemented; changes in distance to farms, workplaces, water supply, firewood supply) If workload is decreased, does this involve loss of income for women?
- 3 How will project affect subsistence within the target group, and women's control

over food supplies for household?

Will promotion of commercial agriculture affect availability of land for food grown mainly for family use; women's access to land; labour inputs (male and female) on food crops?

Will any sources of food be removed or decreased?

Will women be increasingly dependent on partner's cash income for household food and necessities? If so, will this income be sufficient to make good subsistence losses? How subject is it to fluctuations according to world market, climatic conditions? Can it be assumed that male income will 'trickle down' sufficiently to meet basic household needs?

Will there be a change in staple diet? Will this be acceptable? Will it involve increased time in preparation?

Will changes in labour allocation alter nutritional needs of any members of household? Are subsistence resources or increased cash incomes sufficient to meet them? If not, what are probable consequences for women and children, especially if unequal food distribution patterns are customary?

4 Is the project likely to have any adverse consequences for women within groups and categories not immediately affected?

## Evaluation

- 1 Is provision being made to monitor and evaluate the impact of the project on women?
- 2 Will available baseline data be adequate for this purpose?
- 3 What factual indicators would be relevant

(Source: *Women and Development: Guidelines for Programme and Project Planning*, Caroline Pezzullo, consultant to CEPAL, 1982)





## Women's status criteria

A woman's development project may be counted as improving the status of women to the extent that progress may be seen in the following indicators:

**Basic needs:** better provision for women of such basic needs as food, water fuel, housing and health care; proportional distribution of basic needs between men and women.

**Leadership roles:** proportion of women to men in leadership roles in the community; involvement of women as women's leaders on women's issues.

**Consciousness:** awareness amongst women of women's needs and women's issues; awareness of discrimination against women; ability to analyse issues in terms of women's interests and women's rights.

**Needs assessment:** involvement of women in identifying the priority needs of the community, and in identifying the special needs of women.

**Planning:** involvement of women in project design, implementation and evaluation.

**Sexual division of labour:** involvement of women in tasks traditionally performed by men; level of involvement of men in tasks traditionally performed by women; number of hours per day worked by the average working woman, in comparison to the number worked by the average working man.

**Control over the factors of production:** women's access to, and control over, land, credit, distribution of income and accumulation of capital.

The order in which these indicators are presented is not intended to imply an order of priority, nor a sequence of what should come first and what should come later. It is merely suggested that a successful project should be making progress across several of these indicators, and that a successful programme should include projects which seek to improve women's status across the full range of these indicators.

(Source: Zambia Association for Research and Development (ZARD) workshop).



## Design a project

### Objectives

- 1 To design a project which aims to empower women.
- 2 To consider the processes which would need to be used to ensure women's participation and empowerment.

### Method

- 1 Ask participants to divide into small groups (three to six people), preferably from different work teams). Remind them of the empowerment exercise (**Activity 41**). Ask them to design a project with the above objectives, and to list on flipchart the main features of the project and the processes used. They should choose one person to report back.

*(30-45 mins)*

- 2 In the large group, each small group reporter puts up their flipchart and presents the project and the process, and invites questions.

*(5-10 mins per group)*

- 3 Lead a group discussion on the following questions:
  - a. How do these projects actually empower women?
  - b. Are the same criteria being used to define empowerment in a project as in our own lives?
  - c. Does participation mean increased work-load?

*(20-30 mins)*

### Materials

Flipchart, marker pens

## ***Facilitator's Notes***

*1 Empowerment has become a fashionable word among official and non-governmental development agencies, but it is very difficult to define and to realise. It is much easier to criticise existing projects than to design a new one.*

*2 When this exercise was done with one group, the examples given of what empowerment was for themselves (in **Activity 43**) were different from the ideas for 'empowering' projects, which tended to use ideas from existing projects. There was a long discussion about whether, for example, a new type of stove could be empowering. In the end it was said that adequate income and food might be necessary prerequisites of empowerment, rather than being empowering in themselves.*

*3 It needs to be acknowledged that a project that was really empowering would not be designed by people outside the situation.*

*4 This also raises the question as to what extent it is possible for women or any other powerless group to be empowered before coming up against forces of opposition whether at local, national or international level.*

*5 This activity could immediately follow **Activity 43** on Empowerment and Participation.*

## Using case studies

### Objectives

- 1 To enable participants to analyse a project or situation from a gender perspective.
- 2 To help participants to think of ways to change the situation where gender issues have not been addressed.

### Method

- 1 Give participants the case study and allow them to read it on their own, or read it aloud to the group.  
*(15 mins)*
- 2 Divide the participants into small groups to discuss the case study and answer the questions. One person should be chosen to report back from each group.  
*(15-25 mins)*
- 3 Ask the small groups to report back, writing their answers on newsprint. Take one idea from each group at a time. Add any remaining answers yourself after all groups have finished.  
*(30 mins)*
- 4 In the large group, lead a discussion on:
  - a. How easy or difficult was the activity?
  - b. Has anyone known of similar situations?
  - c. Did you have sufficient information to answer the questions?
  - d. Key learning points from this activity.*(30 mins)*

### Materials

Handouts 57, 58 and 59. Flipchart, pens

## **Facilitator's Notes**

*1 Case studies, like any other method, can be used for different purposes. Work out what your objectives are, and then choose a case study and questions that meet those objectives. In some cases you may need to write additional questions — but do not have too many.*

*2 Make sure that the case study is relevant and comprehensible to your group. All facilitators should have read the case study and answered the questions as part of the preparation for the training. At this stage required timings should be calculated.*

*3 Be aware of differences and difficulties in reading ability and language comprehension, particularly where people are reading in a language that is not their first. It may be better to read the case study aloud, if it is not too long. It is important that some people in a small group do not start answering the questions while others are still reading the case study.*

*4 The timings on this activity are approximate, and will vary according to the length and complexity of the case study, and the depth and range of the questions.*

*5 You may need to adapt or re-write case studies to make them culturally relevant. Where possible, use case studies that match the experience of the group. People should be able to recognise the situations described in the case study.*

*6 If you decide to write your own case study, make sure that it illustrates a real issue, which you have heard people describe and which will generate discussion.*

*7 Include clues to the key issues, but don't spell out all the answers.*

*8 If you write case studies, as with any exercise, be very clear in your objectives, test out the exercise on colleagues or co-fieldworkers first, and re-write. See **Handout 59** Designing case studies.*

*9 If the nature of your workshop requires preparation of reports on situations, programmes or projects from participants, it would be useful to send participants the **Handout 59** on preparing case studies, and the Timeline **Handout 75**, to assist them in preparing their information.*

*10 The Mozambique case study is a fairly typical report on a refugee situation. Often such reports have major gaps in information, and do not provide you with what you need to assess a situation and plan interventions. Frequently this is precisely because gender-sensitive data collection methods have not been used.*

*11 This case study has been used as the basis for a full day's training — the case study was presented, and Question 1 discussed in small groups. The groups reconvened to share ideas. They repeated the process with Questions 2 and 3. Question 4 was only tackled at the end of the day, after a number of sessions on assessment and appraisal, and planning interventions.*

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## Case study: Ngwee nutrition group and the co-operative

The women of Ngwee were very worried about malnutrition in their area. It seemed that more and more of their children were weak and sick and many died from simple causes such as diarrhoea. Others had symptoms of kwashiorkor or marasmus.

Then they heard that the church was giving free milk to nutrition clubs, so they decided to form a group. Twice a week they met at the church to receive and distribute the milk. This helped them a little bit, but it was not enough to solve the problems. When they met, the women started discussing what else they could do to improve the situation. In that area, there is a Development Committee which is made up of representatives of all the various development projects in the area including church groups. The Development Committee is responsible for all the projects, including obtaining funding from international donor agencies.

When one of the women from Ngwee Nutrition Group spoke to someone from the Development Committee about their problems, he told them about a nutrition club in town which could teach them new recipes and help them to start vegetable gardens. Before long, the women had managed to contact the nutrition club, who sent someone to teach them how to make buns and fritters, and to explain that for a good balanced diet you need energy-giving foods such as starch and fats, vitamins, and body-building proteins.

Unfortunately the group was unable to follow the recipes, due to shortages of cooking oil and the high price of flour. They understood about a balanced diet, but this could not help them buy meat, chicken or even fish, which few people in Ngwee could now afford. Groundnuts had also been suggested as a good food, but they did not grow groundnuts any more. The land on which they previously grew groundnuts is now used to grow cotton and tobacco.

The vegetable gardens were also a failure due to lack of water. The nearest stream was 2km away and the women had no time to go and fetch water for the garden. Many of the women would spend long hours buying vegetables from a local farmer and then travelling to market to try and resell them for a small profit. At other times

of the year they were too busy in the fields even to do this.

Also in Ngwee was a co-operative, started by some people trying to earn an income by working together. First of all, they dug a fish pond, near the stream. This project was going well and they managed to sell a lot of fish in town. Now they wanted to start rearing small livestock — chickens or ducks.

Some of these co-operative members were men who had wives in the nutrition group. But the men themselves never attended the meeting and knew nothing about nutrition.

Of the profit from selling fish, some men gave a little money to their wives, and some of the money was saved towards the new project for small livestock. The rest they spent on trips into town, and beer.

Whenever the men were at home, they expected their wives to prepare a proper meal for them — even if there was not much food and the rest of the family were sometimes left out. It seemed to the men that many of their children got ill and died and they wondered if their wives learnt anything at all in their nutrition group!

### **Discussion questions**

- 1 What are the gender issues here? (Strategic and practical gender needs, issues related to access and control.)
- 2 How would you raise them with the partners (development committee) or groups?
- 3 How could the situation be improved?

(Source: adapted from Zambia Nutrition Group training)



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## **Case study: Mozambican refugees in Eastern Transvaal, South Africa, update report (1989)**

In two separate districts Mhala and Nkomazi the figure for registered refugees is now about 33,000. In the last three months new refugees arriving at between 1,600 and 2,400 a month, as a result of intensified conflict in Southern Mozambique. Approximate breakdown of registered refugees is 62 per cent children, 30 per cent women.

### **Reception arrangements**

New arrivals come to one of three reception points to register. Most have walked for over a week with little food en route. Many come direct from scene of conflict. Most have witnessed or suffered violence — high incidence of reports of rape. Families often split in transit. Reception camps have health workers (MSF doctor in Nkomazi, nurses from Tinstwalo hospital in Mhala) and relief-committee worker, with other assistants. New arrivals screened for malaria, children immunised. Given blankets and minimal set cooking utensils and (ICRC) food to take them up to first distribution date. In Mhala can stay at reception area for several days. In Nkomazi have to find other shelter immediately.

### **Settlement**

About 70 per cent of refugees live in separate all-Mozambican settlements, close to local communities. Shelter is self-built huts — no agency assistance given with shelter. The other 30 per cent (in Nkomazi area) are taken in by local families. No land available to refugees for cultivation. Where refugees share with local families concern that food supplies are diluted across both families. Some concern about abuse of position of some refugees within local families.

## **Food distribution**

Food distribution organised by Hlanganani (Nkomazi) and Phalalani (Mhala) Relief Committees. Both bodies made up of local political figures (mainly local chiefs), agencies involved in work with refugees, ICRC and homeland government reps. No Mozambicans on committees — committees invite ‘representatives’ in for some discussions. This usually means the few Ndunas (traditional chiefs) present among refugees.

Food distributed to over 50 different ‘points’ in districts on a monthly basis. Control through the family card issued at reception. Ration is felt to be ‘adequate’ to ‘generous’ (ICRC): basics are mealie meal, cooking oil, salt, sugar, soap with variable ‘extras’ (soup, beans etc). Irregular distribution of seeds for cultivation.

Recent decision to reduce food supply to family through distribution point. Target food resources instead at schools and pre-schools in the districts to reach both local and refugee children..

## **Water**

Access to water varies considerably. No distinct Mozambican settlement has its own water supply. For some settlements relatively good access with waterpump half to 1 kilometre from settlement. But many areas water source over 1km and up to 3 or 4km from settlement (especially small Mozambican settlements). All water is borehole source. All water points shared with, located in, local communities. In recent months several points of tension and conflict over water when two out of three borehole pumps near big settlements have broken, leaving pressure on remaining source. Control of water through local chief structures, particularly when conflict.

## **Health**

Health of arriving refugees is often poor but usually linked to immediate problems of travel with little food. Increasing incidence of malaria amongst newly arrived in recent months has caused concern. Amongst settled refugees persistent low grade malnutrition in young children reported in Nkomazi district (also in local children). Several outbreaks of diarrhoea reported in last month. Sanitation facilities are still inadequate in most settlements — pit latrines now provided in most but not in sufficient numbers. Health-care provision is varied. At Reception areas MSF presence and local health-care back-up ensures good initial care and screening.

Once in settlements refugees have access to local health care facilities which are generally thin on the ground and overstretched. Some concern that drug and other

supplies to local clinics are irregular and not sufficient to meet new pressures from population increase. Main hospital — Shongwe — for Nkomazi is 40 kilometres from main refugee concentrations. Tinstwalo Hospital in Mhala more central to settlements.

## **Economic possibilities**

No refugees have significant land for cultivation. Most grow some crops around shelter (maize and some root crops) but with poor results this last year due to lack of rain in key months. Some temporary work opportunities on latrine construction through World Vision — this programme is now coming to an end. Main work opportunities are as farm labourers on ‘white’ farms. Poorly paid however and with constant risk of deportation — means leaving ‘homeland’ area. (In recent incidents 19 women denounced to police by farmer employing them — to avoid three weeks’ pay — are deported). In longer-established settlements several sewing projects set up but as yet not financially successful.

## **Educational provision**

Limited educational and child care provision, mainly at pre-school level. Some seven creches in Mhala and Nkomazi take in about 1,100 children from age two to six. Creche workers are all young Mozambicans. Older children can enter local schools at about seven or eight — in Nkomazi with language problem (taught in Siswati not Shangaan). Teenage entry into school system particularly problematic. Pre-schools have their own feeding programme. No adult education or awareness programme around health, nutrition etc.

## **Status and harassment**

All refugees on six-month ‘visas’ from homeland governments. Not valid in ‘white’ South Africa. SADF (army) patrols settlement areas in Nkomazi and regularly detains and deports refugees found ‘without documents’. Instances of harassment and beatings common in Nkomazi with two deaths in last three months. In Mhala situation is more settled with little SADF presence but refugees leaving the district for work are liable to deportation. Some local hostility and resentment in recent months over food distribution, firewood and water issues.

## **Agencies involved**

Direct work with refugees is done by local agencies. Catholic Church, Operation Hunger and SCF (South Africa) main actors in food-distribution programme. South African Council Churches (Protestant) less direct programme involvement but has funded creche construction. World Vision solely responsible for sanitation programme. Health-care programme monitored (but rather informally) from two

local hospitals. No UNHCR presence in South Africa. ICRC has overview role and particular concern for status of refugees. Some local coordination through two relief committees but no central coordinating body across different districts. No South African government involvement. Homeland governments — KaNgwane and Gazankulu — sympathetic but increasingly concerned about pressures on local services.

## **Questions:**

- 1 What do you think the gender issues are here?
- 2 What additional information do you need?
- 3 How will you get the information?
- 4 What would you do, as an NGO, and why?

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## Designing case studies

### The usefulness and limitations of case studies

We use a number of case studies in this Manual, to teach specific frameworks of analysis (such as the Harvard Method, a Timeline, or the Capacities and Vulnerabilities Analysis); to draw out learning points with relation to gender from a “real” situation (such as the Ngwee Nutrition Group, the Bangladesh Refugees studies); to pose problems to participants which they can relate to their own experience and attempt to solve.

Case studies are useful because they give participants in a training course the chance to practice their skills in the kind of situation they may encounter. The way they are used in this Manual allows for discussion in groups and collective learning, so that participants can share their experience and knowledge with reference to a particular case. Where the case study has been drawn up and is presented by one or more of the participants, this aspect of learning can be stronger and more effective.

The limitations of case studies is that they give the illusion of being real, but in fact they are a small snapshot of reality, using highly selected facts. Because this is a gender training Manual, the case studies focus on information relevant to gender issues, necessarily reducing the focus on other issues. Reality is much more complex than is apparent in a case study — but this is also part of the learning. Participants may be frustrated because the information they require for analysis or for planning is not in the study — this is often the case in real life, and points to the need for gathering more relevant information, in more effective ways.

The case studies we present here are drawn from a variety of sources, and apart from those developed specifically for use with an activity (such as the Mwea Case Study), are examples of the kind of study you may need. They are of course chosen because they are relevant to the analysis you are teaching, but we would recommend that wherever possible, you prepare for the workshop by asking participants to write up their own case studies and bring them. This way other participants can ask the presenter for information which is lacking, and the case becomes much more alive and immediate.

## Writing case studies: general points

Writing case studies is not easy. They have to be tailor-made for their teaching purpose, as much as possible. If you are asking participants to write them, they will need guidance. So will you, if you plan to write case studies yourself for the workshop. Here are some questions to ask before starting to write:

- **What is the case study for?** Make sure you are clear about this. Why do you need one? How will you use it?
- **Who is the case study for?** What are the needs of your users/readers? What information do they require? How is the case study going to be relevant to their work?
- **How long have you got?** The length of the case study will depend on the time you have. Short ones can be as effective to teach particular things as long ones.
- **What is the experience of your training group?** You may be able to ask participants to prepare their own. If you are going to write them yourself, make sure that the cases you use are relevant to the work of your group.
- **Are you going to use a real or a hypothetical situation?** If you want to teach a very specific analytical framework (for example, the CVA framework) you could draw up a hypothetical case study which will contain all the information you need to complete the exercise of analysis. However, reality is not like that, and people will have to analyse real situations, which do not present all the relevant information in the form you need it. If you are going to use a real situation, you need to do careful research, bearing in mind all the points above.

## How to prepare a case study of a real situation

Below are some guidelines Oxfam has found useful in researching and preparing case studies of development or relief interventions. They are not comprehensive, and the way you go about the research will depend very much on your specific needs.

- Clearly identify the main issue you want to bring out in the case study (for example, the effects of structural adjustment policies on women), and any sub-issues related to it (for example, problems in NGO development interventions attempting to address the situation).
- Collect background data from research papers, newspapers, surveys and reports, and your own work in your organisation in analysing projects and discussing issues.
- Plan your research: the meetings you will need, the people you want to interview, who you will have to contact to set it up. Explain clearly to the NGO or other organisation who will help you set up the visit what your interests and intentions are in preparing the case study.
- Think about information-gathering techniques. You may wish to use informal interviews, formal interviews, checklists of questions, participatory techniques such as village mapping or seasonal calendars. Make sure the techniques are appropriate to the people you will talk to. Make sure you are clear about the information you are

looking for, but also open to information you may not have anticipated.

- Make sure you talk to a range of people, both women and men. They may include NGO staff, government officials, local organisations, women and men from villages or urban communities, health or agricultural workers, teachers and so on. Try and talk to different ages, and people from different ethnic or caste groups, and record different views of the situation;
- Incorporate **change** into your research: how has the situation changed over time? (you could use the Timeline activity presented in this manual) What are the expectations of women and men for future change?
- Make sure that you have a strong section on the **results** of any project intervention you are looking at. This is the heart of the case study. It must show clearly **what** happened, and give clear indicators of **why** it happened — from a gender perspective. What happened to the women, and what happened to the men? What were the similarities and differences?

## What a case study should cover

Your case study should include the following:

- A section on the international, national and local context of the intervention (political, cultural, socio-economic), and implications for women and gender relations;
- A section on activities of the key actors in the situation, such as local NGOs, local organisations of women and men, local authorities, national and regional government, external agencies such as foreign funders, and what the impact of these are on the lives of women, and on gender relations;
- A section on gender relations in the context of the development or relief intervention, including an account of the gender division of labour, access to and control of natural resources and to project benefits, decision-making in the urban community or village, the influence of other social variables such as age, class, ethnicity, caste, and so on;
- An account of the aims of the intervention, and its operational strategies;
- A section on the results of the intervention in terms of changes to the lives of women, and changes in gender relations.





## Mwea rice scheme

### Objectives

- 1 To enable people to work out for themselves the likely impact of a project which was not focused on women and which took no account of gender needs or roles.
- 2 To compare predicted and actual results.
- 3 To try and redesign a project to incorporate gender needs.

### Method

- 1 Hand out copies of the Mwea Rice Scheme case study (Part 1 only: **Handout 60**) to the participants, and ask them to form small groups of five or six, and discuss Part 1 of the Case Study. This describes the objectives, expectations and plan of implementation for a rice-irrigation settlement scheme in Kenya. It also describes the pre-existing farming system and gives other background information. Ask the groups to write on newsprint:
  - a. Do you think the objectives of the scheme will be met? Why/Why not?
  - b. What might be other effects of the scheme (positive and negative)?

*(30 mins)*
- 2 After each group has completed the two questions in Part 1, hand them Part 2. (**Handout 61**) This lists the results of the scheme, social and economic, for the women and their families. Ask each group to write on newsprint:
  - a. What are the similarities/differences of your answers to Part 1 in relation to the actual effects of the project?
  - b. What other information would you need?
  - c. Re-design the project to take account of gender needs.

*(30-40 mins)*
- 3 Ask each group to put their newsprints on the wall for others to read, and in turn share answers.
- 4 Lead a large group discussion on the case study. 

*(30 mins)*

# Materials

Handouts: Case-study Parts 1 and 2 (**Handouts 60** and **61**)  
Newsprints, and marker pens.

## *Facilitator's Notes*

*1 It is crucial not to give out Part 2 until Part 1 is completed, as it contains the 'answers' to the questions in Part 1.*

*2 It may be useful to accompany this exercise with a showing of the video *The Lost Harvest*. This is about a similar rice-irrigation scheme in Gambia and its effects on women. (See Resources Section)*

*3 Facilitators should work through this case study themselves before using it with a group. In the discussion, the following points often emerge:*

*a. Surprise that the project is seen as successful in its own terms.*

*b. Implicit assumptions on which the project was based were incorrect (e.g. that increase in household income implies increase in household welfare).*

*c. Encouragement that participants can spot many, but not all, of the likely problems; not all of which are listed in Part 2.*

*4 This case study can be done independently of, or be used in addition to, the Harvard and Moser methods of analysis.*

*5 If time is short or participants are not directly involved in project work, Question c. on re-designing the programme may be omitted. In any case, many people find that they would prefer to go back to the beginning and consult with both men and women, rather than simply 'add-in gender' to the existing project.*

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## Mwea case study: A rice irrigation settlement scheme in Kenya

### Part 1: The setting up of the scheme

The Mwea rice-irrigation settlement scheme in Kenya is one where very poor landless peasants of the Kikuyu and Embu tribes have been settled, and taught to grow rice as a cash crop.

The scheme covers over 30 villages with between 400 and 700 people living in each. 'Mwea' is one of four administrative divisions in the larger scheme.

**Objectives of the scheme:** To raise household income and hence household welfare by the introduction of a monocrop of irrigated rice.

**Expectations:** the household will adopt rice as a staple-food crop and as a cash crop, the sale of which will provide cash to purchase all other household needs.

### The pre-existing farming system

The off-scheme farming system of the Kikuyu and Embu people was characterised by relatively independent spheres of responsibility for men and women. Men and women had their own plots of land. Men generally grew maize and coffee as cash crops; women grew subsistence crops of maize and beans to meet the household's consumption requirements.

In the production process, labour was not completely segregated and women performed about half of their agricultural work on men's crops. Women's labour input on men's crops would vary according to whether men were physically present on the farm (in some cases men engaged in outside work or business or lived away from home). Women would increase their labour input when men were present (whether or not men were working on the crop). But even when men were present,

women had considerable freedom in organising the work they performed on men's crops.

Women controlled the production of their plots and used it to provide for the household's subsistence needs; any surplus produce from these plots was sold and the income retained by women for their own use. Men controlled the income from cash crops and this was not usually shared at all with women. In most cases, women were unaware of whether the household's monetary income would be adequate to supply the household's needs. Indeed, a woman would consider herself a failure if she had to ask her husband to provide food which she would ordinarily have grown herself.

## **Other information**

Many men are polygamous. Harvest time is busy. Families have to hire help, or get help from relatives, which will be reciprocated. Additional helpers have to be cooked for.

## **Implementation of the scheme**

Families were allocated plots of good, irrigated land to grow rice through the male head of the family. There was some land available for gardens around the outside of the main farm land. These were divided into equal-sized plots.

Families were settled onto the scheme. Each was provided with a new two-roomed basic house.

## **Questions**

- 1 Do you think the objectives of the scheme will be met? Why/why not?
- 2 What might be other effects of the scheme (positive and negative)?

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## Case study: A rice irrigation settlement scheme in Kenya

### Part 2: The results of the scheme

The scheme has been regarded as a model of development. It has achieved its objectives. It has been very successful in getting people to grow rice productively as a cash crop, and household incomes have risen. But it is evident that these higher incomes have not necessarily been translated into improvements in the whole family's welfare, certainly in respect of nutrition.

Moving to the scheme meant that women worked longer and harder, because they also work in the rice fields which their husbands lease in the scheme. Some men work in their fields themselves, but women work more hours than men do in the rice fields. Many men work off the settlement, in nearby towns, and where this happens women have to take on work which men normally do. This flexibility in the division of labour does not work both ways; men would not take bananas to market, carry water, weed, or cook. These are regarded as female tasks.

Although women do most of the work, the procedures of the scheme treat the male head of the household as if he was the main decision-maker and worker. Women receive no payment at all. Women remained in control of the production of their own plots and had access to the proportion of the harvested paddy which was allocated by the scheme for 'home consumption'. Adults in Mwea disliked rice as a food. The rice to which women had access for 'home consumption' was therefore used as gifts to relatives, as a black-market currency to pay casual labour, or in the last resort to feed children and outside workers. So in some cases this was a possible source of small amounts of income for women. Men remained in control of the cash income from the rice crop which increased in the scheme due to successful yields being obtained. It is not clear how men used their higher incomes.

Fuelwood, which women would have collected in the off-scheme environment, had to be bought within the scheme, further necessitating cash incomes for women. Moreover, prices of almost all commodities were higher in the scheme than outside it, so reducing the purchasing power of any income women did obtain. Women at Mwea do most of the farm work in the cultivation of rice, as well as cultivating maize and beans for family consumption on their own domestic plots. The demands of

these two conflicted at certain times of the year, especially at harvest time.

Women do not complain of the long hours of work. In fact the women who are most dissatisfied are those who do not have their own subsistence plots. Generally women felt that this was the biggest difficulty facing them on the scheme.

Where women do not have land on which to grow maize and beans, they have to ask their husbands for money to buy them. Women are accustomed to being the providers of food. They feel uncomfortable asking their husbands, or relying on their 'generosity' in order to fulfil food requirements. It implies they are not good housewives. It also makes them dependent in a new way. Also, evidence of deteriorating nutritional standards of children of families in the scheme suggests that subsistence requirements were not always being met.

For those women who have been allocated plots there are problems too. Some women with large families found the standard-size plot too small for their needs. Most of the plots are too far from their houses for women to be able to return home during the day to feed small children and to start the lengthy cooking process. This is another example of competing demands on women's time and energy in their responsibilities at home, as mothers, and for agricultural work.

There are other aspects about life on the settlement which make it difficult and unpleasant for women. The two-roomed houses have not been provided with outside hearths for cooking or with chimneys in the dwellings themselves. Cooking indoors, with no chimney, soots up the room and makes cooking unpleasant. It also makes the room unusable for sleeping. So, the whole family sleeps in the second room in many households. This is not only uncomfortable, it deprives people of privacy. Adults feel it is improper to have their children sleeping in the same room, and if a man has two wives it is considered indecent.

Cooking is particularly a problem at harvest time. In addition to working on their husbands' and others' fields, women have to cook for additional helpers (hired or reciprocated labour). If a woman does not have enough cooking pots and other utensils, she may have to go through the lengthy cooking procedure twice every day.

Many women involved in the scheme experience a high degree of stress. They say they are not happy there. Men find it difficult to get wives who will live there. And it is said that every year numbers of women leave, deserting their husbands.

## Questions

- 1 Compare your answers to questions 4 and 5 of Part 1 with the actual effects of the scheme. What are the similarities/differences?
- 2 What other information would you have needed in order to anticipate the effects?
- 3 How would you re-design the programme to take account of gender needs?

## Mini-case studies

### Objectives

- 1 To examine a number of short case studies of women's development projects and identify strengths and weaknesses.

### Method

- 1 Ask participants to form groups of four.
- 2 Hand out the case studies (**Handout 62**) and ask participants to go through each of them, asking the following questions:
  - a. How does this project affect the workload or status of women?
  - b. How, if at all, could this project be sustained?
  - c. How, if at all, does this project contribute to the equality of women?

*(20 mins)*
- 3 Ask each small group to feed back to the whole group.

*(20 mins)*

### Materials

#### Handout 62

Paper and pens





## **Mini-case studies**

### **Case study: Education**

An evening literacy-project for women ran for six months very successfully. Women studied basic literature and numeracy materials for two hours each evening. The emphasis of the materials was centred on health, agriculture and the status of women. After six months the project ceased and classes were set up in another district, again for six months.

A year later evaluators of the project found that the women had lost their literacy skills through lack of use and their status had remained unchanged within the community.

### **Case study: Environment**

Women were selected to be the focus of a forestry project involving the planting of sapling trees in nurseries. They were asked to form village management-committees, and female extension workers came every month to talk with and train women in nursery and forestry techniques.

A few months after the initial meeting the government enforced a law that the nearest forests, which were situated two hours' walk away, uphill, were to become part of a national park and it would therefore be illegal to gather firewood within the park boundaries.

The women felt helpless and had no obvious means available to them to protest against the environmental policy of the government. The female forestry-extension workers, who were non-local, attempted to organise a campaign among the women to protest.

The men in the community were outraged that their women should adopt such a public role and refused to allow their women to attend future meetings with the forestry extension-workers. The women were then compelled to walk greater distances to gather firewood and fodder.

## **Case study: Relief**

The workload of women in a refugee camp meant that only men were able to give their views on the running of the camp to the organisers. Although many separated or widowed women were heads of their family units in the camp, traditionally they were not expected to take part in community-council meetings.

The organisers of the refugee camp attempted to set up mixed committee meetings with 50 per cent representation from men and women but found women were extremely reluctant to come forward.

## **Case study: Income generation**

A project funded by a large international development agency had been set up to target the status of women. Through credit provision, a Women's Development Officer organised with the male bank manager and male Local Development Officer opportunities for women to borrow money for income generating activities. According to the prescribed annual plan the Women's Development officer had to build a child-care centre.

Women in the community were expected to knit numerous garments to sell but there was not a suitable market in the immediate proximity and spare cash in an area of subsistence farming was lacking.

The building of a child-care centre involved carrying local construction materials for many miles, and although women were in favour of the concept of childcare, neither they or the men were willing to spend time building.

The Women's Development Officer predicted failure and felt pressurised by her head office superiors who would enquire why money had not been spent as anticipated. She also felt pressurised by the bank manager who had seen little if any returns on his loans. The Local Development Officer was not particularly supportive. He was of the opinion the women are traditionally agriculturalists and therefore finance is wasted if women are involved in development.

## Women in a Sudanese camp

### Objectives

- 1 To enable participants to discern and discuss gender issues in an emergency situation, as described in the report of an NGO worker.

(5 mins)

### Method

- 1 Introduce the case study by explaining that it comes from a real-life situation, as described in the report of an NGO worker.

- 2 Explain that you will be working in small groups, so that everyone can contribute. The case study comes in three parts — the groups will discuss one part at a time. It is not a test but they may, if they wish, see it as a kind of mystery tour.

(5 mins)

- 3 If there are technical experts in the group e.g. water engineers, stress that the case study is intended to help us to look at gender issues in emergency situations — to look at technical issues as they affect women and men.

(5 mins)

- 4 Divide the participants into groups of five or six and hand out Part 1 (**Handout 63**) and ask them to discuss the two questions at the end of the sheet. Allow about ten minutes (judging the time by observation of the groups)

(10 mins)

- 6 Then hand out Part 2 (**Handout 64**) and ask them to discuss again.

(15-20 mins)

- 7 Then hand out Part 3 (**Handout 65**)— this can be handed out to the groups or alternatively you could bring everyone back to the main group before handing out Part 3 and then take the questions as a kind of brainstorm.

(15-20 mins)

- 8 Lead a general discussion in the main group, taking account of points which should be raised as listed in the *Facilitator's Notes*.

(15 mins)

# Materials

## Case study and Handouts

### **Facilitator's Notes:**

1 *Some of the things that you will be hoping to hear from the group are:*

*a. They had not expected it to be possible for the group of women to speak to an expatriate male.*

*b. The group of women was large enough to give them confidence/too large.*

*c. The sensitive issue of distribution mechanisms (through men) only came out at the end when most women had dispersed.*

*d. The issue of the food ration was known to the NGO worker — why had nothing been done about it.*

*e. Although the women see the food as the cause of their diarrhoea it is likely that it is a sanitation problem — both groups are 'right'.*

*f. Are there things the women hint at (menstruation, harassment)?*

*g. It is unusual for people to want straight lines of shelter.*

*h. The needs of children had been overlooked.*

*i. People were setting up their own ways of regulating problems (by going through the chief structure for maintenance of latrines).*

2 *You will want to draw some broad conclusions:*

*a. We should always test our assumptions.*

*b. Agendas may conflict — between aid workers and affected people, and between women and men.*

*c. There is a tendency to underestimate women.*

3 *It is also possible to run this as an activity where the women and men are divided into same-sex groups and are brought together for the discussion of Part 3. If you do this the women will feel much freer to talk about such issues as sexual harassment and violence. Observe whether these issues come up in the men's group.*

4 *This case study can also be used as a role play. The interpreter may play a key role as a gatekeeper — an important point to note when talking of how to listen to women.*

5 *This case study has been used with UK groups, with British water engineers and at a workshop in Ethiopia. It stimulated plenty of discussion each time. A difficulty can arise if there is a participant who knows the area concerned and becomes the 'expert' in the group.*

## Case study: Meeting with women in a camp for the displaced, Sudan

### Part 1

(This is an extract from a report by an NGO worker in Southern Sudan, where the NGO supports people who have been displaced by the civil war. They are housed in camps where they are largely dependent on NGOs for a daily food ration, and for health and sanitation services. The NGO was concerned about poor sanitation and consequent health risks. The NGO worker decided to convene two separate meetings — one for men and one for women — to find out their views. This is an extract from the account of his meeting with the women.)

On Friday 11 October 1991 the meeting with the women was held. About 80 women crammed into the feeding centre; all types were there, including traditional birth attendants and community health workers, but the majority were probably mothers who would normally have been attending the feeding centre with their children. The only men present were John and myself. Maria translated for me.

The objectives of the meeting were:

- 1 To learn about women's views on the desirability of pit latrines.
- 2 To learn about the women's views about the problems over the use of the latrines.
- 3 To learn about women's views on the maintenance and cleaning of latrines.
- 4 From what we learned to put together a syllabus for a series of health education workshops on 'Pit latrine use and maintenance'.

The structure of the meeting was kept relatively loose as I wanted this discussion open enough to allow the women to discuss their own concerns as much as my NGO's concerns.

#### Discuss:

- 1 What communications problems do you think there might be?
- 2 What do you think would be the concerns of women in a camp like this (or a refugee camp)?



## Meeting with women in a camp for the displaced, Sudan

### Part 2 (NGO worker report, continued)

A problem which emerged, however, was that the women's primary concerns are not necessarily connected with the pit latrines at all. Again and again the discussion returned to:

- a. The size of the general ration (too small)
- b. The content of the ration: it is now not so good as it was. Where is the groundnut paste/salt/beans/soap/cooking oil/milk powder which — they claimed — they used to receive from the NGO in the good old days?
- c. Stomach problems caused by the current distribution of Thai dura, which when cooked produces nearly black porridge; women spend much time washing the dura, ridding it of its unpalatable taste.

At one point I asked what the above three points had to do with sanitation and pit latrines. It was stressed vehemently by various women that stomach problems are caused by the poor quality of the food and by the lack of a balanced diet.

Regarding the pit latrines:

- 1 Women thought on the whole pit latrines are 'a good thing'.
- 2 They are not currently effective as a sanitation measure as there are not enough of them to reduce the need to use open spaces.
- 3 Men's and women's latrines should be physically separated by as large a distance as possible. The women stressed that even if it meant a five-minute walk they would still rather walk the distance in order to use a special women's latrine.
- 4 Children are scared of the pits; they are also scared of the adults (particularly of the men) they might find using the latrines. Women-only latrines would allow the women to spend time in the latrine to teach the children how to use it.
- 5 There is a problem of overcrowding in the camp. Major objections to overcrowding stem from the fact that men can hear the women's stomach problems (referring to diarrhoea, as was translated to me, but might refer to menstruation).

- 6 The women expressed a preference for a camp with straight lines, row upon row, rather than the current higgledy-piggledy layout.
- 7 It was repeatedly stressed that for maintenance and cleaning of the latrines they should be allocated to chiefs, for the use and responsibility of a tribal group only. This repeats what the men said.

## **Discuss:**

What had you predicted and what surprised you about the women's responses?



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## Meeting with women in a camp for the displaced, Sudan

### Part 3

The NGO worker concluded his report of the meeting with the following comments:

We definitely have some pointers for the future. This is the separation of latrines by chief and sex. There is no guarantee that it is feasible to pursue this yet, but it looks as though this is the direction we should go in.

After the meeting with the women was over I chatted with one or two traditional birth attendants and community health workers. Two points emerged:

- 1 I was surprised to be informed that this was the first-ever meeting between an NGO expatriate representative and a group made up specifically of women only. The women were actually very appreciative of this. During the meeting itself women expressed keenness that similar, further meetings take place along the same lines.
- 2 The old issue of distributing through men was raised (men not distributing the full ration, selling the remainder to get drunk, and so on). While recognising the dangers of interfering with the status quo I wonder whether there is a tendency to underestimate the women. I replied that my NGO would be happy to distribute through women but that those women interested should organise themselves. I said that widows and women-headed families might be a starting point. If approached by the women with a plan then we can see how to go about implementing it.

### Discuss

What are the significant issues/lessons to be learned for work in similar circumstances elsewhere?

