



INTER-AGENCY EXPERT CONSULTATION ON
A STRATEGY TO ENHANCE WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION
IN WATER SUPPLY AND SANITATION ACTIVITIES

Addis Ababa, December 12-13, 1991

Papers

Water Resources Commission

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Mr. Paul Ignatieff - UNICEF Representative

**Address to the Consultation on the Enhancement of Women's
Participation in Water and Environmental Sanitation
12th December 1991
Addis Ababa**

**Mr. Tilahun Gebre Tsadik
Commissioner, Water Resources Commission**

**H.E. Birgitta Karlatorn Dorth
Ambassador of Sweden**

Colleagues and friends,

It is a great pleasure to be with you this morning to consider the enhancement and support of women's participation in water and environmental sanitation in Ethiopia. At the outset, may I particularly commend the Water Resources Commission for being one of the few government organization to establish a women's desk which now forms the basis of this consultation.

Mr. Chairman,

I hope that during the next two days the participants in this important consultation will be able to review:

- **What has been done and what needs to be done in this sector for the women and children of Ethiopia;**
- **How best we can use the women's desk for the betterment of women and children by using water and sanitation programmes as an entry point.**

I believe that there are three major goals in the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade (IDWSSD) for the 1990s that can have a particular impact on the lives of women and children:

- 1. Universal access to safe drinking water;*
- 2. Universal access to sanitary means of excreta disposal;*
- 3. The elimination of Guinea worm disease by 1995.*

Let me first comment on Guinea worm control. Do we know clearly where we stand? I am told not! UNICEF recently sponsored the first national workshop on Guinea worm disease. The next steps include regional orientation workshops and case searches.

We are three weeks away from 1992. Where does Ethiopia now stand in relation to the other two goals? Recent assessments suggest that by 1990 the national coverage was 18.8% for water supply and 7% for sanitation. These figures underline the concerning gap between the Global Goal and the country's current status, and emphasize the large underserved population that still must be reached. According to these estimates, children and women make up 77% or 39 million of the total population. This means that 31 million women and children lack access to safe water supply and 36 million still lack adequate sanitary means of excreta disposal.

The consequences of such deprivations expose women and children to waterborne, water related and water washed diseases. To quote one vital health statistic, 441 children under 5 years die every day in Ethiopia from diarrhoeal disease. This means that 882 children will have died during the two days of this workshop from diarrhoeal disease - caused most commonly by unsafe water supply and unhygienic practice.

I would like to encourage you to read the UNICEF publication "Facts for Life" and its 10 basic messages. The 6th and 8th messages are related to water and sanitation with implications for the lives of women and children.

Mr. Chairman,

In order to respond to the objectives set for the sector, the Water Resources Commission and UNICEF are supporting strategies which include the promotion of community participation with special emphasis on women in water and sanitation programmes. It is with this aim that the Women's Desk was established. I understand that it has two main tasks:

- 1) to ensure that women's participation is incorporated in all water and sanitation projects.*
- 2) to see that the concerns of women are addressed in every water supply and sanitation project.*

The Desk will co-ordinate inputs and disseminate knowledge and experience on women's participation in water supply and sanitation projects.

We also hope the women's desk will be:

- an advocate for the rights of children and concerns of women in the water and sanitation sector;*
- an important tool to enhance the participation of women;*
- a catalyst that generates ideas; strategies and innovative approaches for the integration of water and sanitation with other sectors;*
- a means to provide a human dimension to technical interventions.*

Mr. Chairman,

We are aware of the constraints in the water and sanitation sector mainly because of the long and resource draining war, the recurrent droughts and the high population growth. Now that the paralyzing war has been stopped, we can work on the other two problems by concentrating our collective resources to address the problems of women and children.

Finally, may I express my hope that the Women's Desk continues to play a pivotal role in strengthening the efforts of the Water Resources Commission, the Ministry of Health and other external friends and partners to address the needs of women and children in water and sanitation programmes.

Your Excellency Birgitta Karlstrom Dorth,
Ambassador of Sweden,

Mr. Paul Ignatieff, Resident Representative of UNICEF,

Distinguished Participants

Ladies and Gentlemen

Allow me to express on behalf of the Water Resources Commission and on my own behalf, my genuine pleasure for the opportunity to welcome you all and to make the introductory address at this important Inter-Agency Expert Consultation on a Strategy to Enhance Women's Participation in Water Supply and Sanitation Activities.

It is more than a literary cliché to state that no life exists without water. Survival, in fact, is at stake. Beyond this end of the spectrum are all the gradations of water use necessary for the prevention of disease, for the protection of livestock, for the preparation and safeguard of food, and for the enhancement of comfort.

Every government is concerned with the phenomenal trek of the rural family to the city and now views the task of improving the lot of these people in the hope of arresting this movement. The emphasis on rural development is a symptom of the desire to come to grips realistically with the problems of the countryside. It is there that the masses of women and children are the carriers of water as they fetch again and again under the tropical sun.

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The list of diseases that are favoured either by lack of water or by its unsafe character is a long one. At least 1.5 billion people worldwide still lack potable water. This leaves them vulnerable to the water-borne germs that cause diarrhoea, which alone takes the lives of 5 million children every year. The United Nations Childrens Fund (UNICEF) estimates that unclean water combined with inadequate sanitation causes 75 percent of all diseases in developing countries.

The translation of such impacts into monetary units has been the chore of many students of the economic aspects of disease prevention. The conversion of the value of human lives into economic units of dollars, rupees or birr has been both difficult and unrewarding. Where such efforts have been made, and there are a number, the results have been gratifying in dramatizing monetary units, but singularly unconvincing in human and social values.

The determination of the amount of water the rural dweller needs depends, in no small measure, upon a number of definitions. The census classifications universally used are not too helpful in these considerations. The definition of rural as all populations under 5000 or, in some instances, under 10,000, are simple statistical conveniences. They do not reveal the actual "geometry of living" .. whether in isolated farm houses, in village agglomerations, or in nomad movements. The logistics for providing water differ materially in each of these instances, and similarly, the amounts to be provided are quite different. Adequate water supply service, therefore rests upon such understanding of the geometry of living. What the rural dweller ought to be assured, on the other hand, is reasonable access to safe water. The housewife or the child should not have to spend a disproportionate

part of each day fetching water.

Excellencies

Distinguished Participants

Ladies and Gentlemen

Government institutions and external support agencies, in proffering water supply programmes, are often not only generating new management and administrative systems, but also implicitly creating the needs to which their systems are supposed to be responsive. We are thus left with the worrying proposition that engineers, planners and administrators, instead of being responsive to actual societal needs, are engaged in generating their own goals and systems in response to needs which are either of their own making, or are being prescribed, or as is very often the case ruthlessly imposed from outside of the society. The extent to which the engineer or planner is justified in arrogating to himself the power to "educate" the public, rather than merely trying to satisfy its felt needs is a grave moral problem, relevant to planners and administrators in any sort of society.

It is trite philosophy that institutions are created to serve people, and not vice versa. The structures appropriate to a given community should spring from, and be responsive to, the perceived social, political, economic or even religious values of that particular society. Cost in terms which already reveal a significant bias and unquestioned assumptions about the most desirable form of social organization, the ultimate task of government is to devise an institutional structure for the management of water supplies which will be socially acceptable and

administratively successful in that particular country. The disquieting truth is that those of us who are engaged in the framing of institutional structures often find it impossible to retain a completely open mind. The promotion of our preferred systems comes about either through the preconceptions of the individual expert in the field; or through the policies of sponsoring agency which may control the individual expert through choice of his terms of reference, through his official briefing or through the editing of his final report. Which brings me to the theme of this Consultation -- the role of communities, particularly women in water supply and sanitation.

The 1980s were characterized by high UN profile with respect to water supply and sanitation. The UN profile was so pronounced that the period was called the UN Water and Sanitation Decade. The institutional strategy for 1990s envisages a radical departure from that of the '80s emphasizing the return of "ownership" and management of the water and sanitation sector to the countries themselves. Furthermore, the current role of governments as providers of services is planned to give way to promotional role only. This would clearly call for increasing involvement of community organizations in general and women's groups in particular. The private sector and non-governmental organizations also are expected to assume increasing roles in the implementation and management of water supply and sanitation services. At this juncture, I believe it would be appropriate to clarify what is meant by "community participation" and "community management".

Community participation refers to the involvement of communities in development activities. In the rural water supply and sanitation context, these may include community contributions in cash or kind, water supply and sanitation committee formation and training, hygiene and user education, and responsibility for operations and maintenance.

Community management refers to the capabilities and willingness of communities to take charge and determine the nature of development affecting them. It is the exercise of community responsibility for decision making and control over the subsequent execution of these decisions. Community management of water supply and sanitation can be seen as the community assuming the responsibility, authority, and control over operation of and improvements in its existing facilities.

If water supply and sanitation facilities need the acceptance and support of the users, they cannot be left to men only, as women have the greatest need for these services and are the most motivated to give support. Real involvement by women does not come about automatically. Projects that are expected to be successful must work with women skillfully and in culturally sensitive ways. Strategies that overlook the key role of women will be sh short-lived and limited in their impact.

It is not sufficient to pay lip service to women's participation. It is necessary to consciously plan and develop water supply and sanitation programmes with women an integral part, both as planners and full

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participants in implementation and management of completed schemes. As the major beneficiaries of improved water supplies and sanitation systems, and as mothers training their children in basic hygiene, women largely determine the accessibility of new facilities in the community, and many projects have been doomed to failure by inadequate consideration of their knowledge, attitudes and practices.

I do not want to leap ahead of the Consultation by going into its specific objectives. I think the title speaks for itself and at any rate, this will be the object of the technical papers that will be presented to-day and the group discussions tomorrow. /

In closing, I would like to thank UNICEF in particular for sponsoring the Consultation and for the significant input of its staff in its preparation and execution. UNICEF has always been a staunch partner and a friend in need and in deed for over two decades. I wish also to express my thanks to the UNDP/World Bank Regional Water and Sanitation Group for East Africa for providing a short-term consultant to assist the Water Resources Commission in formulating a plan of action for women's participation in water supply and sanitation activities. My thanks also go to all collaborating agencies and participants.

I wish our guests from UNDP/World Bank, Nairobi and from the African Medical Research Foundation an enjoyable stay in Ethiopia.

I wish you success in your deliberations.

Thank you one and all for your attention.

Distinguished Participants,
Ladies and Gentlemen,

Despite the affirmation of successive governments of their support for women as full partners in economic, social and political development, much remains to be done, with fewer positive achievements in socio-economic than in political development. Women's economic activities and needs were not recognized as fully as they might have been and as women are reported to want them.

Peasant associations, service and producers' cooperatives did not provide opportunities for as active participation of women as their socio-economic contributions to rural life warranted.

Facts about women's actual participation in these structures are needed as a basis for recommendations to improve their responsible participation. Greater clarification is also needed regarding the purpose and function of women's groups in relation to other rural organizations, especially in regard to their socio-economic activities. An accurate assessment of women's activities in water supply and their workload should be undertaken and ways to reduce household drudgery need to be researched. Opportunities for economic advancement need to be provided, and training and extension facilities need to be given to women equally with men.

Communication and coordination among different units concerned with women's affairs need to be strengthened. Areas and types of assistance required from government and the international community for the implementation of women's programmes should be identified and systematic implementation plans prepared.

I believe that this objective has been largely achieved in women, water supply and sanitation thanks to your hard and serious work over the last two days. We, in the Water Resources Commission will be enriched by your experience and your advice. This Consultation has once again shown the value of well-structured inter-agency exchanges.

The shift from institutional structures based on central planning and control to ones driven by response to local initiatives will imply far-reaching changes. It will raise for government and external support agencies the issue of intermediation; that is, how to distribute centrally provided resources to local communities.

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Our Consultation has come to fruitful conclusions. I must thank on your and my own behalf, the staff that laboured for its preparation. My thanks also go to each of you, the participants, for answering the call and working hard. I am sure that I speak with your voice in expressing our gratitude for our chairpersons, moderator and rapporteurs. Thank you.

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In conclusion the Deputy Commissioner reiterated that,

WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN WATER SUPPLY AND
SANITATION ACTIVITIES

A STRATEGY FOR THIS IS A MOST IMPORTANT GOAL. WHEN DISCUSSING THIS WE HAVE TO THINK OF RELATIONS AND HUMAN INTERACTIONS BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN. IN MANY CULTURES THE GREAT POTENTIAL AMONG WOMEN HAS TOO LONG BEEN NEGLECTED.

DEVELOPMNT ASSISTANCE THUS TO A LARGE EXTENT HAS REACHED MEN IN THE SOCIETY. THAT HAS NOT BEEN THE INTENTION, BUT THE RESULT IS OBVIOUS. ONE MAIN REASON FOR THIS INJUSTICE IS NEGLIGENCE TO FIND OUT WHAT IMPACT A CERTAIN DEVELOPMENT HAS FOR MEN AND ALSO FOR WOMEN.

TODAY WE TALK ABOUT A GENDER APPROACH WHEN WE WANT TO INVOLVE WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT. A GENDER APPROACH MEANS FOCUS ON SOCIAL, CULTURAL AND ECONOMIC ROLES OF BOTH MEN AND WOMEN.

QUESTIONS TO BE ASKED IN A GENDER APPROACH ARE SUCH AS:

- WHO DOES WHAT
- WHO HAS WHICH RESOURCES
- WHAT POTENTIALS DO WE FIND WITHIN WHOM
- WHERE DO WE FIND UNDERUTILIZED RESOURCES
- WHO HAS CONTROL OF THE RESOURCES

PARTICIPATION AND INVOLVEMENT MAY MEAN QUITE DIFFERENT THINGS FOR MEN AND WOMEN. MEN ARE TRADITIONALLY INVOLVED IN PLANNING AND DECISION PROCESSES, WHERE WOMEN AHVE A WEAK VOICE. BUT WHEN IT COMES TO IMPLEMENTATION WOMEN ARE EXPECTED

TO CONTRIBUTE, VERY OFTEN WITH LABOUR, WHICH IS ALREADY A HEAVY BURDEN. THE GOAL IS OF COURSE THAT MEN AND WOMEN SHOULD BE EQUAL ACTORS AND CONTRIBUTORS TO THE DEVELOPMENT. THEIR RESPECTIVE ROLES AND INFLUENCE MUST BE BASED ON THE SOCIAL AND CULTURAL ROLES OF BOTH SEXES.

THUS WATER AND SANITATION DEVELOPMENT IN PRACTICE ALSO MEANS HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT. COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND MOBILIZATION ARE A KEY WORD HERE. WATER SUPPLY DEVELOPMENT MUST INVOLVE WOMEN IN STEPS SUCH AS:

- MOBILIZATION OF INTEREST
- PARTICIPATION IN PLANNING AND CONSTRUCTION
- CONTRIBUTION TO INVESTMENT AND OPERATION COSTS
- RESPONSIBILITY FOR OPERATION AND MAINTENANCE
- GUARANTEE FOR FAIR DISTRIBUTION OF WATER

IF THIS HAPPENS IT MIGHT RESULT IN:

- REDUCTION OF THE BURDEN OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN IN THEIR DAILY CHORE OF COLLECTING WATER.
- REDUCTION OF THE INCIDENCE OF WATER-BORNE DISEASES,
I.E. SUBSTANTIAL IMPROVEMENTS IN THE HEALTH OF ESPECIALLY MOTHERS AND CHILDREN.
- PROMOTION AND STRENGTHENING OF THE COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION
AND CONFIDENCE TO WORK IN ORGANIZED GROUPS.
- DEVELOPMENT A PROCESS OF CHANGE AND FEELING OF RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE SOCIETY AND THE ENVIRONMENT WITHIN ALL MEMBERS OF THE COMMUNITY.

THE INCREASING ATTENTION TO WOMEN IN WATER SUPPLY AND SANITATION PROGRAMMES IS LARGELY DUE TO A GROWING AWARENESS OF THE FACT THAT WOMEN'S INVOLVEMENT IS CRUCIAL TO THE SUCCESS OF PROJECTS.

IT IS A GENERAL RECOGNITION THAT DOMESTIC WATER SUPPLIES IS A "WOMEN'S SPHERE". EFFORTS MADE TO INVOLVE WOMEN ARE BASED ON THE GOAL TO IMPROVE THE SUCCESS RATE OF WATER SUPPLY PROJECTS AND MAXIMIZE BENEFITS. THE ACHIEVEMENT OF THIS GOAL IS OF COURSE OF VALUE TO WOMEN. HOWEVER, IT WOULD BE EVEN MORE POSITIVE TO WOMEN IF THE ATTENTION WAS BASED ON A CLEAR OBJECTIVE TO CREATE EQUALITY BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN, THUS IMPROVING WOMEN'S POSITION AND STATUS. THIS OBJECTIVE IS ESSENTIAL IF WATER SUPPLY IMPROVEMENTS ARE TO FULFIL THE GOAL OF ALSO IMPROVING LIVING CONDITIONS OF ONE OF THE POOREST GROUPS IN RURAL SOCIEITES, I.E. THE WOMEN.

WOMEN HAVE A GREAT POTENTIAL FOR PARTICIPATION ON EQUAL TERMS ALSO WHEN IT COMES TO WATER SUPPLY AND SANITATION. WHY?

- WOMEN MOSTLY HAVE VERY GOOD CONTACTS ESPECIALLY WITH OTHER WOMEN.
- WOMEN ARE VERY RECEPTIVE - THEY SEE AND UNDERSTAND IMPROVEMENTS IN THEIR FIELD OF EXPERIENCE - THEY HAVE LESS TIME TO WASTE
- WOMEN ARE OFTEN OVERWORKED BUT UNDERUTILIZED WE HAVE TO RECOGNIZE THE "INVISIBLE" WOMEN

BUT THERE ARE ALSO CONSTRAINTS ON WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN THIS FIELD, SUCH AS:

- THEY ARE NOT INFORMED
- WOMEN'S TIME AND ENERGY ARE SCARCE RESOURCES

- WOMEN'S POSITION AND POWER IN THE COMMUNITY MAY NOT BE STRONG ENOUGH
- THEIR HUSBANDS STOP THEM FROM PARTICIPATING
- WOMEN HAVE GOT LESS OPPORTUNITIES OF TRAINING WHICH ENABLES THEM TO PARTICIPATE IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT.

A VERY SUCCESSFUL WATER SUPPLY PROJECT ENGAGING WOMEN IS THE DODOTA PROJECT IN ARSI REGION FUNDED BY SWEDEN. WHY HAS IT BEEN SUCCESSFUL? BECAUSE WOMENS POTENTIAL HAS BEEN USED AND THEIR CONSTRAINTS BEEN TAKEN INTO CONSIDERATION. WOMEN WERE GIVEN TECHNICAL TRAINING ENABLING THEM TO DO MOST OF THE CONSTRUCTION WORK, SUCH AS BUILDING THE PIPELINES. WOMEN TOOK A FULHEARTED RESPONSIBILITY FOR CONSTRUCTION, FOR OPERATION AND MAINTENANCE OF THE WATER SUPPLY.

SO WHAT DO WOMEN NEED IN PARTICIPATION? WHEN IT COMES TO WATER?

- INCREASED CONTROL OVER RESOURCES
- ACCESS TO INFORMATION AND TRAINING
- ACCESS TO IMPROVED TECHNOLOGY
- RELIEVE OF SOME OF THE WORK BURDENS
- CHANGES OF ATTITUDES CONCERNING WOMEN'S POSITION AND ROLES.

...the national policy questions to consider are:

* POLICY QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER ARE:

- EQUITY - WOMEN HAVE THE RIGHT TO SHARE BOTH IN WORK AND IN ITS BENEFITS,
- WELFARE- WOMEN MUST GET ACCESS TO THE BENEFITS,

EFFICIENCY - IF WOMEN ARE NOT INVOLVED THE
PROGRAMME MAY FAIL,

EMPLOYMENT - THE WOMEN'S UNIQUE RESOURCES SHOULD
BE USED - ALSO TO CREATE EMPLOYMENT.

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Handout No. I

IDENTIFICATION OF NATIONAL EXPERIENCE

IN WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT

BY

MEKONNEN MANYAZEWAL

PAPER PREPARED FOR INTER-AGENCY EXPERT CONSULTATION ON A STRATEGY
TO ENHANCE WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN WATER SUPPLY AND SANITATION
ACTIVITIES.

December 1991

Addis Ababa

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I. INTRODUCTION

A lot of ground has been covered in issues of women in development in since the U.N Decade for Women. There is a growing broad consensus on the concept of women in development, and how to address them; increasingly growing literature and data base, and the establishment of organizations (global and national), to advance the cause of and monitor the implementation of various measures taken with regard to women issues. Multilateral and bilateral donors and non-governmental organizations have increasingly introduced the "gender dimension" in their development assistance for developing countries.

In Ethiopia, women's issues have become an important area of concern in national economic development. It is part of the overall process of the economic transformation of Ethiopia. There were measures that specifically and/or indirectly address women as part of the overall process of development. Arguably, the Constitution, the establishment of REWA and policies of the previous government all call for paying particular attention to women to develop their capacity to effectively contribute to national development and to derive the necessary benefit thereof.

The objective of this paper is to identify national experience in women's participation in development. It briefly discusses why it is essential to integrate women in development and then discusses projects and programs that have actively sought to involve women - from planning and design, to implementation, maintenance and management. Finally, it attempts to draw some lessons of experience by way of conclusions.

II. WHY BE CONCERNED WITH PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT?

Issues of women in development (WID) were hardly area of concern in early development economics. It can be said that it was gender "blind". The current concern with WID is very much related to the quest for the resolution of the crisis of development economics. This has gone through a series, of phases of redefinition - 'growth with equity', redistribution with growth, 'basic needs', 'rural development' etc. It can be argued that the issues of women in development evolved as part of this global search for what constitute 'appropriate development' or people centered development for accelerating the economic development of developing countries.

Central to the problem of economic development is the issue of capital formation. Countries which successfully tackled this problem were/are able to achieve high rate of growth and economic transformation. This is accompanied by a general shift from a predominantly agrarian economy into an industrial one, in the process actively employing the hitherto under-employed resources - human and otherwise.

At the initial level of development agriculture constitutes the primary source of capital accumulation. The manner in which this is mobilized poses a challenge to developing countries like Ethiopia. Transformation of the agricultural sector means, to a large extent improving the productivity of labour.

In 1990/91 the rural population of Ethiopia is estimated at 50.1 million of which nearly 50% are women. They are engaged in wide agricultural activities. These range from food production, processing, preservation marketing and handcrafts. These are in addition to their household chores. These activities take 16-18 hours per-day inspite of the fact that society generally does not notice and value them.

Any development strategy, therefore, that neglects women will not be effective. This is for two reasons;- (1) resources

will not be fully mobilized and efficiently utilized, and (2) since development is not an end by itself but for people, social justice calls for increased and determined action to involve women into the development process.

Overall, this message was brought home in the study of the United Nation Development Programme - Human development Report 1990. It brings human development into the center stage of the socio-economic development of a country. The Report argues that human development is "the process of enlarging people's choices" and has two aspects:

"the formation of human capabilities - such as improved health, knowledge and skills - and the use people make of their acquired capabilities - for leisure, productive purposes or being active in cultural, social and political affairs. If the scales of human development do not finely balance the two sides, considerable human frustration may result"[UNDP 1990]

The Report further points out that recent development experience underscore that the growth of output and wealth is only a means not an end by itself. The end of development must be the well-being of people. "How to relate the means to the ultimate end should once again become the central focus of development analysis and planning". There is no better argument than this for the need of integrating women in development process. It is part of the process of enlarging people's choices.

Further, rapid GDP growth is necessary but not a sufficient condition for sustained economic development. A country can attain a respectable level of development by an effective social policy in its human resource development, although its national income level may be low.

According to the 1991 Human Development Report (HDR) Sri Lanka's per capita income is only US \$400. But its' life expectancy is about 71 years and its adult literacy rate 87 per cent. In comparison Brazil's per capita income is US \$2160. It's life expectancy is only 65.6 years and its adult literacy rate is 71 per cent. In Saudi Arabia which has a per capita income of US\$6200, life expectancy and adult literacy are 64.5 years and 58 per cent respectively. Brazil's per capita income is five times that of Sri Lanka while Saudi Arabia's is 15 times that of Sri Lanka. However, both Brazil and Saudi Arabia have a lower life expectancy and adult literacy rate than Sri Lanka.

TABLE 1: COMPARISON OF GNP PER CAPITA AND SELECTED SOCIAL INDICATORS

Country	GNP Per (US \$)	Life Expectancy (Years)	Adult Literacy (%)	Infant Mortality (per 1000 live births)
	1988	1990	1985	1989
<u>A. Modest GNP Per Capita with High Human Development</u>				
1. Sri Lanka	420	71.9	87	36
2. Thailand	1000	66.1	91	35
3. Jamaica	1070	73.1	82	21
4. Mauritius	1800	69.6	83	29
5. Costa Rica	1690	75.9	93	22
<u>B. High GNP Per Capita with Modest Human Development</u>				
1. Brazil	2160	65.6	79	85
2. Algeria	2360	65.1	49	102
3. Gabon	2970	52.5	56	167
4. Oman	5000	65.9	30	53
5. Saudi Arabia	6200	64.5	58	95

Source:- UNDP, Human Development Report 1991.

The lesson of this illustration is that economic growth often does not trickel down to the masses. It has to be augmented by well programmed social policies and expenditures on human resource development. This is the key to Sri Lanka's remarkable achievement.

Since women constitute a significant proportion of developing countries labour force and generally failed to adequately benefit from past development policies, developing countries should focus on women if there development strategy is to produce sustained economic development. This is an

uncontestable lesson we have learned from the development efforts of the last three decades. I think at this point in time, there is a growing consensus on this issue. Human resource development as the key strategic development agenda for the 1990s is accepted by developing countries as well as developed countries to face the challenge of poverty eradication.

III. GENDER ISSUES IN ETHIOPIA'S ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

The basic structural characteristics of the Ethiopian economy are low capital accumulation, low level of technological development, subsistence production and vulnerability to drought. This economic characteristics have not only maintained and intensified poverty but has also made particularly the rural population highly vulnerable to periodic dislocation, and famine.

Ethiopia's development challenge is to break out of this gripping vicious circle of low production - poverty-environmental degradation-accelarated poverty. A lot more remains to be done in particular to confront the central issues of low level of production and vulnerability. As such any development strategy, projects and programmes that are designed to tackle the fundamental issues of economic development of Ethiopia will have positive impact on women. Similarly, what ever is done to address the issues of women in development will contribute towards the socio-economic transformation of Ethiopia. Thus, women as area of development focus is not a separate category, but rather as essential to and part of the whole process of societal transformation.

It is not overstating to argue that no major shift in the socio-economic situation of women can be effected in so far as the economy remains structurally weak and so long as the non-agricultural sector of the economy remains narrow and so long as agriculture remains low productivity and subsistence oriented. It is this perspective that should provide the overall framework for integrating WID issues in the economic development of Ethiopia.

This perspective should also be viewed together with the international economic environment. External shocks are increasingly making it difficult for developing countries in executing development programs. A country may have a well thought out plan that reasonably addresses gender concerns in development. But its implementation could be frustrated by shock waves from the well known instability of export earnings of developing countries. This should be borne in mind in any discussion of gender concerns in development.

The seriousness of this external economic problem can be gauged from the case of Ethiopia's coffee export. In fiscal year 1988/89 export earnings from Coffee was Birr 626.4 million while in 1989/90 it was Birr 405.4 million - a drop of about 35 per cent or Birr 221 million. This sharp drop in coffee export earning was caused for all practical purposes by the collapse of World coffee price. The negative effect of this loss of foreign exchange on the pace of Ethiopia's development activities is quite apparent.

IV. Women and Current State of the Economy

Although much has been said, planned and attempted to change the underdevelopment of Ethiopia in the post-Imperial rule, Ethiopia's economy steadily moved from crisis to worse crisis. The 1980s particularly proved to be difficult years. Recurrent drought, the long and drawn out war in the northern part of Ethiopia, unfavorable international economic situations have all contributed to the emergence and deepening of the economic crisis in the 1980s which continued in to the 1990s in exacerbated form. The economic policies of the state created dis-incentives thereby, contributing to the economic difficulties. Overall, as the 1980s culminated and the 1990s began stagnation of economic growth, food shortages and dependence on external food aid, low savings and investment, balance of payments problems, unemployment and inflation have become the basic scene of the Ethiopian economy. Statistics will not tell much the depth of deprivation that affected the people as a result of the deepening crisis.

Given this continued macro economic crisis, and recalling the fact that in the 1980s and early years of 1990s GDP growth has been stagnating and per capita income has been declining, inevitably poverty in Ethiopia has got worse. Just like other members of the society women have been and are being affected by the growing mass poverty. However, given their relatively low socio-economic positions due to mainly cultural and social values, women are being disproportionately affected within the overall problems of poverty. Therefore, it is not difficult to realize that designing and implementing women focused **development programmes is as crucial as any other to tackle poverty.**

V. NATIONAL EXPERIENCE IN WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT

As indicated earlier, the U.N Decade for women have unleashed a number of activities both nationally and globally which have attempted to focus on the importance of the role of women to overall economic, social political and cultural development. They have resulted in a firm recognition that socio-economic development cannot be fully realized without the participation of women, both as actors and beneficiaries in all fields of life. There is growing broad consensus on this point. The issue revolves around how to do it in an effective manner. To date methodologies on how effectively reach women are inadequate and are in the process of evolution.

Awareness, sensitivity, commitment, and monitoring and evaluation of experiences are important elements for developing the approach to WLD and for it to be internalized and form part of effecting national development. Identification of national experience in women's participation in development and sensitization of the lessons of experience thereof will go a long way in contributing to the sensitization as well as to the refinement of approaches and strategy for enhancing women's participation in national development. This is what is attempted in this paper.

The identification of national experience in women's participation in development, cannot help, but be selective. Selectivity is dictated by availability of information as much as by the broadness of the subject and time constraints. The experiences identified here are not based on field research but were sifted from secondary data.

1. Sectors and Agencies That Have Programmes

Involving Women's Participation

Broadly defined national economic development process directly or indirectly involves women. But from this paper's interest points of view, this definition or approach is not good enough. We have to narrow our domain so that we can easily identify key sector's and agencies that have programmes involving women's participation. This is better treated by approaching it from the point of view of basic needs and or on a case studies basis. Accordingly, the relevant sectors are food and agriculture, education; health, water resource, energy and environment.

1.1. An Example from Malawi

Before going into the discussion of national experience, the paper would like to present experience of other African Countries to provide regional perspectives on what others have done and are doing. I refer here to the experience of Malawi, the Malawi Rural piped Water Program which was identified by the World Bank (1989) as one of the successful community participation in water supply. The World Bank has gone as far as observing that the Malawi Rural piped water program as being "one of the most successful and sustainable water program in Africa, with implications for other Sub-Saharan African Countries". The basic features of the water program are:

- a) strong community participation with limited, but well defined role and responsibilities of government
- b) began on a smaller scale, using technology that could be easily understood and maintained by local communities

- c) gradually expanded on the basis of experience attained and lessons learned regarding program design, execution and the appropriate technologies.

The Malawi Rural piped water program began, in 1968 in one community as a pilot project to gain experience. The program is also limited to areas where gravity-fed piped water could be possible, and the technology could be easily maintained. It was from here that it extended to other regions.

The Malawi program as noted earlier clearly differentiated the functions of community and government. The communities organize and manage the water supply facilities. Moreover, selection of sites, election of water committees and repair teams, organizing digging, mobilizing funds for replacement, and enforcing community water use rules falls within the domain of the responsibilities of communities.

On the other hand, the government's functions include providing initial investment, setting standards, conducting hydrological surveys, engineering design, materials supply and monitoring the performance of the system. Further, community members are trained by the government to ensure good maintenance.

One of the weaknesses, of great interest to us, which the World Bank clearly underscored was that the role of women in the Malawi Rural piped water program was not properly addressed. Women account for more than half of the self-help labour as well as two-third's of the committee members entrusted with the task of maintaining the tap. Despite this, women account only 10 per cent of the planning committee and repair teams. The planning committee is key in that it makes decisions on responsibilities and design. This clearly shows that women are under-represented in the decision making process.

1.2. National Experiences

The first national programme worth exploring is the Rural Integrated Basic Services (RIBS) which is being assisted by the UNICEF. RIBS is a multi-sectoral programme involving the participation of key sectors and ministries and attempts to address especially problems of children and women in rural Ethiopia. The following section provide an overview of the genesis and progress of RIBS.

1.2.1. Rural Integrated Basic Services (RIBS)

Inception of RIBS

RIBS grew out of the emergency relief and rehabilitation programme in Bale during 1979 following the dislocation created by the Somalia invasion of 1977-78. Besides the emergency created by the devastation of the war, drought struck the region intensifying the emergency. The people were in urgent need of food, shelter and health care requiring from all concerned coordinated response. This gave birth to the formation of Relief Committee whose members comprise sectoral ministries, NGO's and mass organizations at regional sub-regional and local levels. This coordinated action helped successfully manage and control the emergency situation. The next pertinent question faced was what then after relief? what should be done regarding issues of rehabilitation and development?

The concern to make the settled communities self-supporting in a short period of time as well as the need for integration and coordination of basic services at the village level cleared the way for the emergence of area-based integrated approach to the provision of social services. UNICEF immediately seized the

opportunity and not only played a catalytic role but also began to back it financially. RIBS began to take shape in 1984 and since then it is being managed jointly by ONCCP/MSU, UNICEF and project staff.

Objectives of RIBS

The objectives of RIBS are to (ONCCP/UNICEF 1989)

- a) promote the development and implementation of a range of mutually reinforcing services with the active involvement of communities;
- b) increase and strengthen the planning and management capacity of regional, sub-regional authorities and sector ministries in programme development, implementation and evaluation of sectoral inputs in a coordinated manner;
- c) increase the capacity of communities to actively participate in the planning, implementation, evaluation and management of basic services - health, nutrition, literacy, basic development education, and water with particular emphasis on child survival and development (CSD).

Organizational Aspects of RIBS

RIBS has organizational structure that goes up from the grass-roots to the national level. At the local community level there are village development committees (VDC). The VDC together with community general assemblies identify local needs and prioritize the projects which they recommend for inclusion in the coming year action plan.

The next body is the Awraja Steering Committees (ASC) which is chaired by the chairperson of the 'Shengo'. Similarly, at the Regional level there are Regional Steering Committees (RSC) which are chaired by the chairperson of the regional 'Shengo'. Steering committees plan, coordinate, implement and evaluate development programmes.

At the national level, the Multi-Sectoral Unit (msu) within ONCCP. is responsible for coordination function through the regional offices of the planning committee. The MSU, in cooperation with the RIBS Section of UNICEF reviews proposed annual plans, ensures that priority is given to the interests of children and women and finally approves them at the central level. The organizational link between the Steering committees is vertical, facilitating coordination and accountability.

The RSCs and ASCs allocate resources among different projects based on the needs and priorities of local communities made known to them through VDCs. In so doing they also take into consideration sectoral ministries commitment to undertake projects. Assistance from UNICEF is also allocated by RSCs and ASCs. Sectoral ministries cooperate with VDCs to implement approved projects with the active involvement of the benefiting communities.

Members of ASCs include:

- . Chairperson of the "Shengo"
- . Planning Office
- . Ministry of Education
- . Ministry of Agriculture
- . Ministry of Health
- . Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
- . Water Works Construction Authority (RWCA)
- . Water Supply and Sewrage Authority (WASSA)
- . Peasant's Association (currently dis banned)
- . Women's Association (" " ")
- . Youth Association (" " ")

The membership is open ended in that other relevant governmental and non-governmental organizations can be enlisted if and when necessary. The membership clearly shows the importance of cooperation, coordination and multi-sectorality of RIBS. But with the new political developments and the subsequent

break-up of peasant's, women's and youth associations have weakened RIBS local roots with serious implication for its operation and expansion.

RIBS Area Coverage

RIBS currently operate in 5 Administrative Regions. The present area coverage of RIBS are:

- a) Bale Administrative Region in 5 Awrajas in 1983/84.
- b) West-Gojjam Administrative Region (AR) in 10 Awrajas in 1985.
- c) Illubabor AR in 16 Awrajas in 1985.
- d) North-Omo AR in 3 Awrajas out of 18 in 1990.
- e) East-Shoa AR in one Awraja out of 6 Awrajas in 1991.

In Bale RIBS Projects exist in 35 per cent of peasant associations (PAs); in Illubabor 23 per cent of PAs; in West-Gojjam in 31 per cent of PAs; in North-Omo about 17 per cent, of PAs, and in East Shoa 28 per cent of PAs.

Project Components of RIBS

RIBS Project Components include;

- a) primary health care
- b) water supply and sanitation
- c) nutrition and food security
- d) appropriate technology and income generating activities
- e) leadership and skills development
- f) child development and education
- g) environmental protection, especially community forest, and
- h) advocacy functions.

The project components of RIBS also clearly show the multi-purpose and multi-sectoral nature of RIBS which in turn underscores the crucial importance of inter-sectoral cooperation and coordination.

Progress and Achievements of RIBS

A couple of evaluation have been conducted to assess the progress of RIBS - one in 1987 and the other in 1990. The general conclusions reached by both evaluations were that RIBS has solid achievements in its project area. The 1990 RIBS evaluation report noted that since 1985 RIBS has succeeded in generating:

- a) "an approach to rural development that rightly deserves to be called community based;" and
- b) "workable organizational structures which articulate with government and peasant structures".

The Report further stated that:

"RIBS has certainly improved the welfare of children and women in the participating communities viz. it has reduced female labour in grinding cereals, provided stimulating environment for young children through Daycare centers, increased the availability of health services for children and women through establishment of health posts, manned by community health agents, provided safe water, taken action to improve nutrition, and has introduced new sources of income". (ONCCP/UNICEF 1990).

The positive achievements of RIBS could also be gauged from the increasing number and type of projects established in RIBS regions. RIBS projects in Illubabor (1985-89) is a good illustration. In 1985 when RIBS commenced its activities in Illubabor it implemented only 9 projects. This grew to 80 in 1987 and to 371 in 1989-showing rapid growth in activities.

RIBS Project, Illubabor, 1985-89

<u>Type of Project</u>	<u>1985</u>	<u>1986</u>	<u>1987</u>	<u>1988</u>	<u>1989</u>	<u>Total</u>
1. Grinding Mills	3	3	-	26	46	78
2. Spring Protection	5	11	28	32	32	108
3. Hand pumps/wells	-	9	5	9	5	28
4. Bee-Keeping						
.No. of Sites	-	1	13	2	14	30
.No. of Hives	-	35	342	116	266	759
5. Health Posts	-	-	-	50	213	263
6. Daycare Centers	-	4	4	10	15	33
7. Horticulture						
.No. of Sites	1	22	19	36	23	101
.Area (hectares)	2.5	19.5	36.75	73	75.5	207.25
8. Afforestation						
.No. of Sites	-	-	11	37	23	71
.Area (hectares)	-	-	38	111	114	263
9. Total No. of Projects	<u>9</u>	<u>50</u>	<u>80</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>371</u>	<u>712</u>

Source: ONCCP/UNICEF, The 1990 Evaluation of the Rural Integrated Basic Services (RIBS), November, 1990.

In terms of number of projects, health posts (263) are the most frequent. This is followed by water projects numbering 136. This are mainly in the form of spring protection. Horticultural projects number 101, grinding mills 78, afforestation projects 71, daycare centers 33, and bee-keeping projects 30.

Overall, during the 1985-90 period, the major measurable achievements of the RIBS projects were:

- a) 442 PAs have organized community health services by establishing health posts manned by community health agents (CHAs) and trained traditional birth attendants (TBAs)
- b) 97 PAs have established daycare centers to benefit from the service
- c) 412 thousand people were made to have access to safe water supply
- d) Households and elementary schools in 470 PAs have started horticultural development. Nutrition education is an integral part of the project and the surplus vegetables are used as source of income for the households.

- e) More than 715 thousand people derive benefit from installed grinding mills. The significance of this for women is clear enough. Besides, the mills are generating income for the community which is being used to strengthen and or establish other basic services.
- f) More than 10 million tree seedlings have been planted as part of development of community forestry.

It will be incomplete just to mention positive aspects alone. RIBS is not without its share of weakness. As pointed out in the 1990's RIBS evaluation report certain aspects of the nutrition programme and the gender component needs to be further enhanced. Further, technical and financial issues at the local level also require closer attention. However, the Report underscored that "these do not overshadow its strengths".

Financing RIBS

Financing RIBS basically relies on three sources of finance-government, UNICEF and Communities. Government's contribution is mainly in the form of technical support while communities contribute in the form of labour and materials. UNICEF provides basically financial contribution. For the years beginning 1985 to the first half of 1991 UNICEF's monetary and materials contribution has reached Birr 16.38 million. Adding 25 per cent for communities contribution (in labour and kind), and 24 per cent for government's technical contribution brings the total outlay to about Birr 24.88 million. To provide an overview of the scale of RIBS annual budget, the 1991 RIBS allocation by project and region is shown below.

1991 RIBS ALLOCATION BY PROJECT AND REGION

PROJECT	WEST		NORTH		EAST		TOTAL
	SOJJAM	ILLUBABOR	OMO	BALE	SHEWA	SOJJAM*	
Health General	105044	106881	52853	82756	54424	48402	450360
Water & Sanitation	97986	194502	125301		299856	17025	734670
Household Food Security	105691	184408	219775		42820	30048	582742
Income Generation	52400	83787	58060		28723	4208	227178
Energy	373388	196448	44021		61495	86383	761735
Environment	60952	40863	60000		23926	24502	210243
Day Care Centre	53867	71680	16346		-	35075	176968
Advocacy	50000	67000	47432	28000	-	-	192432
Proj. Support (Regions)	237319	388574	121508	50000	163729	139448	1100578
Total For Regions	1136647	1334143	745296	160756	674973	385091	4426906
Addis Ababa Office							417244
TOTAL RIBS ALLOCATION							4854
% Allocation by Region	23.4	27.5	15.4	3.3	13.9	7.9	

1.2.2. Abomsa Water Supply Project

Background

This section is based on evaluation report of Abomsa Water Supply Project by Johnson and Aberra (1987) for UNICEF. The Abomsa Water Supply Project grew out of the desire of the town administration of Abomsa to supply water for the town. This was in the early years of 1980 and the water was to come from an infiltration gallery in the nearby Ferekaso river. The National Water Resources Commission designed the project and allocated 160,000 Birr for the installation. The installation works were conducted from June 1980 to June 1982 by the Water Development Section of Arsi Rural Development Unit (ARDU).

A reservoir was built from where water was piped to 11 distribution points located in different parts of the town. To fill the reservoir a diesel engine was used to pump up water from the river.

After the water project began to give its services frequent breakages of the water supply system occurred due to technical problems. Further, the water contained impurities contributing to the prevalence of water-borne diseases. Eventually the water supply completely broke down, necessitating the search for alternative source.

Accordingly the water section of ARDU made a technical survey in which it located a spring 5 kms outside the town. This could be connected to the reservoir already in use by use of gravity. Spring clearing, capping, pipeline and supporting structures as well as training component of water management and home science were estimated to cost 240,000 Birr.

Funding for the project came from the Towns Administration, Women's Association and ARDU who together contributed about 81000 Birr. This time UNICRF's involvement also came with contribution that amounted 160,000 Birr.

Participation of Women in the Project

Water fetching, as we all know, is a time consuming and burdensome task that our sisters and mothers daily shoulder and therefore the most felt need to be addressed.

Quite correctly one of the main objectives of the Water Supply Project was to involve women all the way from planning, implementation to maintaining and managing the project. It was also envisaged to begin income generating activities in which women could be engaged using the time they saved from fetching water. For the purpose it was agreed that 25 per cent of the profit from the water project be transferred to the Awraja branch of the Ethiopian Women's Association (REWA).

In view of this REWA took the main responsibility in the planning, implementation and managing the project. This led to the selection of 19 women to receive special training on pipe work, maintainance, elementary accounting, and management of the water project. This training, given by ARDU, lasted for 3 months.

In order to create conducive environment for the project 64 women were also trained in general home economics, including income generating activities as well as use of labour, and energy - saving devices offered so as to alleviate the burdensome task of women. This was also accompanied by general education in basic sanitation and health.

The Implementation of the Project

The Water Engineering Section of ARDU worked out the project proposal while the Ministry of Agriculture's Agricultural Development Department gave the go ahead with the implementation. To oversee this, a committee was established comprising representative of REWA, Abomsa Town Administration, Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Health, and others concerned. The committee defined the role each member would play to effect the implementation of the project.

The enthusiasm shown and the active involvement of the community was recorded to be heartening, the community provided 12,500 man-days free. The water supply project officially began to give service at the end of September 1984. At the ceremony the trained women demonstrated their skill in pipe and water management.

The Benefits of the Water Project

One of the objectives of the Water Project, i.e. supply of safe and adequate water, is met partially. Partial, because the supply was not adequate as pointed out by an evaluation of the Abomsa Water Project.

However, the important thing to underscore is that the availability of safe drinking water within a short distance of each household is of crucial importance to women and children who bore the burden of fetching water. The evaluation study noted that the distance people covered, on average, to and from the river was 1100 meters. After the project the average distance to the pipe was 300 meters.

The benefit that the community got is not only in the form of reduced physical burden, but also in the form of time saved by the town's people especially by women. In this respect the evaluation found out that 76 percent of those interviewed indicated saving time which they used it for alternative activities such as attending school and literacy, basketry, spinning, weaving, etc.

The economic benefits have not been satisfactory. This was mainly due to low income and low profit from the sale of water compared to initial projection. Part of the profit was meant to be allocated for carrying out development and income generating activities that would benefit women and children particularly.

The Abomsa Water Project has also entailed health and social effects. The women have proved, through their active participation in the Abomsa Water Project, that they are able to manage a development project. The attitudinal change brought about by the participation of women is quite significant. Residents who think women and men are equal and women should come out of their house and take responsibility on equal basis like men were quite considerable.

The Abomsa Water Project, however, was not free of problems especially regarding operations. The major problems of operations include breakdown of the pipeline and related maintenance work as well as personnel administration.

1.2.3. The Dodota Water Supply Project (DWSP)

This section is wholly based on an evaluation report by Eva Poluha, et al, on DWSP's impact, sustainability and replicability (1989).

Back ground

Dodota is located in the Chilalo Awraja in the Arsi Administrative region. DWSP is basically a project with women as it's central focus. The project began in 1980 and was implemented during 1982-1986. The project idea grew out of the comparative study commissioned by SIDA between September 1979 and May 1980- Dodota in Arsi and Dangla in Gojam. The resolution of water supply problem was based on the identified needs of women. The women felt that nothing is more important than solving problem of water.

The project from the very beginning believed that it is not simply enough to supply women with drinking water. But they should be actively envolved in need identification, construction maintenance and management of the project. For this training was understood to be a necessary component of the project.

The project initially had to go through series of reviews and winning support within SIDA. Initially the financing prospect was not good, although SIDA finally decided to finance the project.

Objective of DWSP

In order to implement DWSP as women's project REWA approached SIDA for assistance. The project proposal was prepared by ARDU. An agreement was signed between SIDA and REWA in December 1982. REWA was made to take charge of the project with responsibility for planning, implementation, management, operation and maintenance. ARDU, in turn, was made responsible for the project's implementation together with meeting the training requirements of women in the area.

In the project proposal submitted by REWA in March 1982, the stated objectives were:

- a) to supply clean water at a reasonable walking distance of up to 2.5 km.
- b) to partly release about 8000 women from the burdensome task of drawing water and thereby allow them to participate actively in more productive work
- c) to provide an adequate supply of water in order to encourage personal and household hygiene.

Project Design

ARDU played crucial role in developing and designing the project. The project design was based on drawing water from sources at Furso, using a piped gravity system, distributing it to the Dodota plain. The system passes through two towns ie Huruta and Dhera.

From its very inception, the project was designed to actively seek participation of local women and women's group of the community in the planning, construction, operation and maintenance. Women of Dodota were to be given special training at ARDU on pump maintainance, repair, management and accounting. The project was to be owned by women in the area and after

the completion of training, women were to be able to take water supply jobs as attendants, tap pump caretakers, water-fee collectors or book-keepers.

Since the project was designed on a cost recovery basis, the local people were to pay for their water consumption. The income from the water project was to be used for new income-generating development projects, for the benefit of the women in Dodota.

Further DWSP was designed to be implemented in three phases. The construction work began in 1982. The first phase was completed in January 1984, while the second phase in May 1984. The third phase, in turn, was completed in December 1986 after a delay due to villagization programme and the drought emergency of 1984/85.

Organizational Aspects of DWSP

The design and implementation of DWSP necessitated sound planning and effective coordination and as such organizational matters received close attention from the very beginning. The then Central Planning Supreme Council (CPSC) gave overall directives on the organizational structures of DWSP.

This led to the establishment of a Steering Committee. The members of the Steering Committee were:

- a) Arsi Rural Dev't Unit - Chairperson
- b) REWA
- c) Water Resource Commission
- d) Arsi Regional Administration
- e) Central Planning Supreme Council

The main tasks of the committee were to coordinate, control, guide and plan the project activities. In carrying out these responsibilities the Steering Committee was supported by two operational committees. They were:

- a) The Technical Committee - whose members were composed of ARDU's technical departments-engineering, extension, training, planning and evaluation; and
- b) Manpower and Resources Coordinating Committee - was chaired by the regional administrator and the regional REWA was its secretary. It was this committee who was responsible for the collection of cash contributions in Dodota Woreda and also for mobilizing the necessary labour for the project.

Financing DWSP

The final budget of DWSP, amounted to Birr 3.02 million. The share of SIDA was set at 68 per cent. The remaining share was to be supplied by ARDU and REWA in kind while the inhabitants of Dodota in both cash and kind.

The disbursements for the project finally came to the order of Birr 2.38 million - implying that the project utilized only 79 per cent of the budget.

Impact of DWSP

According to the evaluation of DWSP, its impact on Dodota population is generally deemed positive and exemplary.

For those people who live within the scheme of the project, the objectives of DWSP, as stipulated in the plan of operations, have been achieved. People have now access to close and safe drinking water. Water is used for drinking as well as personal hygiene. The people feel that their health has improved since the introduction of the project. This is more apparent in the case of women and children.

Further, it also entailed saving of labour time of women which created opportunities for gardening, raising of small stock, education and other social activities.

The social attitudinal change brought about by the training of women is more than expected. The women trained are being seen as role model, and the women of the community now see the training and the subsequent employment as a positive goal worth working for. SIDA's 1989 Evaluation Report even goes as far as stating that DWSP "points to what might become a new model in the area".

According to the Evaluation Report, this is mainly due to the fact that:

- 1) "there is local recognition of the need for change"
- 2) "the responsibility for change is delegated to those most directly affected"
- 3) "a training component is introduced which enables those who are responsible to carry out their responsibility"
- 4) "it makes change "pay", providing jobs and salaries for those taking the responsibility".

With regard to technical impact, it is running smoothly, and the project personnel well trained. The technical component is deemed as providing sustainability.

As far as financial impact is concerned, the Evaluation Report has pointed out that DWSP has no dependable budgeting system, and this problem, if allowed to continue, endangers the cost recovery of the project. But, on the other hand, DWSP is considered as one of "the most cost-efficient water projects that SIDA has been involved in."

1.3. Donors Support for WID

Multilateral and bilateral donors as well as non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are increasingly supporting development programs with explicit focus on women. This ranges from active advocaey to planning and execution of programs with the active participation of women. The UN agencies, the Swedish International Development Association (SIDA), the Canadian International Development Association (CIDA), and such NGO donors as Christian Relief and Development Association (CRDA), Oxfam, Concern etc. sensitize, and fund projects especially in health and nutrition, education/training, agriculture/forestry, and water supply. The following are a very small samples of activities with strong focus on women, that have been and are being supported by donors. They represent the tip of the iceberg and were mainly based on the World Bank WID assessment of Ethiopia (1989).

A. UN Agencies/other donors

1. UNICEF

S u p p o r t t o Sectors/Programs/Institutions

* Women and Children specific projects in MOH, MOA, MOLSA, REWA.

2. UNESCO

* Carried studies on the education of women with MOE.

3. UNDP

* No specific WID program plays coordinating roles for UN agencies in Ethiopia.

* Sensitization, and support for UNSO fuel project in Debre Berhan in cooperation with UNIFEM.

4. FAO

* Works with MOA in rehabilitation program

5. ILO

- * with revolving credit component targeted to household heads and housewives.
- * Training in WID to NGOs working with MOA.
- * Supported RRC to strengthen its Home Economics Programs to effectively address the needs of Women in resettlement programs.

6. SIDA

- * Have been collecting data on women's employment
- * Collaborated with the World Bank and MOME in finishing a cooking efficiency planning project, developing an improved Charcoal stove for urban women.
- * Water development project with REWA in the Dodota village, Arsi, with a maintenance training and income generation components.
- * Supports MOE Adult Education Program to strengthen the Community Skills Training Center (CSTC).
- * Afforestation program in Wallo will include specific component for women.

7. The World Bank/IDA

- * Support to fuel efficient stoves under the Energy Project.
- * Community forestry
- * Market Towns Project
- * Institutional capacity to address WID issues, and
- * Advocacy

B. NGOs

8. CONCERN

- * Development of Rural infrastructure - clinics, schools, roads, water

9. OXFAM (UK)

- * supply.
- * Afforestation, soil conservation and agricultural extension
- * Provides agricultural inputs for households heads
- * Grinding mills to some PAs/SCs in resettlement projects.
- * Supports in agricultural rehabilitation programs and provides agricultural credits.
- * Assists in development of rural water supplies.
- * Strengthened its staffing to focus on developing WID programs.

10. OXFAM (USA)

- * Cooperates in agricultural credit program in Hararghe
- * A mud - stone and bricks project in Gonder target women as beneficiaries
- * Feasibility study of wool processing as an income-generating program for women in sheep-raising communities in Shoa and Wollo.

11. Save the Children Federation (SCF-USA)

- * A credit program for rural families to support family income.
- * community development program to encourage the participation of women in education.

12. The Food and Agriculture Research Mission (FARM)

- * Dairy goat development project, targetting rural women.

13. Family Development Education Project (FADEP)

- * Family development through functional adult education programs.
- * Support to Community self-help activities in agriculture, rural infrastructures, cottage industries.

14. The Ethiopian Evangelical
Church of Mekane Yesus

* Support to appropriate technologies to reduce women's burden.

* Supports agricultural developments.

* Environmental rehabilitation, small-scale irrigation, and promotion of drought resistance crops have training components which is accessible to both men and women.

15. ORDA

* Supports rural water supplies, agricultural inputs to drought victims, rural technology, health services and training.

16. The Ford Foundation

* Provided funding for a pilot project of local skill development for women employees of Addis Ababa University.

IV. LESSONS OF EXPERIENCE: BY WAY OF CONCLUSION

Much ground has been covered regarding WID since the UN Decade of women ranging from advocacy to formulating, implementing and managing development projects in which women took main responsibility and were main beneficiaries.

Like other developing countries Ethiopia is increasingly paying attention to women's participation in development. Government agencies, multilateral and bilateral donors, and non-governmental organizations are actively involved not only in advocacy, but also in designing and implementing development projects with focus on women.

Women are taken as focus not only as beneficiaries, but also as the principal actors in identifying local needs, in project design, in implementation, and upon completion in maintaining and managing the development projects. This brief paper has attempted to identify a very few of the growing national experience -ie RIBS, AWSP, and DWSP. What do these few projects teach us for enhancing women's participation in development in the process of facing the challenge of Ethiopia's development? There are a number of important lessons to be learned from the above projects. These are:

1. It is crucially important to identify the target beneficiaries and place responsibility with them starting from need identification all the way to

maintenance and management. This was the strength of DWSP. As evaluations has showed that AWSP has had weakness in this area as reflected in serious operational problems of the water project. The slues of concern, responsibility, and investment by the community especially by the target beneficiaries will go a long-way to ensuring sustainability of the project. It is instructive to appreciate here the main conclusions of DWSP evaluation report. It concluded that:

"Although responsibility and concern cannot be artificially constructed or planned into a project, they are absolutely vital to its success. therefore, every project should try to make it possible for the different categories of beneficiaries to both make their own priorities, with which they can later identify, and to shoulder the responsibility for activities once started." [Poluha, 1989]

2. Specialized and goal oriented training greatly contributed to project sustainability. This is not the only positive aspect. Training of women in all the projects identified have brought about attitudinal change in the society - thus paving the way for future development participation of women.
3. In terms of approach to tackling problems of rural areas, RIBS has a lot to offer and it focuses on inter-sectoral approach to community problems. It is a bottom-up approach and is community based at all phases

of the project cycle. One interesting features of RIBS is that it uses income generating activities to finance social services for the community. Evaluations so far conducted generally point out that "RIBS approach has much to offer as a development model to potential donors and government." [O'Leary, 1990]

4. The financial management of the commissioned projects have generally shown obvious weakness, in certain case threatening sustainability. Future project design ought to give particular attention to incorporating proper budget system. The idea of savings and investment should be made to prevail with those involved in the project design, implementation, maintenance and management. People involved in the project should realize that resources are scarce and have to be replaced.

5. While community participation is crucial to project success, it is also equally important to clearly define the duties and responsibilities of each of the participation various community groups. Active participation of community without clearly defined duties and responsibilities will not be effective and will not be source of sustainability of the initiated project.

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Hand out No. II

6

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC POTENTIAL OF ETHIOPIAN WOMEN
FOR PARTICIPATORY DEVELOPMENT

By

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November 1991

Addis Ababa

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SANITATION (IRC)

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Social and Economic Potential of Ethiopian Women
for Participatory Development

Introduction:

In this paper an attempt has been made to discuss the importance of people's participation in development projects to ensure their sustainability and community ownership. The role of Ethiopian women in development and the various legal, social, economic and cultural barriers that limit their participation have been reviewed. Some general suggestions have been put forward to improve their participation in development in general and in water projects in particular.

1. Rationale for People's Participation in Development

Participation, it is argued, is both a means and an end. As an instrument of development, participation serves as a driving force for people to get committed to the task under consideration. As an end in itself, participation is the fundamental right of the people to fully and effectively participate in the decisions which affect their lives. People's participation is the foundation for self-reliant and self-sustaining processes of development. According to Proj. Adebayo Adedeji

"It is the engine for launching the processes for economic transformation of the structures and material attributes of a society. Authentic, self-reliant processes of development inevitably result in the transformation of the people who bring about the change -- their culture, their attitudes to work, their saving and investment habits, their concepts and skills and their social systems. Genuine self-reliant development of an economy brings in its trail this process of self-transformation of the people."^{1/}

In February 1990, an international Conference on Popular Participation in the Recovery and Development Process in Africa was held in Arusha, Tanzania. At the close of the Conference, an African Charter for Popular Participation in Development and Transformation was drawn up.

Article 11 of the Charter reads:

"We believe strongly that Popular Participation is, in essence, the empowerment of the people to effectively involve themselves in creating the structures and in designing policies and programmes that serve the interests of all as well as to effectively contribute to the development process and share equitably in its benefits. Therefore, there must be an opening up of political process to accommodate freedom of opinions, tolerate differences, accept consensus on issues as well as ensure the effective participation of the people and their organizations and associations. This requires action on the part of all, first and foremost of the people themselves."^{2/}

Below are some reasons advanced for people's participation in development.^{3/}

- Participation in decision making process in matters that affect one's life is a fundamental human right;
- With participation, more could be accomplished;
- With participation, services can get provided at a lower cost;
- Participation has an intrinsic value for participants;
- Participation is a catalyst for further development;
- Participation encourages a sense of responsibility;
- Participation guarantees that a felt-need is involved;
- Participation ensures things are done the right way;
- Participation uses valuable indigenous knowledge;
- Participation frees people from dependence on others skills;
- Participation makes people conscious of the causes of their poverty/situation and what they can do about it.

Experiences show that people organize best around important issues they consider vital. They can also make rational decisions in the context of their environment. When people contribute to a project their labour, time, material and money, they identify themselves with the project and build a sense of ownership. Participation can contribute to the breaking of paternalism which characterize the relationship between aid giving agencies and communities leading to local inertness and dependency. It is through participation that people learn and appreciate and even "contest government/donor policies and procedures" that have a direct bearing on their lives.

People's participation is not simple attendance of meetings or even labour contributions. Meaningful participation involves a systematic empowerment of the people through decision-making processes on issues that affect their lives. Participation is, in a sense, an "eye-opener" for inhabitants to local realities, possibilities and their potential to deal with them so as to bring about sustainable development, organized action minimizes risks, ensures economies of scale, enhances project sustainability, and creates appropriate conditions for outside assistance.

It should be admitted that creating effective participation is no easy matter. There is no simple formula or blue print for an effective participation although there is a growing body of knowledge providing indications of how to proceed. Participation, it should be noted, may be influenced by a host of factors -- physical factors, composition of would-be-participants, cultural factors, type of project, time, people's level of consciousness, resources, approach of sponsor agency, etc.

Two schools of thought on participation modality are advanced in this regard. Planners and managers tend to emphasize the blueprint approach recommending predetermined technologies and intervention techniques for known problems and that projects are simply vehicles for application to the solution of problems. The process approach, by contrast, assumes considerable uncertainty and places emphasis on pragmatism with the need to redesign, review and adapt to changing circumstances. It is argued that the "process" approach has the following strengths and potentials.^{3/}

- It is rooted in dialogue with the rural population and is responsive to local needs and potential.
- It is based on learning and capacity building and can promote self-sustained development.
- It promotes ownership of projects by the community.
- It avoids negative side effects by eliminating inappropriate design components.

Based on empirical experience, students of development recommend that for a successful community participation the following points serve as rubrics.

- Awareness raising/conscientization be given priority attention.
- A project should start with small
- Beneficiaries make a resource commitment to the project.
- Peasant organization fully participate in project preparation and implementation.
- Project planning and implementation follow a process approach.

2. Situation of Ethiopian Women:

According to the Central Statistical Office (CSO), women constitute fifty percent of the population. Despite this fact, the well-being of women lags behind that of men when judged from various social and economic indicators. Their participation in public life is also very much limited. Women constitute one of the most vulnerable, powerless and oppressed population groups.

Some social indicators both quantitative and qualitative show that women are marginalized in almost all social development spheres.

- Rural women work 15 to 18 hours a day.
- They are responsible for 50 percent of subsistence agriculture -- transporting crops from farm to home, storing and processing food crops.
- Their energy levels are reduced by the burdensome, time consuming and tedious domestic chores which take up 80 percent of women's time.
- They are responsible for fetching water and fire-wood from distant sources. Some studies have revealed that there are instances where village women spend more than 8 hours a day hauling water, fire-wood and preparing food.
- Women are responsible for budgeting the household resources.
- Only one-third of all school enrollments are female with high drop-out rates.
- Few (18%) urban women have employment in the formal sector for lack of appropriate skills. More than twice as many urban women as men are unemployed.
- Very few women have access to and control of resources due to the traditional outlook that bars women from owning property. Women are subservient to their husbands and do not own land.
- Women generally have little or no access to credit institutions in rural areas. In 1985 out of 4.5 million service cooperative members only 7 percent were women, showing the limited access of women to credit schemes. Credit facilities were channelled through service Cooperatives.

- Family Code and Pension laws are oppressive legal instruments that vitiate women's equality with men.

Women are adversely affected by multifarious factors -- lack of decision making power, little or no education leading to low level of consciousness and low income, division of labour based on gender, harmful traditional attitudes and practices buttressed by legal institutions, lack of appropriate technologies to ease their burden for discharging their duties, lack of access to productive assets, high fertility due to lack of access to family planning services, little or no access to appropriate health services and inadequate nutrition. Women's powerlessness can be attributed to the cumulative effects of these factors. To empower women, these barriers should be removed. Women's access to social and economic services should be promoted. Women's awareness of their environment and potential should be raised. Conducive environment should be created to enable women to participate in development activities including water projects.

3. Barriers to Women's Participation:

To empower women to participate in development efforts, a thorough understanding of their situation is of paramount importance. There are many factors that limit women's participation in development and depress their situation. A few are mentioned below:

a) The formal laws

The Ethiopian Civil Code of 1960 defines marriage and family thus regulating relationships between household members especially between the husband and the wife. According to the Civil Code, the husband is the head of the family and is entitled to:

- a) exact obedience from his wife
- b) guides family management
- c) establishes the common residence
- d) protects and guides his wife's conduct
- e) restricts his wife's choice of occupation
- f) administers the common property.

In general, the Civil Code establishes the husband's dominance in family relations. In fact the law entitles him to claim damages from a tortfeasor in cases where she sustains injury which renders her less useful or agreeable (Art. 2115). In this case the wife is regarded as a chattel. The above legal provisions and traditional attitudes and practices depress the status of women as will be seen later. Fortunately, most of the above provisions which are biased in favour of men are not exercised widely before the courts of law although this does not mean that women are fairly treated.

b) General deprivation and abject poverty

Most urban and rural families wallow in abject poverty with little or no socio-economic services. The effects of food insecurity falls differentially on groups sensitive to changes in food supply, namely, children and women. Inadequacy of services such as health care, family planning, safe water supply, housing, domestic energy supply, nutrition, education and employment are problems that affect the population in general and poor women in particular. Abject poverty does not only place burden on the most vulnerable members of the family but also contributes to family disintegration particularly in urban areas. Household food security continues to be a concern of paramount importance in both urban and rural areas.

The mother, in any traditional society like ours, in addition to her reproductive role, carries out multiple duties at the expense of her physical, mental and spiritual welfare. Child care-giving and socialization, in the main, is the responsibility of the mother. If she survives the stresses of pregnancy and child birth, she has an endless list of domestic chores which she sacrificially attends to while being the centre of intra-family competition and co-operation.

It is evident that the role of the mother is of crucial importance in shaping the personality of the child by providing maternal love. The mother needs an enabling social and economic environment to be able to provide this most needed physical and psycho-social care to her child. However, the Ethiopian mother is faced with complex barriers to realize her potential.

During her fertile years, the Ethiopian woman bears on the average 6.8 children. Her married and reproductive role starts early between the ages 12 to 14 years. She begins her reproductive life marginally nourished, and before she completes her own growth and development.

c. Impact of harmful traditional attitudes and practices

Rural areas of Ethiopia in particular are inundated with harmful traditional attitudes and practices which are both prejudicial and harmful to women. These harmful practices depress the status of women in society thus making them subservient to men and in some cases mere chattels.

i) Attitudes and philosophical statements

- "Woman's work" - derisively spoken
- "Women's talk" - vulgar/trivial talk
- "He is a woman" - coward
- "women and donkeys need the stick"
- "Women have tongues round their neck"

ii) Harmful cultural Practices

- Arranged marriage
- Marriage by kidnap
- Polygamous marriage
- Early marriage
- Exchange of sisters instead of a dowry
- High value attached to virginity, hence infibulation
- Female circumcision
- Infertility leading to divorce (women blamed)
- Divorce/husband's death: Return of dowry/marry brother-in-law
- Excessive respect for husbands -- serving them on their knees.

iii) Biological related harmful practices

- Taboos related to blood - menstruation , child delivery, etc affecting the well-being of women especially in backward communities.
- Abstinence from certain foods during pregnancy.

iv) Rigid division of labour on gender lines

Rural women in Ethiopia are overworked and depleted physically, mentally and emotionally at the end of the day. Studies carried out in Gojjam and Illubabor have indicated that rural women spend from 12-14 hours a day carrying out different arduous tasks. These activities range from tedious household chores to agricultural work. Of these, food preparation takes on average 4 hours. Women's duties include agricultural activities, child carrying (a parallel activity), food processing, coffee preparation, cotton processing, beer brewing, collection of fuel wood and water from distant sources, marketing, basketing making, animal care, washing, cleaning and tidying houses. 4/.

In this study 18 different activities were listed down over a space of 15 hours, that is, from 6:00 a.m. in the morning to 9:00 p.m. in the night. The study has revealed that women found collection of fuel wood and water, grinding grains on the traditional stone and agricultural activities, the most burdensome. In water fetching, on average, women carried 77% of their body weight. In some cases the weight carried by some women was beyond belief when compared with their body weight. A 65 year old woman weighing only 40 kilos was found carrying 38 kilos or 95% of her body weight on her back, the empty water container (pot) weighing 9 kilos.

4. Women's Participation in Water Supply and Sanitation Projects:

From the preceding discussions, we have observed that Ethiopian women in general and rural women in particular work and live under very difficult circumstances. Norms on the division of labour on gender lines is defined for children in their early childhood. The mother assumes responsibility for the up-bringing of girls who are trained in the preparation of food, local drinks, production of local handicrafts, and other domestic skills that will enable them to be good house wives. When the boy reaches four, the father assumes responsibility for the boy's instruction and training, assigning him to activities outside of the home that are exclusively the domain of man.

Generally, women are not encouraged to speak in public. A woman of virtue is one who keeps silent in public. This social attitude tends to foster shyness and introversion in women. Consequently, most women find it difficult to express themselves in public. This culturally inculcated attitude and behavior and the various enervating factors that inhibit women's participation in public should be removed if rural women are expected to participate in development projects in general and water supply schemes in particular.

Women have close association with water. Tradition has placed on them the responsibility of fetching water for drinking and domestic use. Women travel long distances carrying containers on average weighing 77% of their body weight often up-hill. In most cases such water is polluted and unsafe for human consumption. Creating appropriate conditions for women to actively participate in water supply and sanitation projects will have considerable positive implications for their well-being and the community in general.

- Enables women to have a say in or influence decisions that have a direct bearing on their lives and their family. This is in itself an exercise of their democratic rights.

- Participation in water supply schemes would contribute to the building of women's awareness of their situation and potential for possible action. Women would get stimulating environment from each other to meet their common needs and solve their common problems.

It would enable them to have access to safe water within reasonable distance.

- Installation of water facilities close to their homes would save their time and energy which they can use for other productive activities.
- Improved water supply would contribute to the improved health status of the family. Women would have longer life expectancy.
- Women's participation would improve their understanding of preventive health measures through better water management.
- Women's participation would facilitate the installation of facilities that are acceptable to them without imposition.
- Women's participation if linked with training would ensure the continued functioning of water facilities.
- Participation would acquaint them with government policies and programmes as related to water supply and sanitation.
- Water facilities within easy walking distance would improve school attendance especially for children involved in water carrying.
- Women's participation would improve environmental knowledge and concern to preserve and improve environmental conditions.

- Access to safe water would improve personal and environmental health thereby reducing child mortality and morbidity rates.
- Women's participation would serve as a springboard for other development endeavours by building their confidence and self-assertion both at family and community levels.
- Agricultural productivity would increase: adoption/expansion of livestock activities, development of horticulture, and increase in labour productivity.
- Women's participation would undermine the allegation that "women are weaker both physically and mentally".
- Access to safe water facilities would enable women to participate in functional literacy thereby achieving the saying "to teach a man is to teach an individual: to teach a woman is to teach a nation". Some one has rightly said "in Ethiopia women are the Missing Link in Development". Women's participation would promote the possibilities of integrating them into the main development stream undermining the prevailing marginalization.

5. Abomsa Town and Women's Participation in Water Supply Project:

The objective of this section is to provide a bird's eye view of a case study that ensured the full participation of women in water supply scheme.

Background:

In 1984 a nationwide survey was conducted by the Agricultural development Department of the Ministry of Agriculture to identify women's felt-needs in the country. In this survey 80% of the country was covered.

The five major pressing needs in order of priority were identified to be as follows:

- a) Water for drinking.
- b) Flour-mills for grinding mills.
- c) Health services.
- d) Fuel wood for cooking and light.
- e) Kindergarten/day-care services.

In 73% of the districts, water supply was identified as the number one priority for women.

For the women of Abomsa, the capital city of Arba Gugu Awraja, Arsi Administrative Region, water was the most felt-need.

Any women centred programme cannot ignore the issue of water in developing countries. In order to enhance women's participation in development, the felt-need must be addressed if their confidence and trust has to be won over. Water supply to this town had been a problem since the foundation of the town in 1953. Women and young girls had to walk miles and miles every day to collect polluted water. About 28 percent of the population was affected by water-borne diseases such as typhoid, dysentery, hepatitis and dracunculiasis, trachoma, etc. which were the leading killers of infants and children.

The Southern and Eastern Agricultural Development (SEAD) Zone, previously known as ARDU under the Ministry of Agriculture, developed and submitted a project proposal for spring water development through gravitation. This was later approved by the Ministry of Agriculture. UNICEF, having appreciated the gravity of the problem, agreed to provide the necessary funds with the understanding that the participation of the whole community particularly women was to be given an important consideration.

Project Implementation:

With the help of the project and UNICEF staff, series of discussions were conducted with the community. Right from the out set women showed strong determination to play an active role in the whole self-help project. Training was an important component of the project.

1. 19 women were given a 3-month training in laying of pipes, construction work, maintenance, elementary accounting, administration and management of water supply scheme.
2. 64 women were given leadership training in general Home Economics including women's economic activities and use of labour and energy saving devices.

With skills gained during training, the women were actively involved in the whole process of planning, implementation and monitoring of the project under the technical assistance of SEAD. The project was completed in early 1986.

Labour contributed by the community in digging trenches and laying the pipes over a distance of 5.8 kms was estimated at USD 14,500. UNICEF's contribution to the project in both supplies and cash amounted to USD 62,700. At the time of project initiation, the population of Abomsa was 7,000. Water points were installed at 11 distribution points. The whole town rejoiced when safe and clean water gushed out from the water pipes. The successful project saved the women from walking long distances to polluted water sources.

Day-Care Services:

The water project was completed but the community continued to face other unmet needs. The women groups started conducting discussions among themselves and with the town council which led to the submission of a request to UNICEF for support the provision of day care services.

UNICEF responded positively by providing USD 18,000 for the provision of day care services. The existing two day care centres were strengthened to cater for 200 children. One success led to another with the growing community awareness and desire for a better life. Participation as observed in this case study, helped the people to overcome the prevailing apathy and attitude of fatalism. Participation served as an "eye-opener" to the community's potential to undertake self-help projects to improve its environment.

An evaluation conducted towards the end of 1986 showed that the Abomsa women were actively involved in the preventive maintenance and management of water facilities through the trained women. The incidence of water-borne diseases was on the decline. The community members especially women felt proud and confident with the attitude of readiness to embark upon other community-based projects that were particularly designed to address women's felt-needs.

Lessons Learnt:

An important lesson can be drawn from this case study. The selected project was a felt-need. Right from the outset, the community was involved and made commitments. To avoid possible frustrations, the required technical, finance and supplies were made available on time. Capacity-building activities through training came at the right time. Dialogue with the community continued even during the process of implementation. The women group kept close touch with the members. Both sexes participated in the provision of community labour. The trained women joined the government technicians during the installation of water points. In other words, community conscientization, project identification, planning, and implementation were well designed by SEAD and UNICEF. It is suggested that the above check-list be borne in mind in any water development schemes in which women are involved.

Participation in a successful project will enable the community:

- to have self-respect and confidence in themselves and advance further to improve their lives;

- to question and even reject the status quo as their fate;
- to appreciate the power of organization and organized action as opposed to individual action;
- to be less dependent on assistance that comes from government/donor and focus on their own local resources and initiatives;
- to acquire the power to be transformed from the status of objects to that of subjects in decisions that affect their lives.

It is believed that well designed and implemented water supply projects which involve women would help them emerge as active participants in development processes rather than being passive observers.

Summary and Conclusion:

Community participation is sine-qua-non for affordable, replicable and sustainable community based small projects. Participation is not only a right but also contributes to the raising of the community's level of consciousness. Participation builds up the self-confidence of the participants and undermines the pervasive attitude of paternalism that is perpetrated by the government/donor agencies. Participation serves as a catalyst in community-based development efforts. The success of any project should be judged by the extent to which it involves the beneficiaries -- in awareness building, needs identification, prioritization, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

The majority of Ethiopian women wallow in abject poverty, and face complex legal, social and cultural barriers that prevent them from realizing their potential. The formal law makes women subservient to men. The backward traditional and cultural attitudes and practices continue to depress the status of women. To liberate women from the shackles of the

harmful cultural bondage, multi-dimensional interventions are recommended. Functional literacy, formal education, women focused advocacy functions, skill training, nutrition, health care, viable economic activities, special efforts to get women's representation on all decision-making fora, etc. What is of paramount importance, is the recognition of the fact that women's issues have been subordinated to that of men for too long and that women need to be conscientized and mobilized to realize their immense potentials as the "missing link in development".

It is obvious that women are closely associated with water, but because of their subservient position to men in social, economic and political spheres, little or no effort was made to involve them in water supply sanitation projects. As illustrated in Abomsa Water Project, women can play a role of paramount importance in the whole process of planning, implementation and monitoring water projects. Women's participation can ensure project sustainability, a fact that should be appreciated by those concerned with community-based projects.

With the following quotation on African women, I would like to end this paper.

"The time has come that a change of attitude must take place. Women have now for sometime realized that they have the potential (social, political and economic potential) and wisdom to shape the future of this region. They therefore rightly demand the opportunity to have this valuable potential fully tapped for the development of Africa. Machineries to enable women of Africa to fully participate in the development of their motherland must be put in place now and not later".^{5/}

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Handout No. IV

(7)

CONSTITUTIONAL AND LEGAL CONSTRAINTS
TO WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT

BY

RAHEL ALEMAYEHU

PAPER PREPARED FOR INTER-AGENCY EXPERT CONSULTATION ON
A STRATEGY TO ENHANCE WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN WATER
SUPPLY AND SANITATION ACTIVITIES

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SANITATION (IRC)

DECEMBER 1991
ADDIS ABABA

INTRODUCTION

This paper will not be able to address all questions pertinent to women's constraint in development. But I hope that it will create women's awareness and enable them to stimulate further research on the different constraints to women's participation in development.

The paper is envisaged to provide a framework for formulating the legal and constitutional rights and constraints to women's participation in development.

The study will attempt to examine the issues but at this stage does not claim to be neither comprehensive nor in depth in its treatment. It will just try to scratch the surface and by so doing it hopes it will generate discussion that may lead to further in depth study of the subject in the near future.

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TRADITIONAL LIFE AND OCCUPATION OF WOMEN.

A constant remark made by scholars of various disciplines in connection with development issue is the fact that women in Ethiopia are marginal to the development process and the legal order has been cited as one of the major impediments against integrating women in the development process.

The woman of Ethiopia have long played a major role in many aspects of the country's economic, social political and cultural life. The present anthology, based on written records of almost half a million attempts to focus attention on women's activities in some field, but is inevitably far from complete.

The traditional life and occupations of the Ethiopian women are described by many researchers. Most women in Ethiopia, in former times spent the greater part of their times in domestic pursuits, which for many included the carrying of water and fire wood, often great distance. Such labour began at early age of the girls as soon as they can

walk. And also girls are occupied in managing the house at their early age.

In all parts of the country rural women heavily participate in the in formal economy including marketing activities. The lower the resource potential of the family the greater will be the involvement of women in the informal economy.

Hence, women are critical participants of the house hold economy, and the greater their contribution to the viability of the family the greater is their standing in it. Only occasional glimpses of the Ethiopian woman of the past are to be found in the records of former times. In the history of Ethiopian women the growth of towns and other developments of the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries brought great changes. The Ethiopian populatiuon, female as well as male urbanization and the opening of modern schools for girls, was followed by the

creation of new occupations and professions for women who gained increasing employment, notably as factory workers shop girls waitresses bar tenders airlines hostesses and bus - conductresses clerks secretaries and typists librarians teachers and professors social workers nurses health officers, and doctors artists and actresses journalists radio and television announcers as well as high government officials. However the Ethiopian women as the above illustration, is still discriminated against in certain areas even by the twentieth century.

Regardless of the developments of ancient times, which affect only the small urban sector, the glimpses of the past here reproduced show that unless she had the good fortune to be of a high rank much of her work like that of a beast of burden, consisted of carrying loads over long distances, or laboriously grinding corn on the basis of primitive technology like the rest of the population more over she suffered from poverty and diseases, and for the most part did not share the inadequate system of education available.

The structural feature which enabled women of competence to come to the top was radically affected with the transformation of the state. In sufficient knowledge about women has also hampered the effectiveness of the development programmes. Women continue to feature as the majority among the rural landless and the urban unemployed as well as in the ever present emergency relief camps as a result of famine.

THE MAJOR CONSTITUTIONAL AND LEGAL RIGHTS AND CONSTRAINTS

Various elite women started to consider and discuss issues as a serious option with which to identify and work out the underlying motives for the development process. However all the problems inherent in defining and selecting the cultural particularly that which is considered to be salient anywhere at any period in history, who defines the cultural and not significant who decides on what to do with it has an impact not only on determining the lives of women" but also on the overall direction of the development process.

As the major purpose of this paper is to examine the constitutional and legal constraints to women's participation in development we shall try to see the different laws position towards the rights of woman.

The analyses of the customary laws added to that of the formal laws civil code etc. give a substantial indication of the laws by which the majority of the Ethiopian masses are governed. Political and civil rights in a general sense are "rights and privileges or the influence by which individuals of a state seek to determine or control its public policy. There for it is necessary to consider various political and civil rights of women such as

- equality before the law; the right to vote, the right to run for public office, the right to own and administer property, the legal capacity to enter in to contracts, and the right to organize.

The 1955 revised constitution grants equal protection of the laws. The nature of the right the problem of classification, denial of equal protection in the administration are non discriminatory on their part. 1

The national Democratic revolution programme which was in acted by the past regime art 6 states, there will not be any sort of discrimination upon religion and sex. 2

Despite the above guarantees of equality granted by the formal law there existes the constitution of the peoples democratic republic of Ethiopia which concedes formal equality to woman before the law. Art 35 of these constitution rephrasis:

1 Ethiopians are equal before

the law irrespective of nationality,
sex, religion, occupation social.

or other status.

2 Equality among Ethiopians shall be

insured through equal participation in
political economic social and cultural
affairs. 3

The constitution laying these, as a principle in revealing the equality it states us follows:

"Art 36" In the people's Democratic Republic of Ethiopia woman and men have equal rights.

2 The state shall provide women with special support particularly in education, training and employment so that they may participate in political, economic, social and cultural affairs on an equal basis with men. 5

In the charter of the transitional government of Ethiopia 1991 is adopted the universal declaration of human rights as a common standard of achievement for all people and nationalities. Hence in the United Nations charter is expressed the determination to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights in the dignity and worth of the

human person in the equal rights of men and women. So these will definitely show as that the new charter has fully grant woman the due right of equality before the law.

Rephrasing so much so on the constitution, when we see the formal laws, the law of the nation which is the civil code has some thing to say about woman's equality. And this is laid down under Art. 8 of the code which says " effect of personality.

1. Every physical person shall enjoy the
right
of personality and the liberties
guaranteed
by the Ethiopian constitution.
2. In this respect no regard shall be
had to the
race colour, religion or sex of
persons. 6

The equality obviously extends to courts and tribunals as long as the requirement of Art.33 of the civil procedure code are full filled.7

A discussion of the congruity with or devergence of these laws from current laws will lead us to the present practice that are envisaged in the laws. Prevailing customs in the country as general view is the earning of money as the work of men. Wage labour is considered as the sole domain of men. Eventhough, the employment laws explicitly prohibit discrimination there are no laws in Ethiopia which restrict the employment of women within the public and private sectors. However, women do not occupy positions in numbers equal to those of men in both sectors . Even when women are employed, it is usually in the lower paying and relating less skilled jobs. In some cases there are discripancies, nevertheless theoirtically every necessary effort is under taken to allow women to participate fully in productive labour. But this only remain on paper with out pulling to make it practical.

The concept of the democratic system in general and the idea of voting in particular are very recent phenomena in Ethiopia. Obviously, pursuant to the formal laws, there is no sex discrimination pertaining to the acquisition, ownership and administration of land. The civil code provides that there will be no sex discrimination in regard to the inheritance of land and also there is no law which prohibits women from the use of land crossed by water as well.

Despite being a country with a long history and rich natural resources Ethiopia remained one of the poorest nations in the world. It is predominantly an agricultural country. Farming is the primary occupation of at least 85% of the population. As land was the main economic and political source the existing system never encouraged hard work and self reliance. This the condition of Ethiopian women has to be analyzed in line with the total problem of the system.

A paper which was presented at a conference at Addis Ababa University explains the characteristics of feudalism

connected with properly possessions and the occupation of land and how these are monopolized by men. 9

The nationalization of rural land in the rural areas, has undoubtedly given immense benefits to women and the landless farmers as well. This dramatic change is bound to create changes in the role allocation between the sexes.

After the eruption of the Ethiopian Revolution with several educational programs commencing with the development- through co-operation and a serious of literacy compaign's has radically charged the situation, and the status of women with dual role of rural women mother hood and participation in agriculture production. According to the civil code of 1960 the husband is the head of the family and is entitled to

- established the common residence
- adminster the common property
- protect and guide his wifes conduct
- exact obedience from his wife
- guide family management 10

It is quite clear that political and civil rights in the context of the rural community basically deal's with the participation in the basic decision making organs of the community which currently are the peasant associations, womens associations.

The objectives of peasant associations as stated in the public ownership of Rural land proclamation are as follows.

Functions of Peasant Associations

The functions of peasant associations shall be the following:

1) to distribute, with the solicited assistance of the Government when necessary, land forming the area mentioned in Article 8 as much as possible equally, and in the following order:

- a) to farmer tenants and former landowners residing within the area,
- b) to evicted tenants;

- c) to persons who reside within the area but do not have worker sufficient means of livelihood,
 - d) to farmers coming from outside of the area,
 - e) to pensioned persons who are willing to undertake personal cultivation,
 - f) to organizations needing land for their upkeep.
- 2) to follow land-use directives to be issued by the Government;
 - 3) to administer and conserve any public property within the area especially the soil, water and forest;
 - 4) to establish judicial tribunals to hear land disputes arising within the area;
 - 5) to establish marketing and credit Co-operatives and other associations like the debo which would help farmers to Co-operate in manual and other works;
 - 6) to build with the co-operation of the Government schools, clinics and similar institutions necessary for the area;

7) to cultivate the holdings of persons who, by reason of old age, youth or liness, or in the case of a woman, by reason of her husband's death, cannot cultivate their holdings;

8) to undertake villagization programmes;

9) to exclude from distribution mining and forest lands and places of historical and antiquarian significance.

Being the objectives of the peasant association as above it was expected women's participation to be encouraged.

According to a statistics from the minstry of agriculture women constitute about 50% of the rural population and it is found that women are unduly represented in the membership of peasant associations. 12

The reason for such underly representation is under the Rural Land nationalization proclamation membership is open to any tenant, landless person hired agricultural worker and land owner with less than ten hectare of land with out sex discrimunation. 13

Since, land is to be distributed to a farming family by virtue of custom and provisions regarding the relationship in the house hold under the civil code the husband is the administrator of the common property, automatically the land which was distributed to the family was registered in the husband's name as far as the law is concerned the husband can represent the house hold in economic matters but not in political and civil matters. Thus the distribution of land in the husbands name without giving due considerations to their political tasks, has resulted in excluding women from membership in the peasant association but this doesn't include women who are heads of house hold. However the role of women in the decision making of the community which is of mainly participation in development is quite negligible.

A study made by chiffelle suzanne on women's occupation and social standing in Gofa prvince shows that the member ship of women in peasant associations is quite in significant. 14

In particular in farmer's co-operatives since the

proclamation of the nationalization of rural land promulgated in present day it is becoming quite common to see women as members of the co-operative. Since it is unenhancement obviously this is not something to be overlooked. Even if women are on the verg of participating in agricultural activities we should not forget that the division of labour in rural area is quite traditional on that certain jobs are reserved for men and others for women. Thus it is quite cumbersome as well as difficult to tell correctly the exact participation of women in agricultural activities. But generally for rural women the tradition and culture contain them the socio cultural and economic context shows the extent to which national polices for development permits these concerns to be as corporated. In addition, prescribed rules of society and certain laws and regulations which either promote or restrict their position in life should be amended. And why by others their manners and the reason for them, their position in life and their political economy are all inter linked by an ideology which needs to be spelt out for

comparision, or contrast with the experiences of women in other countries .

Finally of women dare to become in dependent in all economic forums they should be offered a suitable alternative. Thus this would have added effect of restructuring the sexual division of labour and of providing women greater economic security.

THE CONSTITUTION AND FORMAL LAWS REGARDING THE USE
RIGHT OF WATER

The Fetha Neges a work combining both spiritual and secular matters which is loosely applied to christains of the Ethiopian plateau in relation to the right and use of water says.

"People in the low land have a right to demand that their counter parts in the highlands let the waters flow properly, the former must compensate the latter for his advantage, since they take the wealth and fertility of the high land in habitants land."

"Of someone gives you the right to water animals at his pool he must provide you with a road by which to water them. If you can not use another road who so ever has the right to water or to graze his cattle on your land has another right namely to build a hut. 8

Clearly under this legal instrument to the extent of water use right there is no discrimination made between men and women.

Under the 1952 civil code of Ethiopia it is envisaged that the community has the priority in the usage of all running and still water. Obviously, pursuant to Art 1228 and 1229 of the civil code of Ethiopia there is no sex discrimination pertaining to the acquisition, use right and administration of water. The land legislation makes a passing reference to the equal treatment of the sexes in the implementation of the reform. But the rights of women have not been asserted forcefully in the major legislation. In relation to the development aspect the law

draws a clear guide for conduct or action. The land user who so ever men or women, whose land is crossed or boarderd by running water or stream has the right of use of such water for domestic use, for irrigating his land, and also for industrial use as well. 16

CURRENT POSITION OF WOMEN AND HOW IT IS LIKELY TO
CHANGE IN THE FUTURE.

Despite the rights by the law civil code there exists a variety of religious and customary practices negating the above. Even if women are not prohibited such rights by law the main contenent is the existing practices. Today mostely it is regarded that education ingeneral and higer education in particular as a sin quanon for national development, the provision of educational oppourtunities for women in most cases falls far short. Because, as it is true that Ethiopia possesses an ancient script and literature, and the Ethiopian Orthodox Church has for many centuries maintained a system of schools throughout the

country, the overall standard of education was extremely low. A break down of this overall literacy rate by sex reveals that the literacy rate for women is even lower. In addition to this pervasive feeling about daughters education, the pressure brought to bear on girls to marry young and the fact that girls are needed to assist their mothers at home lower's their chances to enroll in school, and the lack of compulsory education aggravates it even more.17

Generally women have not benefitted from traditional Ethiopia education, but it had virtually remained the exclusive preserve of the male. Finally as time goes on the enrollment and graduation of girls has shown significant increase. Having in mind that education is the core to development one can observe from the general situation the increase that was made in female enrollement when compared to that of males, is not only low but quiet in significant. In addition womens choice of fiels of specialization is linked to thier subsequent employment in

female dominated occupations and these obviously created a negative reparation to women's participation in development. It is, therefore necessary to orient and guide them, so that they can change the trend.

scarcity of females in different professions is a cause for concern. This remains in concern because the main constraint to women's participation in development is the lack of part taking in such fields as water technology, polytechnics etc.

So as far as women are not taking part in different fields of education even if the law is discriminatory it will be reluctant for their wide participation in development.

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8

HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT FOR WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION
IN WATER SUPPLY AND SANITATION
ACTIVITIES

BY
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TECHNICAL PAPER NO. 5

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1. INTRODUCTION

Be it a small business concern, a large corporation, a government organization or a small project, the input of human resource is very important.

Durker says that "the greatest asset in any management is people". This is true since even the most sophisticated technology requires a touch of human input . He further explains that of all the resources, people are the least utilized and that little of the human potential is tapped and put to work.

When examining the above statement, it is clearly seen that there is quite a demand for human potential as well as the need to utilize that resource effectively.

However, managers of any kind organization are required to possess the skill to plan the utilization of the human potential and implement the plan effectively. That is why, many development organs propogate to put into effective use the services of both genders.

Indeed, during 1975 the Mexico Conference was held and declared that women should be developed so they can get paid employment, education, and get involved in economic development. The focus then was to develop women. After the UN Decade for Women (1985), the emphasis is to integrate women into development projects -- both in social and economic development.

When speaking of development, it means "a stage in growth". The level of growth indeed differ from country to country. In Ethiopia, we are at the lowest stage of growth. The basic needs are not yet fulfilled. The strive to provide clean drinking water is still continuing. Water, as known, is one of the basic needs. All living things in the world cannot do without water. Human beings need clean water to continue healthy living. The provision of clean water is important. In most developing countries, the supply of water is done by women.

As stated by Ms. Mary Tadesse of the ATRCW, "in Africa, women were predominantly farmers. They produced 80% of Africa's food and bore 90% of Africa's water"(INSTRAW, Nov. 1987).

Ethiopia being an agrarian country, food production and water provision are the responsibilities of women.

Because of the major responsibilities indicated, this paper briefly examines the ways in which women could participate in water supply sanitation activities.

2. CRITERIA FOR SELECTING WOMEN COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION PERSONNEL AT ALL LEVELS

Before dwelling in setting criteria for women community participation, it is necessary to examine the REWA structure as it relates to water supply and sanitation projects and other activities in the country.

REWA was the political wing of the previous government since 1980. The association's accountability was totally to the then Workers Party of Ethiopia (WPE). Due to its total political loyalty, all the planning, instructions for executions and implementation of all activities were centrally planned and were communicated from the top echelon to the grassroot level. This has its own weaknesses.

With regards to the REWA selection criteria for participation the following were some of the major points of emphasis.

- a. The individual should:
be from the lowest income group;*
- b. not own any land;*
- c. not belong to the feudal society;*
- d. be loyal to the party.*

Management at any level means, managing resources. It is impossible to manage in the absence of resources i.e. land or

finance in the case/^{of}the rural population. Moreover, this would not allow the participants, at the time, to gain the necessary managerial skills that could enable them carry out the activities effectively.

On the other hand, as indicated earlier, since everything is flowing top-to-bottom, the women would not be fully supportive of the programmesthey were forced to carry out. It is human nature to react negatively, when one is forcefully instructed to participate. That is why the following failures were reported:

" . . . Society being the beneficiary of water supply and sanitation scheme, non-involvement of women in planning clearly lead to uneconomical use of capital investment".

"In a water supply sanitation projected to design appropriate systems was simple, but the problem that remained was how to ensure that they were used and maintained; and that they continued to operate.

In many cases, maintenance repair had been planned without the involvement of women thus leading to consequent neglect of the installation and eventual failure of the programme. "

The same was true with other projects conducted by the Ministry of agriculture, Home Economics Department.

The Head of the Department was interviewed if they were any better in achieving results in their programmes launched in the rural Ethiopia. According to the information gathered, although they succeeded offering training programmes to rural women, they were encountering problems in recruiting and selecting individuals. They are, of course, using the pressure of REWA to get trainees. Even then, the maximum number they could get was 40-50 women for a program that is scheduled for two-three weeks.

The reason for indicating the Ministry of Agriculture's project is to see how projects were operating in the past environment.

2.2 How Should Future Community Participants be Selected

From the past experience, we have come to realize that the projects are not effectively implemented because women were not included in planning and in decision making.

Right now, REWA's structure is no more functional. Therefore, women at the grass-root level should be approached in community groups. As clearly indicated women's contributions are very important for water

projects. Therefore recruitment criteria for that group should include women:

- with few children or none;
- who are not pregnant;*
- who are accepted by the community
- who are mature;
- who have managed resources;
- who can read and write or with few years of education;
- who are committed to women welfare;
- who are trainable.

At the middle level, criteria for election could include women;

- who are committed to the development and growth of women;
- who are semi-professional;
- who are mature in age and in personality;
- who can communicate with the grassroot women;
- who are concerned of the problems , needs, and opportunities of the rural women;
- who have some knowledge of rural life;

At the top level, it is important to include women;

- who are professionally qualified;
- who are in the decision making echelon;
- who are eager and willing to promote issues concerning women;

* If the job calls for physical fitness

- who are committed to the development of women;
- who are accepted by the political circles
- who have knowledge and appreciation of the rural life.

The above criteria is by no means exhaustive but indicative.

The criteria indicated above could be used only if there are sufficient representation of women at all levels. In many countries of the world, including Ethiopia, governments, fail to honour declarations issued at various united Nations forums. For example the following declaration was issued in Abuja, Nigeria in 1989:

"Another Key issue in the full and equal participation of women in development is their lack of participation in decision-making and management at all levels and on all matters. It is also to be noted that African women are still inadequately represented in political processes at the national and international levels. Since all actions and projects flow from policy decisions and many such decisions are made without sufficient knowledge of the needs of women, this area is of crucial importance" . . . (UNECA, 1989)

As emphatically expressed, because of lack of representation of women at all levels, development projects for women usually fail as the decisions are mostly made by men who could not or may not appreciate the problems of women and their needs. Women development projects should not be left to women at the grassroots level only but should involve women at all levels. This attempt has several advantages for the grassroots women because they could:

- value education by getting acquainted with the educated women.
- The educated women could serve as role models;
- Working with the educated group could be an incentive for the grassroots as they could feel they/are recognized and part of the overall women community.
- They also feel that their problems are appreciated and recognized by fellow women.

However, until women are sufficiently represented at the various levels both in government and in development projects, the needs of women could not be identified nor could be handled successfully by development organs.

3. LEVEL OF EDUCATION/TRAINING

Before determining the level of education/training of those who are to be involved in water supply and sanitation, it is necessary to examine the participation of women at all level of education.

Girls representation at the three levels of education is:

<u>Level of Education</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Primary Education	39
Junior Secondary Education	41
Senior Secondary Education	39

(Source- Ministry of Education. Basic Education Statistics 1989)

As clearly indicated the participation of girls at all levels is very low.

At the tertiary level the representation of women is even lower: It is only 7.07% of the total enrollment. (Ibid)

As evidenced above, serious considerations should be made by governments to adopt the ^UN Declarations specifically of that of Abuja on education.

Although the participation of women is low in education, we can still use education as criteria for recruiting women community personnel for water supply and sanitation activities:

As indicated in (2) above, the Community development projects for women require the participation of women in government as well as the grassroots. Therefore, those at the top level should be degree holders. At the middle level, the criteria could include college diploma holders or graduates from vocational or academic highschools.

At the grassroot level, however, women who could read and write could be recruited. This criteria is selected in order to test the trainability of the individual.

4. CRITERIA FOR DETERMINING THE NUMBER OF WOMEN COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION WORKERS FOR EACH COMMUNITY OR PER 1000 POPULATION

At the moment, it would be very hard to determine the number of women in the community due to political conditions.

The villegization program has failed in many parts of Ethiopia. The Farmers Association structure laid down by the Workers Party is no more operational.

Even when the Farmers Association was still in power, the population distribution was dense in one area and sparse in the other. The following is an example of the population distribution.

POPULATION DISTRIBUTION BY WOREDA TOWN FARMERS ASSOCIATION

<u>Woreda Town - Farmers Association</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>% of Women</u>
Addis Alem, Harbu, Wello	6,522	6,795	13,317	51
Krageda, Awsa, Wello	105	91	196	46
Mekanisa, Liben, Sidamo	3,688	3,740	7,428	50
Hai Lortu, Liben, Sidamo	43	38	81	47
Kunie Dendi, Gololcha, Arsi	2,714	2,614	5,328	49
Gira, Gira, Goba, Merti, Arsi	27	20	47	43

(Source: CSO. Population Census, 1984)

Since the population distribution varies a survey of the community is adviseable to determine the number of women participants.

5. WHAT OTHER TASKS WILL WOMEN COMMUNITY PARTICIPANTS
HAVE

Tasks women community participants should work on must be determined by a system like doctor/patient relationship. No body can tell the illness of a person unless the individual explains the symptoms clearly to his/her physician. Then the physician prescribes the medicine. By the same token, the women themselves should identify the tasks they want to work on. To do that the necessary groundwork have to be prepared for them.

Project coordinators or any other personnel should be in a position to work closely with the women. The individual working with the grassroot women should be a person with derth interest and devotion for the development and growth of women. The officer should either be a man or a woman, but what matters is the commitment the individual has to work and find out what actually interests the women to contribute their talent or skill to whatever activity. Once the task is identified, then it would be easy for the coordinators to build on the women's request.

6. INCENTIVES AND CAREER OPPORTUNITIES TO BE PROVIDED FOR WOMEN COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION WORKERS IN ORDER TO AVOID LOSSES OF TRAINED WOMEN

Providing incentives and opening up career opportunities are very important schemes in management. In fact Peter Drucker, in his book "the Effective Executive" says the following:

"An organization that is not capable of perpetuating itself has failed. An organization, therefore, has to provide today the men who can run it tomorrow. It has to renew its human capital. It should steadily upgrade its human resources. The next generation should take for granted what the hard-work and dedication of this generation has accomplished. They should then, standing on the shoulders of their professors, establish a new "high" as the baseline for the generation after them".(Drucker, 1970).

It is therefore important to renew the existing staff of the project by training them, develop them and by providing the necessary incentives. This would help the project to retain the women.

The question here is "How could these women be retained"? What incentives could be appreciated by the women as motivation drive.

Although the following may not be the only incentives, they could serve for soliciting further ideas:

Participation of Women in Job Designing

The women in the project must be involved in job designing and planning. They could create the feeling of belongingness. They could also feel they are recognized. In addition they could create the trust in the project i. e. they could feel that the project is theirs. In any type of management these feelings are very important because they serve as incentives.

Job Enrichment. Project coordinators should be able to enrich jobs in the water supply projects as well as in the other activities attached to the programme. This job enrichment would enable women to look forward to the next step or position they are going to hold. Of course, the next post would call for training, induction program, etc. which would serve as incentives for women. Training and Development is incentive and also create healthy competition.

Establishing Responsibility Ladder

Once job enrichment program is launched, the women could be trained the ways and means to handle responsibility. This way the women could develop confidence and feel that they can perform effectively.

Achievement Rewards. Based on the results achieved, the project coordinators should be able to consider and develop "achievers rewards". These could either be material or psychological.

7. CRITERIA FOR FIXING THE TIME FOR WOMEN
COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION WORKERS TO DO THEIR
TASK

Rural Ethiopian inhabitants are either sedentary farmers or nomads. Women in both economic rural sectors are shouldering heavy responsibilities. Their lax time may be too difficult to predict without a thorough assessment of their life, culture, and social interactions. Therefore, some sample areas should be selected and assessed to find out the best time to launch the water supply and sanitation activities.

8. EVALUATION OF WOMEN COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION
PERSONNEL DURING AND AFTER TRAINING

Evaluation of the training has to be done by the trainees themselves. They could identify their strength and weaknesses very easily. Some guidance and inputs could be given by the program/project coordinators.

9. TOPICS TO BE COVERED IN TRAINING, METHODS OF TRAINING, LEVELS OF TRAINING

Determining training topics are very difficult without assessing the training needs for the women in question. However the following could be considered as general topic:

- a. Awareness creation and/or Gender Sensitization programmes for both genders.*
- b. Skill and knowledge as relevant*
- c. Water supply and Sanitation activities as they relate to Health.*

10 RECOMMENDATIONS

As emphatically discussed above, any women program and specifically water supply and sanitation projects should include women at all levels. All projects should be participatory for success.

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9

Mandate No 6

COMMUNICATION SUPPORT TO ENHANCE WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION
IN
WATER SUPPLY AND SANITATION ACTIVITIES
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Prepared for the
Inter Agency Consultation on a Strategy to Enhance
Women's participation in Water Supply and Sanitation Activities

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SUMMARY

- Title:** - Communication Support to Enhance Women's Participation in Water Supply and Sanitation activities.
- Prepared by:** - Tabotu Wolde Michael
- Theme** - How to use communication support to inform and motivate women to enhance their participation in water supply and sanitation activities.
- Summary:** - The paper first introduces the concept of communication and the role it can play in accelerating development activities. It outlines how communication can be effective in changing behavior and attitudes by addressing felt needs, providing access to information, education and new technologies and help internalize the information. Types and channels of communication and their use are touched upon.

With women as the focal point in water supply and sanitation activities, the paper attempts to identify some of the causes for the low participation of women and in what way this participation can be raised. Based on this, the communication input is described

The paper recognizes that to enhance women's participation the communication strategy should address both men and women since the attitude of men and the society on the role that women should play must also be changed. It then gives specific details of communication activities providing input at key points in water supply and sanitation programmes. Steps involved in communication planning and what a communication component comprises of are outlined. A brief mention of some characteristics of the media and media programmes is also made with emphasis on pre-testing and evaluation.

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INTRODUCTION

Before going into what communication support involves in order to enhance women's participation in water supply and sanitation activities, it would be worthwhile to note what is meant by communication and what role it can play in accelerating development activities.

Broadly speaking, communication is the process by which human beings share information, knowledge, experience, ideas and motivations. Communication embraces the whole spectrum of motivation, transfer of information and stimulation of innovation. Often, there is lack of understanding of communication as a social process, as an interaction.

Effective communication depends on knowing one's audience. In social development, this is not just a matter of knowing the audience's ability to understand a particular message, whether oral, visual or written, framed in a particular way. It is also a matter of knowing their needs and aspirations as they themselves perceive them, for a message that does not relate to these "felt needs" will be ineffective. Outsiders may perceive a community's real needs differently, objectively. They may be right in terms of health, nutrition, agriculture, etc. But the communicator must approach the community by addressing himself or herself to its felt needs in the first instance. This indicates that the communication

is a cyclical process into which inputs can be made at any point. The starting point for communication may be the community which discusses the problem of development and possible solutions. Development has something to do with personal growth, personal experience and personal decision-making. Any development project is limited by the extent to which people themselves are changed by participation in development.

Information and communication have an important role in making any development initiative succeed. In the case of participatory development which relies heavily on people's empowerment and their access to information, education and new technologies, this central role of information and communication in development becomes crucial. Information can be the basis for empowering people. However, information alone can do little because to hear or know information is not enough. People have to internalize new information, see it in the light of their own needs and aspirations. They have to be helped in this through various means.

In light of this, one has to carefully consider what types of channels to use most effectively. In the use of media for development, emphasis has been on telling and teaching rather than on exchange of requests and ideas between the center and outlying areas. Communication media is communicated one way. What happens to the message, its impact and the attitude of those on the receiving end is not taken into account. The content of programming or information is often decided centrally based on the opinion of a relatively small group of people as to what rural communities need and want to know. The process of information and education should be one of centralization in which the community is helped to articulate its problems and provide solutions. In the words of a Brazilian educator, "a citizen was not an empty vessel into which facts could be poured, but a knowing being." The task for the communicator is to activate the community to express its needs, to formulate solutions and to get organized to achieve its goals.

Looking at the various types of media, people can gain information from non-personal sources such as radio, television and press. But this information leads only a few to change behavior and

development is concerned with behavioral change. One learns best from interpersonal contact, from communication with others directly. Non-news or group media can localize information and make it specific to the circumstances, fitting it into locally acceptable concepts and understandable language and explain it with examples from the every day life of the people.

Among the interpersonal forms of communication through which rural people are likely to receive and give information are the family and neighborhood, markets, washing areas, festivals, village gatherings, the church, the administrative structure, political parties, agriculture extension, health and family planning centers.

An element which is important for any communication strategy but which is particularly so for participatory development is a good communication analysis. This needs to be thorough and specific. It should identify audience segments, and for each segment, it should investigate existing perceptions, attitudes, aspirations, felt needs and the most used and influential channels of information and communication. In addition, what to communicate and to whom, how and when and how to reinforce the communication work through multiple approaches all need to be clearly defined. Question should also be asked on how the communication strategy can attain maximum participation and thereby become more sustainable.

Those concerned with participatory approach to development need to recognize the values and limitations of different types of news media and non-news media (mass media and group media) before forging important development alliances. In many developing countries, the mass media form part of the regular propaganda apparatus of government. Radio and TV in most developing countries are owned by the state and tend to be centralized. With good relations with development agencies, they are accessible to transmit development related messages (Radio, TV, Video).

One should also consider the channels functioning to bring development information to rural people. There are a number of traditional networks but these function for traditional purposes. So a strategy should be devised to use traditional media and networks to introduce new information and behavioral change and therefore, ascertain maximum participation. Participation is a promising means for accelerating the process of human development, an almost sure way to sustainability.

Communication Support and Women's Involvement

It is often stated that water is the entry point to development and women are at the heart of it. Women are also home managers responsible for the family's water for cooking, drinking, laundry, bathing. They are also the ultimate users of water supply and sanitation programmes. This means that they should be involved in any decision regarding water. However, women's role in society is invisible and taken for granted.

Many projects have failed because of inadequate consideration of women's knowledge, attitudes and practices. Because their life is so directly and regularly linked with water, women can provide information on location of facilities, schedule for using facilities, design of technology, cultural appropriateness, source of water and seasonal quantity variations. Planners and engineers usually fail to see women's active roles in community and consider projects as primarily male concerns.

When we identify the problems for the low participation of women in water supply and sanitation programmes, we can clearly see where the communication input can come in.

Women face cultural, economic and social pressures that prevent them from participating fully in water projects. For instance, Just to mention a few:

- Women lack information on the use and advantages of clean water.
- Women are not consulted on their preferences, attitudes and beliefs, neither are they asked for suggestions or information.
- Women are too burdened with work to participate at different stages of projects.
- The engineering units, development agents and technicians are male - dominated.
- Women do not attend meetings with men and even if they do, they are not listened to.

Therefore, to enhance women's participation:

- Cultural and social pressures on women should be alleviated.
- Women should be made aware of new information about how they could improve the quality of their lives and that of their families and motivated for active participation.
- More recognition and acknowledgement should be given to women's contribution in development planning and implementation.

- Women should be made to participate at every stage of the project - in the planning, construction, operation, maintenance and evaluation stages as well as in decision making.
- Representation of women in development committees should be strengthened.
- Men should be sensitized and trained to assume responsibility in order to alleviate some of the workload from women. They should also be educated on women's participation.

So, when we look at some of the reasons why women's participation is low and what should be done to alleviate it, we realize that the communication target is not only the women but men as well and the society at large. Therefore, the kind of communication strategy devised should be a broad-based one with particular emphasis on women. This also helps not to isolate the women, whom are after all an integral part of the society. The all round approach can be instrumental in bringing about lasting effects and overcome barriers.

Communicators dealing with women as the targets can become more successful by considering a number of points in their approach. The values and attitudes held by the communicator himself, if it's

a man, towards women have to be examined. He has to be sensitive to their needs, culture, moods and aspirations. Face to face or interpersonal communication can bring about better results but using the mass media in addition can help strengthen the effort.

With women as the target, being with them, doing things with them and understanding their lives is very beneficial to effective communication. If a field worker/communicator goes to visit women at their homes, talks with them, joins them at social occasions and shares experiences with them, he or she can establish a closeness, a rapport and an understanding that will dispel obstacles. This will also promote trust between the two. If there is trust the women will listen sincerely and talk openly about their needs and problems. Establishing interpersonal trust is critical in effective communication. The communicator/extension agent will have to be honest, sincere and interested in the women's well-being to build this trust. But developing trust takes time and effort. One problem that could be mentioned here is the cultural barriers that could make getting close to women difficult if the communicator is male. If the situation permits it, women communicators should be used to facilitate the whole effort of establishing quicker and closer relations with the target.

Communication Strategy in Water Supply and Sanitation Programmes

After considering a number of facts and issues involved in enhancing women's participation in water supply and sanitation programmes, a basic communication support programme or strategy can be worked out.

Most often support activities are planned by communication specialists. They can work in close collaboration with an extension agent, sociologist, anthropologist etc. on the team. They may work closely for instance on background data collection for the project. However, many communication specialist are not qualified to do communication planning to support sanitation activities because of the type of training they may have received, their lack of knowledge of development activities or lack of understanding of sanitation and water supply activities. Furthermore, communication specialists may not always be available especially in developing countries.

On the other hand, health educators, community development specialists, sociologists, anthropologists and extension agents can be trained in communication skills.

In water supply and sanitation programmes, communication activities strengthen the project by providing critical input at certain key points and keeping in mind women as the main beneficiaries.

- a) At the planning stage, they can provide better basis for planning through data collection and narrow the gap between people's actual interest, knowledge, behavior etc. and project expectations.
- b) They can help arrive at the best technology, delivery system, financing etc. by setting up a dialogue between planners and intended users such as women.

During pre-construction and construction:

- a) They can encourage demand through promotion or advertising.
- b) They can smoothen the construction process by ensuring that the relationship between the programme and its beneficiaries develop as expected. This is done through public relations and providing information to the beneficiaries, to help for instance in the selection of latrines, motivating local people to provide labor or materials if needed and providing feed backs to management.

During operation and maintenance:

- a) They can increase the life span of facilities through motivating and educating beneficiaries on proper care and by discouraging destructive practices.

- b) They can motivate and train women themselves to take part in maintenance activities or collection of payments thus alleviating some of the financial cost and workload.

- c) They can improve impact on health and sanitation through encouraging and teaching proper use and good hygiene habits.

Communication support activities are planned in close association with the project or programme decision makers. It's important to ensure that the person responsible for communication forms part of the project team and has on-going dialogue with other members of the team. In most cases, the critical person for the communication planners to liaise with is the engineer so that engineering decisions can be checked and rechecked with communication ones.

Steps involved in Communication Planning

1. Identify specific needs for communication activities (review water situation, related practices, beliefs, views and preferences review resources, Review technology options). Then identify specific problems or gaps between programme expectation and people's likely response. As stated earlier this should be done in close consultation with women who have the knowledge on these matters.
2. Identify a communication package or component - type of communication strategy or package that will be used again with two to three alternatives from which a cost effective alternative would later be selected.
3. Prepare a detailed design of communication package or component considering:
 - a) Staff training, design and pre-testing of material or media message, material distribution, monitoring and evaluation.
 - b) Consider the specific objectives.
 - c) Identify the audience and relevant information about them such as access to channels to be used.
 - d) What the personal and media communication channels to be used are and how they will operate.

- e) Timing of activities vis-a-vis the construction, operation and maintenance activities.

The communication package or component usually includes:

1. Field workers (health educators, inspectors, engineers, engineering assistants etc.) who may share responsibility for instructing and motivating households on the more technical aspects.
2. Mass Media, Radio, Television, Newspapers billboard etc. can serve to promote the programme in general and to make it and its objectives widely known. (The media can be extremely difficult to coordinate with water supply and sanitation programmes. They may also give rise to unfulfilled expectations and so to disillusion).
3. Local media and materials reinforce the work of field workers by giving their efforts greater audience attention, better impact and by spreading them more widely. These include cassettes, slide presentations, films, charts, flannel board, video tapes etc. Traditional media such as puppet shows, folk theater or community debates can also be effective and combined with modern media. Local media and materials are more flexible in terms of timing and programme change than are mass media.

4. Models - such as latrines, water pumps located where they can be seen by large numbers of the target (at community meetings, market squares etc.) where questions can be asked and answered. Models presented at various stages of completion enable beneficiaries and builders to understand exactly what is involved.
5. Volunteers-formal and informal leaders in the area, who live there, have good relations with and influence people should be included. The advantage is that they are fairly permanent residents of the area and so could continue input into operation and maintenance stages. They are also likely to be knowledgeable about people's preferences, have the ability and willingness to pay or provide labor and the best timing for such a contribution.

Communication activities need to be cost effective and simple. The impact has also to be rapid so that the construction process is not held back. Information and motivation activities have to be carefully tied with construction, operation and maintenance activities.

Here the experiences of the Dodota, Abomsa Water Supply Projects or any other similar project can provide a practical insight into the application of communication support involving women.

While the above communication strategy may serve as a sample, especially in water supply and sanitation programmes it may be worthwhile here to say a few words about media which greatly assist in presenting the message and enhancing participation. The more the communicator knows about the different types of media and their characteristics, the more his appropriate use of them and the better the impact and the effectiveness of the communication.

The various types of media are traditional, mass and group media. An understanding of each type and the various elements helps to determine in what way they can help in the communication support. The story element for instance is a good means for interesting people and raising issues that might otherwise be rejected. The visual element in flipcharts, newspapers, slides, video cassettes are very good means of helping people understand better and learn faster. Although all media give much information, information carriers such as demonstrations, books, cassettes etc. are more efficient. The retention element which is very crucial in the communication process is enhanced by such media as songs and handbills which help in remembering the messages.

There are several media which give many of these elements at the same time. for instance, a book may have a story element, a visual

element, have information and can be taken along to remind one of what the message was. Generally, it's possible to understand a message better where more than one medium is applied as more elements are then provided. This is called a multimedia approach. However, it wouldn't be wise to split into too many media. It is advisable to select a few and learn well how to produce and use them. For instance, a combination of drama, flipchart and songs may be used with the drama providing the story element, the flipchart the visual element while also carrying a lot of information and the songs the retention element.

Certain questions have to be asked in selecting the best media. What kind of media do the messages need? Is people's participation important? Do local resources permit the use of the media preferred? Can the media programmes be produced locally? Are the costs and level of technology affordable?

Another point that should be raised here is the importance of field testing the media programme. Details of the programme will have to be checked for understanding followed by reaction evaluation. The evaluation is intended to show if participants were exposed to the message by the use of the media, if participants paid attention to the programme, understood the message, remembered the message and

if they were actively participating. On the basis of this evaluation, improvements of the message formulation and media production can be made. Testing usually reveals weaknesses which can be improved upon before finalization.

CONCLUSION

In planning and implementation of communication activities to support water supply and sanitation programmes or other development programmes for that matter, one faces a number of difficulties.

There is often the question of institutional responsibilities whether to set up communication units or collaborate with other agencies that have the expertise. Lack of interest or understanding of most agencies of communication support or appreciation of its importance is another problem. The first action in communication support is often to change the views and attitudes of decision makers about the need to include it in the programme. Appreciation must be extended to the organizers of this workshop for realizing the importance of communication support and including it as one of the topics of discussion. Difficulties in coordination of communication activities with the other activities are also the other constraints, timing being the major cause.

Another constraint that should be mentioned is the fact that media professionals are often accustomed to making their own decision. At times media institutions resent interference from the community.

The process of access and participation asks communicators to put aside some of the traditional notions of professionalism and to open up to a new range of influences from the people they intend to serve. Much media material is devised as provision based on a professional view of what the community needs.

Communication support in water supply and sanitation programmes addresses both men and women in order to ensure the participation of women in these programmes. It makes use of potential allies such as traditional leaders, sectoral representatives, political leaders, voluntary groups, local associations to accelerate acceptability. Cultural pressures and traditional view points on the role of women have to be changed in a long process through communication support. This includes changing the views of the women themselves on their roles and what potentials they have to improve their lives. Communication support should also aim at the male-dominated project team of engineers, inspectors, sociologists anthropologists etc.

The communication activities should make sure that they reach and actively involve women who are the main users of water supply and sanitation programmes making the society the ultimate beneficiaries. Including women in the communication team, training

them in communication, management and operation skills, strengthening their active participation in water committees are some of the challenges for the communicator in particular and the whole project team in general.

The task of the communicator is a difficult and demanding one. Changing attitudes and behavior takes time. It needs patience, dedication, sincere involvement and sustained effort. It also requires knowledge about women's activities and their daily patterns and when they are available for executing some of the communication activities. One has also to have the sensitivity towards women's preferences and wishes to forge a binding relationship.

All these factors, although demanding, contribute immensely to the success of any development programme.

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**THE ROLE OF INSTITUTIONS
IN
ENHANCING POPULAR PARTICIPATION**

by
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PART I - INSTITUTIONS IN POPULAR PARTICIPATION

Local Action Groups

Although the factors that shape community action are too complex to be condensed into a single recipe for success, experiences from around the world reveal certain grassroots strengths and weaknesses. The most important lesson is that communities organize to respond, on the one hand, to felt needs or threats, and, on the other hand, to perceived opportunities. There is in other words both a "push" and a "pull" to community action.

In the face of the enormous problems and threats facing developing countries like Ethiopia, isolated grassroots initiatives would appear minuscule -- a community digs a few wells or latrines, ten women plant trees, an old priest teaches neighborhood children to read -- but when added together, their impact has the potential to reshape the nation.

Although community groups are little known beyond provincial borders, the outlines of an overall movement emerge by piecing together insights from official documents and reports, academic papers and field visits. The picture shows an expanding lattice work covering the globe. Viewed closely, these groups vary enormously in most particulars but share many fundamental characteristics.

The particulars include cooperatives, peasant farming associations, water committees, neighborhood action federations, collective aid societies, mothers clubs, religious study groups, tribal nations and innumerable others.

This chapter is an abridged version of Worldwatch

Paper 88, Action at the Grassroots: Fighting

Poverty and Environmental Decline, 1989

This rising tide of community groups is generally pragmatic, focussed on development, and concerned above all, with self-help translated through stewardship of resources, protection of human health and improvement of living conditions.

The shared characteristics of these diverse groups include the capacity to tap local knowledge and resources, to respond to problems rapidly and creatively, and to maintain the flexibility needed in changing circumstances. In addition, although few groups use the term sustainable development, their agendas often embody this ideal. They want economic prosperity without sacrificing their health or the prospects of their children.

A noteworthy characteristic of community movements throughout the developing world is the central role that women play. In Africa, the sheer enormity of women's burdens unites them: women bear primary responsibility for child care, cooking, cleaning, processing food, carrying water, and gathering fuel; they grow 80 percent of the food, raise half the livestock and give birth to 27 million babies a year. Worldwide, women's traditional nurturing role gives them increased concern for the generations of their children, while their subordinate social status gives them more to gain from organizing.

Through the weekly meetings of cooperatives, water and health committees, church groups and mothers clubs, women emerge from the isolation of home and field to try their voices. Gradually demystifying age-old taboos against mistreatment at the hands of men and sexuality, women gain perspective on the hardships of their lives.

In the best of circumstances popular action is difficult. The odds weigh heavily against the poor and powerless, so failure is a normal part of the process. But working together has its rewards. Indeed the intangible benefits of local action are as

important as the latrines dug or trees planted, for as a renowned novelist so eloquently put it, "How do you measure the amount of dignity that people accumulate? How do you quantify the disappearance of apathy?"

Catalysts in Development

A second layer of institutions has formed atop the grassroots layer in much of the developing world. This diverse class of intermediary organizations goes by many names: in Europe and Africa they are called non-governmental organizations (NGO's), in Asia Voluntary Agencies (or "volags"), and in the U.S. private voluntary organizations (PVOs).

The general function of this group is to facilitate the flow of information, materials and funds between the grassroots and the broader institutions such as church, state, and development donors. To do so, they tend to specialize--in appropriate technologies, for example, or in training for cooperatives... and to join, informal federations of independent groups. The result is an intricate matrix of organizations catering to the grassroots.

Real progress has been made in some institutions in establishing the groundwork for collaborating with the grassroots. A growing fraction of bilateral assistance, is already channeled through charities seen by development agencies as cost-effective alternative to weak or corrupt government ministries.

Government Institutions

Only governments have the resources and authority to create the conditions for full-scale grassroots mobilization. As grassroots theorist Sheldon Annis writes; "It may be that wild

flowers grow by themselves. But grassroots organizations do not. They are cultivated, in large measure, by just policies and competent government agencies that do their job."

Full-scale community--state alliance can only come about when a motivated and organized populace joins forces with responsive leadership. But herein lies the greatest obstacle to mobilizing for sustainable development: few leaders are committed to promoting popular organizations.

Because government's first concern is almost always to retain power, independent-minded grassroots movements generally seem more of a threat than an ally. Unrepresentatives rule many nations and all too often crush popular movements rather than yield their prerogatives. Elsewhere, powerful interests vehemently defend the status quo. Inevitable self-help will clash with these forces, because like all development, self-help is inherently political. It is the struggle to control the future.

In most developing countries, scores of obstacles to grassroots action are buried in national legal codes and regulatory procedures. They include the lack of full legal rights for women and indigenous peoples, insecure legal status for labour unions and independent development groups, credit rules that exclude those without assets (mostly women); land titling procedures biased against women and the illiterate; and development planning procedures that do not allow citizens free access to information.

All local groups eventually collide with forces they cannot control. Peasant associations cannot enact supportive agricultural policies or build roads to distant markets. Women's groups cannot rewrite bank lending rules or test modern contraceptive technologies. Thus, perhaps the greatest irony of

community action for sustainable development is that communities cannot do it alone. Small may be beautiful, but it can also be insignificant.

Grassroots -- government alliance cannot be formed where governments do not want them. But that does not lessen the importance of grassroots organizations. To the contrary, the best hope for pressing governments to work with local groups is local groups themselves.

External Support Agencies (ESAs)

An important distinction untangles the issues that bind external assistance... the distinction between aid and development. Much that passes as aid does not foster development, while much development has nothing to do with aid. Real development is the process whereby individuals and societies build the capacity to meet their own needs and improve the quality of their own lives. Physically it means finding solutions to the basic necessities of food, clean water, clothing and shelter, and access to basic health care. Socially, it means developing the institutions that can promote the public good and restrain individual excesses. Individually, it means self respect for without personal dignity economic progress is a charade.

Two fundamental and interrelated questions arise in evaluating development assistance--quantity and quality. For example, the foreign assistance budget of Ethiopia in 1990 amounted \$ 1.039 billion, but subtracting emergency aid leaves only \$ 456.3 million for development assistance. This assistance is based on criteria more political than humanitarian. Per capita development assistance to Zimbabwe is more than three times that of Ethiopia, for instance, though Ethiopia is a poorer nation by far.

The paradox of the relationship between developing country community movements and international development institutions is that both subscribe to the same goals and both need what the other has, yet only rarely have they worked together effectively. Despite some recent accommodations on each side, many community organizations continue to have misgivings about what they perceive as heavy handed interventionism on the part of multilateral and bilateral bodies. Development agencies for their part, generally continue to view community organizations as unstable amateurs, junior partners in the serious business of development.

International development institutions began singing the praise of popular participation in the fifties, but real reform has been slow in coming. For most government agencies, "grassroots participation" means asking the peasants and slum dwellers to build their own roads, schools and clinics--things those same authorities would never dream that the rich do. Very often, they simply try to enlist grassroots groups as new implementation arms for their own plans, rather than going through the process--often a painfully slow one -- of learning to plan projects and policies in consultation with the grassroots groups.

Even when ESAs want to work with the grassroots, it is not easy. The basic problem is an intense clash of organizational cultures between the bureaucracy of aid agencies and what could be called the "visionary ad-hocracy" of community groups. Operating in the context of destitute villages and slums, local groups confront constant change, unstable priorities and short-lived opportunities; their working relations are founded not on contractual obligations but on mutual trust.

Major Issues and Recommendations

It would appear from the foregoing that popular participation has often not been characterized by sufficient realism on the part of both governments and ESAs. It is felt that the following issues have an important bearing on grassroots policies and initiatives in developing countries.

1. Government institutions and ESAs, which have all too often excluded or sought to control popular organizations, must learn to work with them. Forming an equal partnership between local organizations and government bodies built on mutual respect and shared goals seems a prerequisite to resolving many of the tenacious problems confronting development efforts. Development institutions, for their part, will need to dramatically decentralize their decision-making and integrate new participatory methods into their operations if they are to fulfill their potential as supporters and components to local efforts. Development donors could use the same leverage that lets them impose structural adjustments to create institutional environment supportive of grassroots action. They might for example, request that grassroots representatives be included in policy discussions between donor and government.
2. The gap between aid and development can close only when aid is made accountable to its intended beneficiaries. Institutionalizing accountability to the poor in development agencies requires allowing, even encouraging the dispossessed to participate in planning and decision making.
3. A top priority of reforming project aid is drastically shortening the distance between project funders and poor people. As one development critic put it, "It is not difficult to see the absurdity of people thousands of miles

away continually shaping new solutions to problems they have never experienced -- for the purpose of assisting people whom they have never consulted." ESAs would be better in tune with local needs if the majority of their employees lived among the poor. This step in itself would turn top-down to bottom - up ones and lower costs simultaneously.

4. Most development projects are capital-intensive endeavors and are in this sense "funding-led." Development, by contrast, is people-led. Those closest to the process of grassroots development rightfully warn that overfunding can subvert local control, distort community priorities, promote capital-intensive technologies over effective local ones, and fuel jealousy between organizations that should be allies. Conversely, lack of funds for necessary purchases of outside supplies causes the failure of myriad community efforts. If funding matches and grows with an institution's capacity to employ those funds effectively, development will be fostered.
5. Another problem is the burden of paper work that paralyzes many agencies. An institutionalized fear of misappropriation and graft creates what one critic terms an "ambience of pre-emptive cowardice" in large development organizations. Required to account for every cent distributed and tabulate every benefit delivered, assistance agencies demand reams of accounts and reports, prior to approval of all decisions, and elaborate planning that extends to minutiae. One researcher reports that the quarterly accounts an agency required of a tiny Bengali village "weighed over two kilograms and included ... a line item and supporting vouchers for the food supplied to the dog that guards the stores."

Ironically, despite the paperwork mountains, useful evaluations of grassroots development experiences... as opposed to government projects -- are rare, making learning from the past difficult. Finding fruitful but streamlined ways of evaluating and auditing grassroots organizations is therefore a priority.

6. Grassroots initiatives have ameliorated the penury of several million people in the world today, but their impact is swamped by the global economic tide running against the poor. The structure of opportunity in any given nation is determined more by bank credit policies, government land tenure policies, and the impersonal dictates of the international economy than by all the cooperatives, women's groups, and peasant associations poor people can create. Over the longterm, grassroots efforts will have to influence these broader forces if they are to do anything more than struggle against the tide.
7. Deep down, working with the grassroots is a philosophical attitude, an allegiance. To all institutions and individuals associated with popular participation, Pierre Pradervand, a French collaborator in an African project offers this advice, "Grassroots development is a way of traveling, more than a goal. It means being ready to travel in a mummie-wagon with people -- with all the delays, punctures, breakdowns, and sweat that implies-- rather than driving along in one's air conditioned Range Rover with two spare wheels, cool coke in the icebox, and a fixed time table."

PART II - INSTITUTIONS IN 'WATSAN'
The Need for Institutions

Institutions are needed to deliver goods and services in the construction of water supply and sanitation and in sustaining these facilities once in place. Given the need to use scarce financial and human resources efficiently, institutions are also needed to develop policies and plans, to regulate and to train. Such institutions can be drawn from the public sector at central and local levels, from the private sector, from NGOs and from within communities themselves. Defining the relative roles of these actors is fundamental to national economic development, and specifically in this case, to the sustainability of rural water supply and sanitation (RWSS) services.

In determining the institutional roles of RWSS, the following functions classify the activities that need to be undertaken in the RWSS sector.

A. Regulatory Functions

- . policies (standards, tariffs, etc..)
- . legislation (water rights, pollution control, system ownership, etc.)
- . enforcement

B. Planning Functions

- . national planning and budgeting
- . scheme planning and design

C. Capital Finance Functions

- . Resource mobilization
- . intermediation activities (credit management etc.)

This chapter is an abridged version of "Institutional Issues", Proceeding of the all Africa Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Workshop, Abidjan, May 1990.

D. Outreach Functions

- . social mobilization
- . demand generation and estimation
- . health education
- . training
- . advisory services

E. Delivery Function

- . production and delivery of goods (pipes, pumps, etc)
- . delivery of services (construction, operation and maintenances,)

F. Management Functions

- . sustaining services (organization of O & M and cost recovery)

The list of functions illustrates the activities needed for sustainable RWSS. Some of these may be seen as "promotion" functions (i.e., regulatory and outreach) while others are "provision" functions (i.e., service delivery.)

RWSS Institutional Issues in Africa

In debating the specific issues of RWSS institutions in Africa, there are a number of broad structural problems that need to be considered, due to the constraints that they place on the institutional options available. Many governments in the region are highly centralized both as a result of and resulting in weak and often unrepresentative local governments. The public sector is frequently overstaffed, benefits are low, and there are few incentives for government staff to work and live in remote rural

areas. Large central bureaucracies and weak local institutions lead to poor understanding of local community needs and demands, with planning often driven by prescribed and not by felt needs.

Sectoral Issues

The RWSS sector does not readily fit the mandate of a single government institution. Where there is no water ministry, RWSS in Africa is typically handled by ministries of health, agricultural, rural development, public works or local government. In many countries, four or five government agencies are participating in sector development, with unclear responsibilities and conflicting policies. In addition, there may be several donors and NGOs active in the sector, each with their own policies and procedures. Where financial and human resources are scarce and thus efficiency important, there is a particularly compelling argument for a central authority, with regulatory and policy functions and no executive functions, as a focal point for sector coordination and advocacy.

Where there is a lead institution, it is commonly a central public works department, which is charged with the responsibility for regulation, planning, designing, building, operating and maintaining water supply and sanitation services in both rural and urban areas (with the general exception of the larger cities). In the engineering profession, rewards are linked to large schemes and complex structures, and training programs have a similar focus. As a direct consequence, those in central government responsible for RWSS service provision often have little interest and little to gain. The effect of this bias can be unresponsive planning with an emphasis on construction and coverage to the detriment of operation and maintenance and with inappropriate choices of technologies and service levels.

There is an active market for a wide range of simple goods and services and often an informal private sector meeting this demand. The formal private sector, common in direct competition with central line departments, is typically weak and inadequately supported (for example, with credit, incentives, training, trade associations etc). The restrictions of external financing, such as tied-aid and tight competitive bidding requirements, may exclude the indigenous private sector even further. In contrast, the same external financing often supports the international private sector in Africa, with protection by guarantees and encouragement by incentives.

Local manufacture of goods is seriously constrained in many countries by prohibitive tariffs and barriers that can actually mitigate against import substitution through local manufacture. For example, water pumps are frequently classified as essential rural development materials and thus zero-rated for import duty and sales tax. In one Eastern African country, the raw material to make the same pumps locally carries 40 percent import duty, compounded in the finished product with a further 20 percent sales tax. While the risks of monopoly pricing and other market distortions arising out of excess protection of local manufacture must not be ignored, the enhanced sustainability resulting from the availability of equipment and spares in the market place is an important issue.

External Support Agencies

ESAs currently play a major role in RWSS development in Africa and in some countries may provide up to 90 percent of total sector investment. There is a serious risk that RSA involvement in the sector can be a cause of the market distortions that jeopardize the sustainability of services. Grant and loan financing is provided, often supporting the role of the

public sector as provider of services, meeting the cost of hardware (generally imported); and financing water point construction (often by force account, or by contractors selected through international competitive bidding, which excludes many small indigenous contractors). Recently, there has been increasing coordination of RSA assistance to governments; particularly in the development of sound sector policies and investment plans; in grappling with thorny questions such as cost recovery; in increasing both the quality and the level of investment in national programs; in focussing on community development and training, the private sector and the role of NGOs; and in ensuring a long-term commitment to progressive and sustainable service improvements.

Options for Sustainability

As the Decade closes, expectations have not been realized; target coverage levels were not achieved, costs of service provision remain high and the sustainability of constructed systems questionable. However, during the Decade a perceptible progression has occurred; in particular there is much greater recognition for the need for community participation in scheme planning, construction and operation and maintenance. Many of the lessons from the Decade parallel a more generalized trend in rural development, with an increased focus on decentralization to local bodies, and the resulting need to strengthen community organizations, the private sector and the outreach role of NGO's. This general development trend is characterized by a shift in the role of the central government, from directly providing services, to one of creating a supportive environment that would promote service provisions by others. With this shift, it is expected that markets will become more competitive and responsive to demand, the enabling environment strengthened and sustainability of development enhanced. In the RWSS sector this

range from provision to promotion could be categorized by looking at three possible approaches.

The Provision Approach

The first approach is a consequence of the evolution of strong central line departments as providers, characteristic of many African countries in the 1970s, as discussed above. The approach can result in very efficient construction of facilities, however, as there is no community involvement, demand for services is assumed, and service levels are randomly selected. With this approach, maintenance remains the responsibility of the provider, and is often difficult and costly because of the dispersion of rural communities and the corresponding lack of economies of scale. Typically, all the functions described above are handled directly by government institutions. The regulatory and outreach functions are generally very limited. Some delivery functions may be undertaken by the private sector.

The Provision/Promotion Approach

The second approach illustrates the transition that has occurred during the Decade and is characteristic of most national RWSS programs in Africa today. Through outreach, community participation and the formation of village water committees has resulted in a progressive sharing of responsibility for and a heightened local awareness of the management of operation and maintenance. Such committees can be the seed for community-based institutions capable of managing increasingly complex services. However, the approach is still characterized by a project not a program strategy, and is often dependant on external financing, equipment and staff. This can jeopardize

sustainability since local capacity building is limited (including the private sector), demand is not adequately assessed and service levels are prescribed. Furthermore, replication remains the responsibility of the central agency, as provider, and is dependent on continued external support.

This transitional approach is characterized by a sharing of responsibility, largely between the provider and the beneficiaries, for the functions described above. The outreach function is now very important, although it typically remains a project responsibility. A decentralized approach to service delivery is required to promote community participation in facility construction and to establish dialogue between the provider and the community. If management of operations and maintenance responsibilities are shifted to the community, a spare parts distribution network must be established and artisans and communities trained. Resources must be allocated to support extension services for these community mobilization and training activities. Coordination is more complex, as different institutions must provide social and technical inputs, ministries of health and community development must coordinate their budget and workplan with ministries of public works and water development. However, these additional cost can be offset by the facilities that better suit community needs (for example, in terms of location and service level) and that will therefore be used and maintained. There is, however, evidence that this approach does not fully respond to effective demand, nor does it result in the necessary capacity building for scaling up.

The Promotion Approach

The last approach is not widespread in Africa, and is characterized by a promotion role for central government. In this approach, central governments would disentangle themselves

from the provision of RWSS, and engage in its promotion only through the provision of credits (and grants where appropriate) and outreach, with long term extension services to rural communities wishing to improve their own basic water supply and sanitation services, as well as through the provision of incentives to the private sector to ensure the availability of competitively-priced goods and services needed for sector development. The success of this approach would require that rural communities who perceive a need for improved water supply and sanitation, would be willing and able to pay at least part of the capital cost and all of the recurrent cost of these services. They would be required to organize themselves to manage the services, on the essential condition that appropriate service levels and technologies are employed.

Implications of the Promotion Approach

With regard to the functions described above, the implications of adopting the promotion approach are considerable and may require a redefinition of the roles and responsibilities of institutions at all levels: central and local governments, the private sector, NGOs, and communities themselves. Such a redefinition could be conceived as follows, but will vary in practice with local conditions:

a. Central Government

- regulatory function: defining and enforcing policies, standards, legislation (water resources, pollution control, water quality)
- assessment of investment priorities, national programming and budgeting
- funding and resource mobilization (tax revenues, capital markets, ESAs)

- some outreach (such as social marketing, support to training and private sector support)

b. Local Government

- planning and capital finance (possibly an intermediation role)
- scheme planning and design standards, enforcement of some national regulations
- major outreach function (social marketing, promotion, education)
- possible management functions (as an extension of community management)
- advisory services (technical support and training)

c. Private Sector

- key delivery function (goods and services)
- outreach (marketing of equipment and services, training, etc.)
- some capital financing
- localized planning, scheme design
- opportunities for franchising
- advisory services to communities

d. NGOs

- variety of roles including planning, financial intermediation, promotion and training
- outreach function (probably their greatest comparative advantage)

e. Communities

- involvement in demonstrating effective demand (service level), planning, capital finance
- responsibility for managing operations and maintenance (including local cost recovery)

- sustaining investment and planning for possible system upgrade.

The promotion approach risks ignoring one important lesson of grappling with poverty: that breaking the poverty cycle can rarely just be left to market forces alone and that special emphasis programs, with strong outreach and with limited and targeted subsidies, can make the difference between success and failure. The promotion approach is slow, possibly costly in its early stages, and requires the strengthening of a wide range of institutions. Important roles in service delivery are played by the private sector and financial intermediaries. Community management of operation and maintenance is a cornerstone of the approach, and merges into local government management of services as local institutions become more representative and responsive to community needs.

Community Management

Community participation in RWSS has almost become an ideological issue; it has even been described as the "myth of the Decade". Community management goes beyond participation to encompass ownership of and responsibility for RWSS services; it entails decision making, not necessarily trench digging. Experience is demonstrating that community management is a viable solution in situations where there are inadequate incentives for public and private enterprise to provide reliable services; in these circumstances community management works where nothing else will.

However, community management of RWSS is generally risky and inefficient and requires goods and services to be available in the local market; single purpose institutions should generally be better equipped to manage infrastructure services of this nature,

particularly where legislation (for example regarding water quality standards) creates special requirements. People living in small rural communities in Africa are already busy dealing with survival; managing a water supply is an extra burden that villagers may prefer to delegate to others. However, managing that water supply can contribute to the integrity of community institutions, thus hastening development and raising the awareness of the needs for representative local authorities, whose role will include taking the responsibility for serving its electorate

Conclusions

The institutional issues constraining the provision of RWSS in Africa will require making difficult policy choices, often with short-term setbacks to achieve long term sustainability; their resolution will have major implications for governments and ESAs financing sector investments. The policy implications of decentralization and community management are also substantial for effective local government.

REFLECTIONS ON RECENT EXPERIENCE
IN
WOMEN'S INVOLVEMENT
IN
WATER SUPPLY AND SANITATION

by
Melesse Endalamaw

Paper Presented at
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in
Water Supply Sanitation Activities

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Recent Experiences in Women's Involvement

in WATSAN

Numbers only crudely capture the vitality of the developing world's grassroots movements, since data are sketchy and groups fluid, yet the steady growth is unmistakable. Although at mid-century community development projects existed mainly where traditional self-help customs remained intact, today dynamic local organizations are found in many parts of the world. This growth is driven by a shifting constellation of forces, including stagnant or deteriorating economic and environmental conditions for the poor, the failure of governments to respond to basic needs, the spread in some regions of new social ideologies and religious doctrines, and the political space opened in some countries as tight-fisted dictatorships give way to nascent democracies.

By many accounts, Asia has the most active communities. India's self-help movement has a prized place in society, tracing its roots to Mahatma Gandhi's pioneering village development work sixty two years ago. Gandhi aimed to build a just and humane society from the bottom up, starting with self-reliant villages based on renewable resources. Tens if not hundreds of thousands of local groups in India now wage the day-by-day struggle for development.

Across the subcontinent, community activism runs high. Self-help in Bangladesh has risen steadily since independence in 1971, and 3 million Sri Lankans participate in a community-development movement that combines Gandhian teachings with social action tenets of Buddhism. The movement mobilizes massive work teams to do everything from building roads to draining malarial ponds.

In Latin America, past political movements also laid the ground work for current community self-help efforts. A little

over a decade ago, the rise and subsequent repression of Colombia's National Association of Small Farmers gave peasants experience with organizing that led to the abundance of community efforts today, including cooperative stores, water supply services and environmental "green councils."

Self-help organizations are relative newcomers to Africa, though traditional village institutions are stronger than in other regions. Nevertheless, in parts of Africa where political struggles have led to dramatic changes in political structures, local initiatives have sprung up in abundance. In Kenya, the harambee movement began with independence in 1963 and with encouragement from the national government, by the early eighties was contributing nearly one-third of all labour, materials, and finance invested in rural development. With Zimbabwe's transfer to black rule in 1980, a similar explosion in community organizing began, as thousands of women's community gardens and informal small farmer associations formed. Senegal and Burkina Faso too are well organized at the grassroots level, as a result of traditions of village communal work.

The development community is coming to grips with major changes in the very principles underpinning their work. In particular, a new focus on what is often termed "human-centered development" is emerging.

The water and sanitation sector is a prime example of this change of focus. The role of users as well as management issues, including decentralization have come to the fore as prime issues. The new goal is the sustainable and effective use of facilities, with implications related to beneficiary involvement, health education, human resources development etc., rather than an overall goal of "coverage", with its implied emphasis on new installation of services. Women's role is central to these issues in development in general, and is particularly evident in the water supply and sanitation sector.

enough for two months for a family of six. Women's groups were studied before the project started. The groups had different backgrounds but all had a long history, were multi-purpose and flexible in character and provided the women, of whom 50 percent were heads of household, with some means of income and security. The proposal was based on the groups' needs and capacities. Participatory assessments with the groups revealed that women could not travel for training or teaching other groups and that a project generating income was likely to escape women's areas of control. As a result, the project limited its intervention to promotion and training. The project's aims, resources and operating procedures were widely advertised. Construction started only after the groups had reviewed the project in terms of maintenance costs and control of choice of technology and decision making. This being done, each group got two masons to construct two tanks. Thereafter, the masons provided technical advice to help groups build the other tanks. On the average, it took a member eight months of casual labour within her group to earn enough money to construct a tank.

The Girlguides Association of Thailand (GGAT) implemented a pilot project in six villages in north east Thailand, with the financial support from UNDP/PROWESS and WHO. Activities consisted health workshops for women, a needs assessment seminar with the whole community, liaison with government services for technical assistance, financial support from GGAT for construction, and training for women and youth. Results included conversion of nine open wells into bucket wells, improving two ponds, constructing five new bucket wells, two handpump boreholes, 227 latrines, and 151 rainwater storage jars, conducting 6 hygiene campaigns and starting 11 other development projects, mostly income-generating ones. Construction was partly done by local

craftsmen, with supervision from health staff and partly by government agencies, with community involvement in construction and financing. Only the village that did its own design and construction (bamboo lever instead of rope) maintains and uses its bucket well, with the water meeting WHO water quality standards. The project had considerable impact, but its replicability is doubted in its present form in terms of finance and rapid response from technical agencies. It has been recommended to continue the project with a revised strategy to involve women.

As in much of the world, fetching water in Dhandhuka, a village on the barren coastal plains of India's Gujarat state is women's work. Thus it was the women who decided, upon taking with community organizers, to construct a permanent reservoir to tap the seasonal rains. In this case, an idea from migrant laborers provided the pull that complemented the push of water scarcity. The migrants described irrigation channels lined with plastic sheets, and the villagers reasoned that a reservoir could be sealed the same way. After lengthy discussion and debate, the community agreed to the plan and all but a few stayed home during the dry season to get the job done. Moving thousands of tons of earth by hand, they finished the pool before the rains returned. The next dry season they were well-supplied, which inspired neighboring villages to plan their own reservoirs.

3. Operation and Maintenance

Although more time is sometimes needed, attitudes can be seen to change gradually from maintenance as a sole government responsibility to a system in which communities and women also have a role to play. Most accounts of women and maintenance concern hand pumps. In several projects,

training of men has been replaced by training of women. Reasons reported are that women are already doing the actual work, are better motivated, can combine daily water collection with routine inspections, are contacted more easily on problems by other women, and are more suited to educate fellow women and children on proper operation, environmental cleanliness and hygienic water use. Handpump maintenance by women is in general acceptable to men, although the confidence of male family members and community leaders has to be won.

In the past, no written records were available to assess how effectively male and female caretakers and mechanics maintain hand pumps, and whether their involvements reduce agency maintenance costs over time. The situation is now gradually changing. For example, monitoring systems for handpump maintenance have been established in Kenya and India. Illiteracy among women caretakers is no problem, as a literate child or relative then fills in the logbook. Accounts in from Lesotho and Kenya report that new maintenance systems bring considerable cost savings to the authorities, while presumably giving local users a better control over the upkeep of the facilities and their timely repair.

In 1983 an NGO, the Kenya Water and Health Organization (KWAHO) was involved in developing pump maintenance systems in partnership with the communities, especially the women. Two sociologists trained five local women as extension workers, led the community organization work, and helped train 29 female pump caretakers, at a total cost of 15-20 percent of the project budget. In 1987 the project was expanded to 46,750 people. When conveniently located, village women reported they used the pumps and saved time. An evaluation of 43 pumps after one year of village

maintenance showed all pumps functioning and looked after by user-created pump committees. All committees (125) included women. Women were cash collectors and treasurers. The majority of them (70%) had opened bank accounts. The money was used to buy spare parts and repair breakdowns. Moslem the women, whose abilities were doubted initially, had not only become effective extension workers, but also played prominent roles in village activities. Women groups used time and water for horticultural activities increasingly branching off to into a variety of such production activities as poultry keeping, processing bixa (red oxide) and Khanga (cloth) making. They ploughed some of their cash back into pump maintenance. Evaluations in 1985 and 1987 showed a 50 percent decline in diarrhoea and 7 percent decline in skin diseases.

Since 1980, villagers are being trained to perform preventive maintenance of handpumps installed under a UNDP-supported Rural Handpump Testing Project in Livulezi District in Malawi. Each pump is tended by a caretaker and two assistants who make up the village water committee. Training is given for one week. The majority of caretaker are women who not only carry out routine inspections of the handpumps, but also transmit health and nutrition messages. In cases of major breakdown, the caretakers report to one of the two maintenance assistants in the district. The necessary tools and spare parts are transported to the village by the villagers themselves. The community involvement in maintenance has reduced breakdown rate by 75 percent and the cost from \$140 to \$16 per pump per year.

In 1989, an India Mark-II Handpump Maintenance Pilot Project was set up in the tribal area of Lakhimpur Kheri, India following an INSTRAW/ESCAP interregional training seminar on women and water. The project trained 15 women

for one month in the installation and maintenance of India Mark II handpumps. The women, who lived in an area with matriarchal system, got fixed remuneration from the state water authority for certain types of repairs. Moreover, they could work as private mechanics in their village. Equipment was made available on 50% grant, 50% loan basis. The project had replaced its two block mechanics by seven women mechanics, who for the same budget, maintain between 11 and 20 handpumps. Monitoring data on their effectiveness is now being collected and the project is being replicated in a second district.

4. Management

Women make good managers of local water supply and sanitation facilities, but simply including women on water management committees is not sufficient. Much depends on the quality of the overall participation process, e.g. whether committees are imposed or local men and women choose their own members for their capacities, time and ability to communicate with fellow users

It also makes a difference when male members appreciate the reasons for women's membership and welcome their views, or in the case of separate women's committee, support their role. Other important factors are whether women have earlier had a say in the design and location of the facilities they manage and in the choice of the financing system, how well the management committee and the women themselves are prepared for their management responsibilities, whether or not women are also represented in higher decision making bodies and to what extent other essential factors, such as the availability of spare parts, have been addressed.

The Dodota Water Supply Project arose out of discussions with women's groups and was implemented in central Ethiopia between 1982 and 1986. It was meant to provide 56,000 people with sufficient drinking water. An evaluation was carried out to determine the project's impact and to determine the key factors that helped to make the project successful. At the time of the evaluation, about 40,000 people were receiving water from the project. In order to enable the women to operate and administer the project, 131 women were trained in management, bookkeeping, fee collection, and construction and maintenance.

The major impacts of the training were that it prepared women for qualified and salaried employment; the employed women experienced new-found freedom, and local views concerning the ability of women to perform previously unfamiliar tasks changed positively. Above all, the women were able to assume almost full responsibility for the local management of the water system, thus increasing the project's technical sustainability. Economic sustainability, however, would have required more training in financial matters. Some activities had to be discontinued because of financial losses. Water quality was found to be better, and water was also used for income generating purposes. The time saved as a result of reduced distance, gave women more time to look after their children and to start learning.

5. Sanitation, Hygiene and Health

Special measures to contact and inform women at the beginning of a latrine project are equally, or even more essential than in a water project. While an improved water supply is often a general community need, latrines seem to be more urgently wanted by women, and readiness to pay in such cases is high. Earlier findings that women make very

suitable latrine masons were further confirmed by experiences from Zimbabwe and India. The major reason seems to be the fact that this work builds on the traditional work of women in plastering and in house construction. Similar successes were registered in other aspects of sanitation such as waste water and sullage drainage and solid waste disposal.

Experience in a number of projects in developing countries have revealed that the addition of hygiene education made little or no difference when the water supply and sanitation facilities themselves did not match the needs and capabilities of the users. Facilitation of hygiene changes, as in one case from Thailand, where women were provided with a safe water storage container with a tap was found to be most effective, but this cannot be replicable on a large scale unless the devices used can be obtained locally and are affordable. Hygiene education programs which were based on a thorough knowledge and appreciation of the local health culture, and which use a non-directive approach to help local men and women identify local hygiene risks and make appropriate changes were found to be effective.

Since 1984, a US AID/CARE community water supply project in Haiti has been capping springs and constructing gravity pipelines with public standpipes. Seventeen systems were completed while 8 were under construction and additional ten were scheduled for construction in the immediate future. Seven male and one female promoters helped the villages to organize self-help and elect water committees to maintain and manage the systems. Eight female promoters resided in the villages for hygiene education and helped elect tap committees (mainly women). Creative materials were developed by female promoters to deliver hygiene messages identified from their KAP (Knowledge, Attitudes,

Practice) surveys. After training, the female promoters organize small group discussions with 10-15 men and women. The three-times-weekly themes include handwashing, latrine use, standpost hygiene and protection of water vessels. They also address assemblies and make home visits.

A number of studies show that improving water supply and sanitation facilities by themselves make little difference to health. Both water use and hygiene must be permanently improved and it is mothers who play a prominent role in this process. The studies further show that this role is affected by the general position of women in the community. Children of illiterate mothers are four times more likely to die when there is no toilet and no piped water. Literate mothers can protect their children better even if they lack good water supply and sanitation.

Large-scale sanitation and health programmes usually make use of community health workers, who in turn, need the support of local groups to be effective. Millions of community health workers have been trained since 1980, China alone had 1 million "Barefoot doctors" and 4 million health aides (mostly women) in 1981. In Bangladesh, where 250,000 children die each year from diarrhea, the nongovernmental Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee has gone door-to-door to teach 9 million mothers the use of diarrhea rehydration fluids made from sugar, water and salt.

Community group's indirect contribution to family planning is substantial. Data from around the world show that as female education, health, employment, and legal rights improve, birth rates decline. Large families are frequently a sign of the subordination of women. Thus, although community groups have had a small role in distributing contraceptives and family planning information,

they play what is in many ways a more fundamental role; liberating women. Where family planning has effectively turned the tide on excessive population growth, however, it has done so through collaboration between local and central institutions. Thousands of mothers clubs in Indonesia and South Korea are the foot soldiers of those countries' highly effective family planning campaigns. In Thailand, the Population and Community Development Association has trained representatives in one-third of the country's estimated 48,000 villages.

6. Human Resources and Training

While national development in the orthodox model places primacy on accumulating capital and improving technology, sustainable development is built first on the mobilization of people.

Every organizing technique is essentially an attempt to liberate the wealth of creative ideas and resource that all human groups possess. Of the two organizing philosophies the first is action-centered emphasizing producing a tangible product as rapidly as possible while the second concentrates on consciousness raising.

A variant of this first organizing philosophy is that of appropriate technology. Technology can be a tool of rural change, because by introducing one simple device, such as a pulley with ball bearings for hauling water out of a well, rural people begin to see possibilities that they did not see before.

The second organizing philosophy is typified by a teaching method now practiced by independent groups worldwide. The method uses informal teachers who guide illiterate adults through discussions of basic concept from everyday life--

such as food, health, water, school etc. -- to foster a critical awareness of the predicament of poverty. Similar techniques include field shows, traditional dance and music and oral history. By promoting a sense of identity, these methods of popular education aim to break what one termed the "culture of silence" that traps large classes, particularly women, in powerlessness and vulnerability.

Given training and support, organizers are often more effective if they are natural leaders from the areas itself. These individuals, who generally don't hold official position, know community members and their strengths and weaknesses. In India, for example, independent groups find that the most reliable organizers are middle-aged mothers: they have good rapport with villagers, especially other women, but are likely to stay put, while younger people often migrate to cities after completing their training. On the other hand, many government community-development programs -- in developing and industrial countries alike -- have treated all residents as essentially equal in interest and status, allowing the more powerful to co-opt projects for their own benefit.

An evaluation was made recently of three training programmes linked to water projects in three different cultural settings. Duration and scope ranged from two months in eight villages in Yemen, to seven years in over 1,000 villages in Togo. Women play an important role in all programmes. In Sri Lanka and Yemen all educators were female, either natural leaders (Yemen) or committed school leavers waiting for collage training. In Togo, 16 percent of the educators were female, as were the village caretakers and oral rehydration demonstrators. Initial low involvement of women increased through internal evaluations with male and female field staff. Descriptive rather than factual

data were presented on the impact of the programmes. Essential for the programs were support from authorities and leaders, investigation and understanding of existing local health concepts and practices, meeting with women at their place of gathering and work, and a task-focused and lively training program for educators with the proper balance between content knowledge and communication skills. While the long-term impact of this program is still to be studied, the evaluation showed a big improvement in the health status of the participating communities.

In another example of human resources development, the Catholic diocese of Machakos, Kenya, initiated in 1975 a literacy program that, by 1984 involved some 60,000 participants. According to program coordinator Fransis Mulwa, "literacy-class discussions became the springboard to other development" generating ventures in water supply, primary health care, soil conservation, savings and credit, cooperative farming, tree planting and handicrafts. Hirschman calls this springboard effect "social energy": once a group gets started, projects proliferate and momentum builds.

7. Appropriate Technology

It has been repeatedly emphasized through out this Consultation that a reliable and adequate water supply, close to the home, is a major felt need of women. It is also an important entry point for further development. The first strategy in this direction is the introduction of low-cost appropriate technologies, such as handpumps, piped gravity systems and simple latrines in a participatory way. The second strategy is to improve and protect traditional water supplies by adding improved water storage, lifting or

supply devices. A third way is to keep traditional systems as they are, but to introduce special water transport facilities, such as donkey or oxcarts, so that the burden of women and children in collecting water is reduced and they may be able to collect larger volumes in a single trip. The impact of the last type of project on women's time budget, water use and family hygiene has so far received little attention. Women's groups in Kenya, Indonesia, Thailand and Sri Lanka had initiated and benefited from technological improvements in bucket wells, rainwater harvesting systems, toilet facilities and washing blocks.

Environmental Protection

The need for the preservation of water resources and the environment for a lasting supply of drinking water is self evident. Already many water sources have been depleted to an alarming degree as a result of environmental degradation and over-exploitation of resources. The effect is often first noted by poor women, who see the prime necessities of life such as water, firewood and agricultural products greatly reduced. As a result, women are becoming increasingly involved in struggle to stop the destruction of forests and watersheds and in reforestation and preservation of catchment areas. Close cooperation with women in all environmental projects is not only desirable but decisive since women are already de-facto managers of local water sources and because eco-regeneration projects offer good opportunities for combining the felt needs of women for fuel, income generation and a dependable water supply.

Settled communities generally understand the necessity of protecting the natural resources that sustain them and over generations, local resource management regimes have evolved. Around the world, many of these ancient systems survive,

struggling to maintain the balance between humans and nature. In the flooded pastures along the Niger River of Mali, for example, local and nomadic herders employ elaborate calendars and rotation systems to graze millions of livestock without destroying the land. In the north of Mali, meanwhile, forests have traditionally been managed according to the simple rule that small branches can be cut as fodder for lambs and kids but not for mature animals. Village women and children provide the eyes of the law, reporting infractions to their elders, who quickly penalize violators by confiscating the best breeding male in their stock.

As Kenya's forests shrink, thousands of women's groups, youth clubs, and harambee (let's pull together) societies have mounted local tree planting drives. The National Council of Women of Kenya inaugurated its Greenbelt Movement in 1977, calling on women's groups across the country to turn open spaces, school grounds, and roadsides into forests. Over a million trees in 1,000 greenbelts are now straining skyward, 20,000 mini-greenbelts have taken root, and 670 community tree nurseries are in place. Meanwhile, Kenya's largest women's development network, Maendeleo Ya Wanawake, with its 10,000 member groups, initiated a campaign in 1985 to construct improved wood-saving cookstoves.

The world's most acclaimed community movement, named Chipko, shows how grassroots action to defend a resource can grow into far more. The movement, born in the Garhwal hills of Uttar Pradesh, India, Chipko first drew fame for its sheer courage. In March 1973, as a timber company headed for the woods above impoverished Gopeshwar village, desperate local

women and children rushed ahead of them to chipko (literally "hug" or "cling to") the trees, daring the loggers to let the axes fall on their backs.

Since its initial success the movement, in the words one follower, has "widened from embracing trees to embracing mountains and waters."

9. Sustainability and Replicability

The fundamental questions of sustainable development are, By whom? and For whom? Sustainable development imposed from on high is rarely sustainable; it may not even be development.

Because projects that have the active involvement of women are relatively new, it is not surprising that data on the sustainability and replicability of these projects are still limited. Sustainability refers to the capacity of communities and projects to preserve a reasonable level of functioning, uses and coverage with the own resources, without negative effects on the environment. Replicability refers to the likelihood that a project is or can be replicated in similar areas and/or by similar communities using the same methods and attaining the same results.

Preservation of good levels of functioning and use are reported in participatory projects in Bangladesh, Indonesia, Malawi, Kenya, Ecuador, where established facilities have functioned for one to six years. However, no hard data were included on the frequency and duration of breakdowns, financial management and upkeep of service coverage levels with population growth. An example of project replication comes from rainwater harvesting project in Kenya.