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# Sourcebook for Gender Issues at the Policy Level in the Water and Sanitation Sector



202.1-96SO-13537-1



# Sourcebook for Gender Issues at the Policy Level in the Water and Sanitation Sector

Prepared by

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on behalf of the

Gender Issues Mandated Activity

of the

Water and Sanitation Collaborative Council

October 1996

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and Development/The World Bank  
1818 H Street NW  
Washington, DC 20433  
October 1996

This document is published informally by the World Bank. Copies are available from the UNDP-World Bank Water and Sanitation Program. Contact: Ms. Mari Dhokai, telephone: 202-473-3970, fax: 202-477-0164, email: [mdhokai@worldbank.org](mailto:mdhokai@worldbank.org)

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## FOREWORD

*The Sourcebook for Gender Issues at the Policy Level in the Water and Sanitation Sector* is a product of the Collaborative Council's mandated activity on gender issues. The Working Group on Gender Issues presented a first sourcebook on the topic of gender at the September 1993 Rabat meeting of the Collaborative Council. This document, *Gender Issues Sourcebook for Water and Sanitation Projects*, was well received and was approved for publication. The Council's request that another sourcebook be prepared, for the policy level, has given rise to this volume.

The *Sourcebook for Gender Issues at the Policy Level* looks at how gender issues flow from the sector principles set forth at the 1992 Dublin International Conference on Water and the Environment, introduces the topic of gender issues at the policy level, discusses agency policies, highlights instruments used to implement policies, and describes the experiences of a few agencies.

The examination of gender issues at the policy level, in the water and sanitation sector or beyond, is still a relatively new endeavor. Aspects of sector policy that relate to gender issues should be formulated based on experience at the project level. Gender variables, along with other social issues such as ethnicity, religion, and class, can provide the sociological underpinnings that help fit a demand-based approach to a particular geographical setting. It is the sector agencies' task to find efficient and effective ways to incorporate gender issues into sector policies and to find simple ways to operationalize them. Much remains to be done. It is hoped that this volume will spark debate and further analysis and action by a variety of sector stakeholders.

Many people contributed to the development of this sourcebook. Susan Davis, Christine van Wijk, Alka Naithani, and I wrote the chapters. Other members of the Gender Group sent materials and provided ideas. I would like to thank the other Gender Group members: Raquel Alfaro, Dianne D. Arboleda, Marcia Brewster, Eve Crowley, Janelle Daane, Paula Donnelly-Roark, Lester Forde, Christine Gonzales, Irene Gujit, Carolyn Hannan-Andersson, Bilqis Amin Hoque, Margaret Karp, Alison King, Arthur MacIntosh, Siyam Malomo, Ilse Marks, Shafika Nasser, E. O. Okeke, V. N. Okobi, Ellen Pascua, Borjana Schieber, Catalina Hinchey Trujillo, Corinne Wacker, and Norma Ybanez. Still others provided valuable assistance. I would like in particular to thank Monica Fong, Vijay Jagannathan, Caroline Moser, and Ranjith Wirasinha. Beulah Noble and Rose Poole worked hard to put the document into its current form. Publication was made possible by financing from the Government of Norway.

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## HOW TO USE THE SOURCEBOOK

This sourcebook has been created to provide agency staff with information and methods related to gender and development policy issues. It can be used by a variety of types of development agencies, in various geographical areas. The volume should be of particular use to managers and policymakers. It presents ideas, methods, and experiences concerning the incorporation of gender issues into policies. This is not a manual or handbook; it does not presume to give instructions on **making** gender and development policy. Rather, it discusses concepts, the relation of gender issues to sector policies, agencies' history with gender and development policy, methodologies used, and so on. It looks at the numerous ways policies have been created and implemented over the past few decades—and at what has worked and what has not worked. The sourcebook ends with suggestions for future research and analysis on the operationalization of gender and development policy in the water and sanitation sector.

The first chapter considers gender issues within the water and sanitation sector, discussing their relevance to sector principles as enunciated at the 1992 Dublin International Conference on Water and the Environment. Chapter two analyzes gender issues at the policy level. It defines the policy level, presents a historical overview of agency women in development and gender and development policies, and presents concepts from the new institutional economics—with its dual focus on the institutional environment and the interaction among institutions—to assist with analysis.

The third chapter reviews the experiences several agencies have had trying to implement gender aspects of policies, while chapter four examines the various methods organizations have utilized over the years. Chapter five takes a look at one of the most common techniques: training. And chapter six, the conclusion, summarizes some of the lessons encountered in the previous sections and pinpoints areas that need further study and experimentation. The sourcebook ends with two annexes that summarize several agencies' gender and development policies and, more specifically, the gender aspects of their water and sanitation sector policies. A third annex provides a contact list of Gender Issues Working Group members.

The sourcebook may be used in several ways, depending on the user's needs. If interested in conceptual issues, the reader may wish to focus on chapters one and two. If the area of concern is methodologies, then chapters five and six should be consulted. Chapters three and four will be helpful to those seeking summaries of agencies' policies. The volume can therefore be of use to people who want to develop or improve gender and development aspects of the water and sanitation policy in their agency, as well as to general agency managers concerned with gender and development and other policy issues.

**Gender and development policy analysis, whether at a general or sector level, is a fairly new endeavor. Much remains to be done. This sourcebook highlights some of the accomplishments to date, especially as they relate to the water and sanitation sector.**



# 1. GENDER ISSUES WITHIN THE WATER AND SANITATION SECTOR

Gender issues were included in the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development Agenda 21 document, *An Easy Reference to the Specific Recommendations on Women* (UNIFEM 1994). They also were among the guiding principles set forth at the 1992 Dublin International Conference on Water and the Environment (see also World Bank 1993). Gender issues inform and enrich the other three principles focused on at the conference: water as an economic good, water management at the lowest appropriate level, and water as a finite and vulnerable resource. Following the principles requires first, determining what people (consumers) want and will contribute toward; and second, facilitating their participation in project decisionmaking on the types and levels of service and operation and maintenance. Men and women often have disparate roles and motivations in sector activities, and recognizing these differences when determining what communities want and designing operations and maintenance can increase chances for project sustainability.

The role women play in the water sector is in many cases to collect and manage water at the household level. Thus, they may have stronger incentives (more intense preferences) than men to seek new, more convenient systems that can reduce the time they spend collecting water (see box 1.1). So they may be more willing to contribute toward building and maintaining new systems. Recognizing and incorporating these gender distinctions can help agencies to determine preferences more precisely, to take maximum advantage of local incentives, and to arrange for facilities and operations and maintenance that more closely answers community needs. This, in turn, can help ensure that facilities will be used and maintained.

Gender issues at the policy level in the water and sanitation sector need to flow from the principles enunciated at the Dublin Conference. Actions taken should be part of a sensible, comprehensive sector policy. Gender variables, along with other social issues such as ethnicity, religion, and class, can provide the sociological underpinnings that help fit a demand-based, participatory approach to a particular geographical setting. It is the sector agencies' task to find efficient and effective ways to incorporate gender issues into sector policies and to find simple ways to operationalize them.

## **Basic Principles**

One of the Dublin principles states that water should be managed as an economic as well as a social good. Within this concept, it is important to note gender differentials. When analyzing water as a social good, it can be instructive to assess benefits separately for women and men. Women and girls often suffer the most when water supply is poor and, conversely, benefit the

most when supply is improved. When water is of better quality, and is available in greater quantity and closer to homes, there are many advantages for females. Women and girls have shorter trips to make carrying heavy containers. This can have a positive impact on their health and save them time, potentially increasing women's leisure time and the time girls are able to spend in school.<sup>1</sup> If there is a decrease in water-related diseases, women will spend less time caring for sick family members. Women may also use their increase in time for income-generating activities. Recognizing these differences in benefits can help ensure that benefits are fully measured, and that projects are designed to take full advantage of them (through, for example, linkages with school enrollment programs and credit programs for women).

Box 1.1

Recognizing Differential Incentives

Women may be willing to work harder to obtain and maintain new, improved services, because they will be the ones to benefit most. They will thus have more of an incentive to work toward increased service provision. In *Kenya*, for example, a local nongovernmental organization, the Kenya Water for Health Organization (KWAHO), assisted fourteen women's groups in Kibera, an informal settlement in Nairobi. The women had organized themselves to build new public water kiosks. KWAHO facilitated the interaction between the women and the local government, persuading the Nairobi City Council to connect the kiosks to the city water mains (see World Bank 1995, 62).

In Rajapurva, an old slum in Kanpur, *India*, residents (mostly women) formed a welfare committee with the help of a local nongovernmental organization (Shramik Bharati). They mobilized their share of funds, 10 percent of the capital costs, to take advantage of a government scheme for the construction of community toilets. They now are maintaining the toilets (see Ramasubban 1995).

A report on the Orangi Pilot Project in *Pakistan* mentions how it was discovered that wives were often more concerned than husbands about disease and sanitation, as the burden of caring for the sick often fell to them. Project staff saw many examples of women forcing their reluctant husbands to pay their contribution to the project's low-cost sanitation component (Khan 1992, 22).

When analyzing water as an economic good, gender analysis can once again be informative. Viewing water as an economic good means using a demand-based, participatory approach that assesses what users want and are willing to contribute toward. As women and girls are often the primary users of water facilities, determining what kinds of services they prefer can be crucial. Their preferences regarding sanitation facilities need to be known as well. For example, in parts of *India* where female seclusion is practiced, women preferred water taps that were nearby. When taps were located far away, women continued to use nearby, polluted water sources rather than walk farther away from their homes. Again in *India*, compost pits located outside villages remained unused and women continued to deposit refuse near their homes, because it was not acceptable for women to be seen carrying loads of refuse to the outskirts of the village. This occurred even though villagers were fined for depositing refuse around their homes

(Kudat and Weidemann 1991). Using a demand-based, participatory approach would have avoided these problems. By determining women's preferences relating to water and sanitation, facilities could have been installed that would be more likely to be used and maintained.

Women, as primary users and beneficiaries of improved water systems, may be more likely to contribute to facilities that have been designed based on their preferences. If projects are designed to respond to women's preferences and to provide women access to project activities, women may help ensure project sustainability by contributing their money and labor for construction and operation and maintenance. If a water system breaks down, it is women, not men, who will most likely have to travel farther to get water. Women thus have a greater incentive to keep the system functioning, involving them in operation and maintenance activities can be instrumental. In parts of Ghana, where water is seen as a woman's responsibility, it was found that women in some families were expected to pay for pump tariffs (Syme 1992). In this instance, knowing women's willingness-to-pay was crucial.

A second basic principle enunciated at the Dublin Conference calls for management and decisionmaking at the lowest appropriate level. Here again, incorporating both men and women into projects can be beneficial. Involving users in management and decisionmaking helps ensure that systems meet consumer demand and will be used and maintained. And, as women are often the most direct users of water facilities, involving them in management and decisionmaking helps ensure both that systems meet their needs and that they will help sustain them (see box 1.2). As women use water systems frequently, they are in a good position to provide accurate, up-to-date reporting on the functioning of a given system. Women are also most likely to be making and carrying out decisions on how a particular facility is used.

A third principle of water management stated at the Dublin Conference is that fresh water is a finite and vulnerable resource, essential for sustaining life, development, and the environment. Both men and women have responsibilities relating to water use. Women are usually in charge of water used within the household, while men (and often women as well) may use water for irrigation purposes. These varying roles need to be recognized, and both women and men need to be involved in discussions about protecting water resources. The interactions between various uses of water should be recognized as well. For example, overuse of mechanized pumps for irrigation and industrial uses is draining aquifers in many areas, and the effect this may have on open wells and hand pumps that supply water for household use has not been adequately investigated.<sup>2</sup>

Box 1.2

Managing Hygiene at the Lowest Appropriate Level

In the Orangi Pilot Project in *Pakistan* it was noticed that mothers were most aware of the connection between filth and disease, although they did not always know specific causes and methods of prevention (Khan 1992, 9–23). These women were responsible for caring for sick family members and for ensuring household cleanliness—that is, they managed hygiene at the household level. The project thus wanted to reach them with messages on proper hygiene and sanitation. Since it is customary in Pakistan for women to stay inside the home, sessions could not be held at clinics. So the project introduced mobile training teams, composed of a female health visitor and a social organizer. An activist family or “contact lady” was chosen for each ten to twenty lanes in an area and meetings were held at these homes. The activists became trusted advisers and conveners for their neighbors, providing a means for the health extension teams to hold discussions with neighborhood women in order to teach good sanitation practices.

### Project Cycle

These basic principles serve as guidelines in the design of the various stages of project cycles. And within the parameters set by the principles and cycles, aspects of gender issues are relevant. During planning, demand for services is being determined. It is important to assess demand among both male and female community members (see, for example, box 1.3). With women the likely users of a system, it is critical that their preferences for type and location of facility be considered. Women’s preferences can be determined (or aggregated) by incorporating them into willingness-to-pay surveys, rapid appraisals, community meetings (which may mean separate meetings for women in some areas), and so on. With sanitation facilities, locations and superstructure designs need to be chosen that will be acceptable to both women and men.

Box 1.3

Making Strategic Use of Community Subgroups

PROSANEAR is a pilot project testing institutional and technical methods of providing water and sanitation services to low-income, urban communities in *Brazil*. All operations must involve communities in the design and construction of facilities, based on user demand. To transmit information about the project and to monitor project activities, preexisting community groups are used. These consist of natural subgroups in the community, such as neighborhood women’s groups, church groups, youth groups, and parents associations from the local school system. These groups form a channel for communication and discussion that can help elicit preferences and involvement from various sections of the community during the entire project cycle (see PROSANEAR 1995).

Men and women can both play important roles during project implementation and monitoring and evaluation. Both can be involved in decisionmaking, through membership on water user committees. In some areas, in addition to water user committees, women-only tap stand committees have been formed. These are responsible for daily maintenance of the tap stand.

This is the case, for example, in a pilot activity in Nepal.<sup>3</sup> Most villagers interviewed, men and women, felt that this was good: since women use the tap stand every day, they should be the ones who keep it clean and who report any problems to the water user committee. Having women on the water user committee helps ensure that those who use the systems most directly and most often are involved in decisionmaking. This helps guarantee that decisions are practical and meet the needs of users. As new, improved systems may bring women more immediate benefits, they may have more incentive to provide labor for construction and to spend time on monitoring and on operation and maintenance chores. Facilitating women's involvement in these tasks can contribute to their satisfactory completion and thus to project sustainability.

Some water and sanitation projects have successfully incorporated aspects of gender issues into their activities, in ways that flow from established sector principles and policies (see box 1.4). More projects need to do this systematically, taking into consideration the burdens on women's and men's time. More needs to be learned about doing this efficiently and effectively, throughout the project cycle, in projects large and small, so as to enhance the prospects for project sustainability.

Box 1.4

Making Full Use of Differential Incentives

Women often benefit more directly than men from improved water facilities and so may have a greater incentive to work for project success. Field notes from a visit to the JAKPAS project (see note 3) indicate that villagers in rural *Nepal* recognized this difference in incentives. The water user committee decided that each household should contribute an equal amount of cash for a new water system. They had problems collecting the amount required, and since not enough money was raised, they returned what they had collected. Unwilling to give up, the water user committee requested some of the village women to go house to house to convince villagers of the value of the project and to collect the money. The water user committee thought that the women—those who stood to benefit directly from the project—would be able to convince other women, and that they in turn could convince their husbands. This approach proved successful and the money was raised. Families who could not contribute their share of money contributed labor instead.

## 2. GENDER ISSUES AT THE POLICY LEVEL

This chapter is an introduction to gender issues at the policy level. The policy level is defined, and a rationale is given for including gender issues in the sector and at the policy level. A summary is then presented of the types of gender policies agencies have utilized, with a discussion of how these have changed over time and in relation to overall development “paradigms.” Concepts borrowed from the new institutional economics are employed to devise a framework for analysis.

In her book *Gender Planning and Development: Theory, Practice and Training*, Caroline Moser differentiates between policy, planning, and implementation. She states that “If policy is about what to do, then planning is about how to do it, the organization of implementation is about what is actually done” (Moser 1993, 6). Moser goes on to say that “Policy-making is the process of social and political decision-making about how to allocate resources for the needs and interests of society, concluding in the formulation of a policy strategy” (Moser 1993, 6). Hence, policy for gender issues in the water and sanitation sector concerns what should be done about gender issues in the sector. Policies should state goals and what must be done to achieve them. And it should elaborate on how gender issues inform and enrich basic sector principles and policies.

What does one look at when examining the policy level? Agency policy can manifest itself in various ways. Policy statements or mandates are perhaps the most explicit expression of an agency’s stand on the issues. Aspects of policy may be illustrated by other, more implicit instruments, including conceptual frameworks utilized by an agency, organizational procedures and bureaucratic requirements, budgetary allocations, research emphasis, and topics routinely covered by agency training. The institutional arrangements used to implement policy are critical to achieving objectives. Do these arrangements provide the correct incentives to institutional actors? Will they encourage staff to promote agency policy?

What is the rationale for addressing gender issues in the water and sanitation sector? Although this question can be studied at length, a few key points are highlighted here (see also chapter one). As a World Bank policy paper notes, “Improving women’s productivity can contribute to growth, efficiency, and poverty reduction—key development goals everywhere” (World Bank 1994a, 9). Another document states that “Social analyses can help clarify the gender, sociocultural, and demographic dimensions that may significantly influence the outcome of programs” (World Bank 1995a, 25). Significantly reducing the time women spend collecting water can free up women’s time for more productive activities. Social assessments that include gender analysis can help determine when and how gender is a factor in a given project context, as well as provide suggestions for addressing the issue in project design and implementation.

Women and men often have different and distinct roles in water and sanitation. Women are most often the collectors and managers of water in the household, and they are usually the

ones who ensure household hygiene. Men traditionally have been more connected with community construction and management, although in some places women also are involved.

Because of their varying roles, men and women may have different preferences and incentives regarding sector activities. In their role as collectors and managers of household water, women may have a considerable amount of knowledge about water sources and their quality and reliability. They may be the ones who will benefit most from improved water sources, closer to their homes. Thus, their demand for new, improved facilities and their preferences concerning site location and type of facility may be crucial. Women also may be more motivated to maintain a new system: if the system breaks down, they will be the ones who have to walk long distances to collect water from the old source. If the system that is installed is inappropriate—that is, one that women will not use, perhaps because it is in a bad location or the pump handle is too high—project funds will have been wasted. In many areas improved systems translate into additional time in a woman's day, as less time is spent collecting water. In some cases, this time can be used for productive purposes.

If gender issues are not considered at the policy level, as part of overall sector policy, it is likely that they will not be considered at the project level either. Moser discusses the need to distinguish among different stages of the planning process. "Gender blindness" may be present during the policy formulation process, with women's roles not recognized along with men's. Or problems can arise during attempts to translate gender aspects of policy into implementation. Even with "good" gender statements in a sector policy, unless potential constraints to implementation are identified and addressed, the process will be less than satisfactory.

Gender aspects of water and sanitation sector policy often relate to an agency's overall gender policy. We will therefore review various agencies' histories with regard to overall gender and development policy. Agencies have followed several types of gender policy over the years. This has often reflected the changing development contexts in which agencies have operated. Many agencies changed their policy orientation over time, others pursued more or less the same kind of policy, and still others used a mixture of policy types. And from the mid-1980s onward, the transition from "women in development" to "gender and development" was underway.

## **Types of Gender Policy**

Moser and Molynieux divide women in development/gender policy approaches into five types: welfare, equity, antipoverty, efficiency, and empowerment (Moser 1993, 56–57). The *welfare approach* came first, starting in the 1950s, and is still widely used. Its main goal has been to bring women into development as better mothers, through meeting women's practical needs relating to food, nutrition, and family planning. With this approach women were seen as passive beneficiaries, with an emphasis on their reproductive role. The *equity approach*, which was most

popular between 1975 and 1985, viewed women as active partners in development and strove to gain equal status for women in the development process. The focus on equity for women in development was greatly influenced by the work of Ester Boserup, which detailed how modernization efforts often had a negative impact on women.

*Anti-poverty approaches* have been utilized since the 1970s. Development policy in general was focusing on basic needs, equity, and antipoverty, and women in development approaches did the same. The antipoverty approach sought to increase women's productivity. It was linked to redistribution to meet basic needs and achieve growth. As such, the policy often led to an emphasis on income-generating projects.

The 1980s championed different development approaches and women in development approaches followed suit. The decade saw a shift toward concentration on efficiency. Development policy began to focus on structural adjustment strategies. As achieving equity and meeting basic needs slipped from being the salient development issues of the day, the women in development movement also veered away from them. The *efficiency approach* promoted women's involvement to ensure more effective and efficient development. This approach is now preeminent.

The most recent approach has been defined by Moser as *empowerment*. It originated in developing countries in women's feminist writings and grassroots organizations. The approach, which recognizes that women's subordination is partly attributable to colonial and neocolonial oppression, encourages greater empowerment of women through self-reliance. It seeks to mobilize women to work together to meet their needs. This approach still has limited popularity, and is utilized mostly by developing country women's nongovernmental organizations and their supporters.

The transition that began in the mid-1980s from women in development policy to gender and development policy bears further clarification. Women in development attempted to highlight women's contributions to development, and thus to promote their inclusion in development projects and programs. It was realized, however, that this "... led to a focus on women in isolation from the rest of their lives....The implication was that the problem—and hence the solution—concerned only women" (Kabeer 1994, xii). The gender and development approach focuses on men and women, and on the relationships between them. It sees women within the context in which they live, analyzes their status vis-à-vis men, and recognizes that women's effective involvement in development activities is influenced by the nature of these relationships, by the different roles women and men play in households and in communities. The gender and development approach thus has a better chance of mainstreaming women into the development process because it recognizes that they are an integral part of their communities—their roles may differ from men's, but they are nonetheless part of the same context. Even so, as Naila Kabeer states, "...while the terminology of gender, gender roles and gender relations has been widely



adopted, its implications have not always been fully worked through” (1994, xii). And, in a reflection of past usage, some still employ the term “gender” when referring only to women.

### **The New Institutional Economics**

How can concepts from the new institutional economics help us understand gender issues at the policy level? A two-part definition of new institutional economics was proposed by Davis and North (cited in Williamson 1994, 174). It examines both the institutional environment and institutional arrangements. The former is the set of fundamental political, social, and legal ground rules that form the context in which organizations operate. The latter are the arrangements between organizational units, the mechanisms through which these units interact. Although new institutional economics analysis is applied to the study of economic organization, this approach and its related concepts can be useful when assessing the formulation and implementation of gender policy in development organizations.

Rules and procedures are important in any organization. They can play an important part in the operationalization of a policy, facilitating or impeding its implementation. One can see whether explicit rules have been formulated to support a particular policy, and whether preexisting rules support policy goals or undermine them. If, for example, an agency has come out with a gender policy, the question can be asked: Has the agency also developed rules and procedures to help ensure that the policy will be effective? Does it have other rules that work against policy goals? Even if an organization does not have a formal policy on gender, its rules may have an impact on gender and development issues.

### **The 3 R's, Transactions Costs, and Informal Norms**

When evaluating an organization's policies a standard we may call the “3 R's” can be applied. This calls for looking at the organization's rules, referees, and rewards/sanctions. Does the agency have rules that support its policy? Are there “referees” who check to make sure the rules are followed? Are there rewards for those who follow the rules, and sanctions for those who do not? The 3 R's give teeth to policy implementation. Hypothetically, an agency that follows the 3 R's would be more successful in implementing policy than one that did not. As well, an agency's adherence to the 3 R's may be an indication of its commitment to policy, or it might reflect the agency's savvy with institutional issues.

Fundamental to all these predictors of policymaking success is the issue of incentives. Do agency rules and procedures provide institutional actors with the proper incentives for implementing policy? If there is no referee to determine whether policy is being followed, and if no rewards (recognition, promotion, and the like) are given if policy is followed and no penalties are suffered if it is not, one could hypothesize that policy implementation would be less successful

than in an organization that has a referee and rewards/sanctions. Agencies may actually harbor disincentives. For example, gender may be seen as a marginal issue in an agency's business, of such low priority that staff working on it may be seen as out of the mainstream of the organization's work. Such personnel may therefore feel that their chances of success, of receiving promotions, are diminished. In other agencies, however, gender may be regarded as an innovative issue, "cutting edge," and staff working on it will receive high visibility and recognition.

Transaction costs analysis is particularly relevant to policy operationalization. What is involved with implementing a policy? Are rules and procedures clear and easy to accomplish? Or are they cumbersome and bureaucratic, causing project delays and endless additional paperwork. That is, what costs are involved for those implementing a new policy? Again, a hypothesis might be that the easier a policy is to implement, the more likely it is to be successful. Conversely, the more unwieldy rules and procedures are, the less likely it is that a policy change will be operationalized. For example, incorporating the issue of gender into the regular project process, perhaps bundling it with other social issues (class, religion, ethnicity), may make it easier for project managers to handle—and hence make it more likely that they will. Alternatively, if gender is seen as an issue that requires an extensive and separate analysis and perhaps even an independent project component, already-burdened project administrators may not even attempt to address it.

In addition to considering explicit, formal rules and procedures, it is vital to bring to light implicit, informal norms that can affect policy. Some of these have been covered in the discussion of incentives. There may be informal norms, that is, an institutional culture, that facilitate or impede work on gender issues. An agency may foster a spirit of inquiry, of testing new ideas and approaches. Or it may be resistant to change, to deviating from established areas of emphasis. In the first case one would imagine that an agency and its staff might be more open to testing new ideas on gender, and to implementing a new policy, while in the second they would not. Thus, an organization may have formal rules that promote gender issues, but in practice, informally, staff remain skeptical and discourage those who wish to work in this area.

### **Institutional Environment and Institutional Arrangements**

Exogenous variables also affect an institution's responses. These arise because of the environment or context in which an agency operates. These variables may provide incentives to the agency to formulate and implement a particular policy, or they may provide disincentives. If, for example, outside pressure groups (major funders of an agency or advocacy groups) criticize an agency either for not having or for poorly implementing a particular policy, this may provide the incentive to develop or better operationalize that policy. The outcome depends somewhat on the organization's "culture." If the agency likes to be seen as innovative, it may proceed along various

policy avenues to stay ahead of other organizations in its field. If, for example, the agency wants to be seen as a leader on social issues, it may be more motivated to put gender and other social concerns at the forefront of its policies.

The types of institutional arrangements an agency has—the mechanisms through which units of an organization interact, through which policy is operationalized—will have a great impact on the success of a particular policy. Do the arrangements facilitate the implementation of policy or impede it? Are the institutional arrangements such that the right incentives are provided? Are transaction costs minimized? Are the 3 R's incorporated? Were informal norms and exogenous variables recognized and taken into consideration when the arrangements were formulated? For example, a small women in development or gender and development unit, located in an insignificant government ministry or an unimportant part of an agency, may marginalize gender issues and fail to provide the incentives that will attract key agency or government staff.

### **Implications for the Water and Sanitation Sector**

Concepts from the new institutional economics can provide an analytical framework for assessing gender issues at the policy level in the water and sanitation sector. These “tools” can also help those planning to develop and implement a gender policy. In the remainder of this sourcebook, these concepts will be used to probe further the connections between gender and development and policy.

What is the policy level in the water and sanitation sector? To discover this, one first needs to zero in on agencies that are strongly involved in the sector. Next, the institutional arrangements used to address sector activities must be identified. Does an organization have a single unit that is concerned with the sector, or does it have multisectoral regional units that work on water and other issues? Once the right institutional units have been identified, one can check to see whether an agency has explicit policies, either for the sector as a whole or for several sectors grouped together. If so, is gender mentioned? Does the agency have a special policy for gender within the sector? What are the tools used to operationalize gender aspects of policy?

It is also instructive to recognize what type of overall gender policy, if any, an agency has. Is this policy being utilized in sector activities? What type of women in development or gender policy is it? This can greatly influence the types of programs and projects implemented at the field level. For example, if the gender policy utilized is a welfare approach, then women and men most likely will be seen as passive recipients of services, not as active participants and decisionmakers. Under the equity approach, equality for women vis-à-vis men will be highlighted, and projects can be expected to have this as a primary goal. An antipoverty emphasis may see water and sanitation projects under the rubric of “basic needs” and envision additional income generation by profiting from women's expanded free time and the increased availability of water. Agencies using an

efficiency approach probably will not emphasize equality between men and women or the empowerment of women, but will aim for the incorporation of gender issues in ways that maximize project efficiency and sustainability. The empowerment model may be seen as more political, focusing on advocacy. An organization using a women in development approach may tend to have more stand-alone, women's projects or women's components in mainstream projects, while agencies utilizing a gender and development approach may have more integrated strategies.

## Summary

Concepts from new institutional economics can be particularly useful when assessing gender issues within the water and sanitation sector. One can identify the institutional arrangements used to incorporate gender policy into the sector. One can discover if there are rules and procedures for operationalizing the policy. Are the 3 R's included? What incentives do sector professionals (most often engineers) have for integrating gender issues into policymaking and implementation? What informal norms operate within the agency, and how do exogenous variables (such as the priorities of major funders) influence agency sector staff? What transaction costs are faced by those attempting to treat policy issues? What are the institutional links between sector staff handling gender issues and staff dealing with them in other parts of an agency—is there a synergy, a sharing of experiences?

### 3. EXPERIENCES WITH GENDER POLICY

This chapter examines the implementation of gender aspects of policy using a case study approach. It presents examples of gender policy in different types of organizations, both generally and with regard to the water and sanitation sector; these include a UN agency, developing country governments, and local and international nongovernmental organizations. Information on implementation in the water and sanitation sector reveals the effectiveness of this policy. The cases were chosen to present interesting examples, rather than because they provide lessons that can be generalized; much more research is needed before that can be done.

The chapter also addresses several gender-related issues, including how policies and implementation address women's needs, and whether gender issues are treated separately or mainstreamed. The water and sanitation sector typically has problems with agency-issue coordination. Thus, water and sanitation work is done by engineers while nongovernmental organizations often execute social aspects of projects—and the two groups often do not communicate effectively.

The case studies selected present different types of agencies. UNICEF (the United Nations Children's Fund) is an international agency. The developing nations of the Philippines and Tanzania have supportive gender policies and varying experiences with implementation. The Philippines also provides examples of policy and its implementation by both a local and an international nongovernmental organization. The case of Morocco illustrates a consideration of gender issues in the absence of specific statements on gender in sector policy. The experiences of several bilateral agencies are also included.

#### UNICEF

Since its inception UNICEF has focused on women and children. Initially it provided basic health and social service programs for women as mothers, caretakers, and homemakers, but the current approach is broader. In 1994 the global policy emphasized gender equality and empowerment of women and girls. It reiterated the strategic goals of reducing gender disparity in all stages of the life cycle, eliminating the causes of gender discrimination that led to such disparities, and enabling and empowering women to participate in the development process. UNICEF has adopted the Women's Equity and Empowerment Framework as the operational tool for mainstreaming gender concerns into its programs, both as a cross-sectoral dimension and in the sectoral programs.

With regard to the water and environmental sanitation sector, a multidonor evaluation (UNICEF 1992a) conducted in 1992 reviewed six UNICEF-assisted water and environmental sanitation programs, highlighting gender-related goals and strategies and describing the agency's performance. The evaluation stressed that UNICEF needs to address the issue of empowerment

of communities, especially women, in water resources management. UNICEF's goals for water and environmental sanitation have been to facilitate "universal access to safe drinking water and a sanitary means of excreta disposal" by 2000. These goals mainly aim to meet basic needs using physical means such as boreholes and pumps, with the addition of some health and hygiene education. UNICEF normally works with a partner in the central government like a water agency, which often lacks the capacity to undertake social mobilization or hygiene education.

Thus, at a general level and, more specifically in water and sanitation policy, gender issues have become a focus for UNICEF. The 1992 multidonor evaluation concluded that, "Most [water and environmental sanitation] programme designs include a focus on women. In general, the evidence on the impact on women is weak. Programmes address women as recipients, volunteers, and operators, rather than partners and household managers. UNICEF has not utilized the full potential of [water and environmental sanitation] as an entry-point for women in development, which is inherent in the fact that the [water and environmental sanitation] programmes are operational at the household level" (UNICEF 1992a, iii).

UNICEF's program priorities in the 1990s reflected a broader approach. The first priority is traditional: "Dissemination of appropriate, low-cost technology for water supply and sanitation in rural and peri-urban areas" (UNICEF 1992a, vi-vii). But the next two priorities focus more on social aspects with explicit issues dealing with gender. The second priority is "strengthening the links between water supply, sanitation, personal hygiene and general health of the target groups," and the third is "using [water and environmental sanitation] services as an entry-point for empowerment, especially of women, e.g., through area-based multi-sector programmes" (UNICEF 1992a, vi-vii). A strategy to reach the third goal, for women, would be empowerment of target group members.

A more recent UNICEF policy review (UNICEF 1994) notes many of the same goals for girls and women as were previously stated. However, in an attempt to actually reach these goals, more specific actions were recommended than in the past. These include collection and analysis of gender-disaggregated data, establishment of monitoring systems (often missing in the past), use of the Women's Equality and Empowerment Framework to measure the gender-responsiveness of programs, and gender training and sensitization at several levels.

The new emphasis of UNICEF to involve women more in program activities is evident in several examples. In 1994 a women's masons cooperative was created as the result of training provided to sixteen women from districts in Banswara, Bhilwara, and Jaipur in Rajasthan, India. The training in masonry, with additional inputs of reading and writing, and complemented by sessions on health, nutrition, child care, and sanitation, has enabled these women, through their cooperative, to be contracted by the government in the male-dominated field.

Water supply and sanitation programs assisted by UNICEF pay particular attention to the role of women and children both as beneficiaries of the programs and users of the systems. Recognizing that water supply alone would not suffice in achieving health improvements,

UNICEF in many of its programs has combined water supply, sanitation, and hygiene education as an integrated package. For example, using the eradication of dracunculiasis (Guinea worm) as an entry point, the UNICEF-assisted program in Jhabua district, India, and the UNICEF-administered SWACH project in drought-prone Rajasthan, provide excellent models for addressing drinking water supply, water resources management, health and hygiene education, household and environment improvement, as well as environmental rehabilitation. The success of these programs is due to the strong participation of communities, and primarily to women's participation at all levels: as trainers, managers, health educators, mobilizers, animators, pump mechanics, and caretakers.

## **TANZANIA**

Tanzania has dealt with women's issues for many years, has included women in high governmental positions to address women's issues, and has an explicit policy concerning women in the water sector. Further, many of the nongovernmental organizations that work with the Tanzanian government to implement water and sanitation projects have clear policies on involving women in development. Yet, when it comes to implementation, women's involvement is generally very limited.

Since Tanzanian independence, women's needs have been taken into consideration by the government. Both the government and the national party have often noted the need to view women and men as equal partners in the development process, and women's rights as legal equals are supported by laws on voting, standing for election, equal employment opportunities, marriage and divorce, and landholding, among others. Yet these laws had little effect on most women's status, and in 1982 the government appointed a woman "Minister without Portfolio" in the Prime Minister's Office to oversee women's affairs. In 1985 this role was assumed by a division for women and children in the Community Development Department of the new Ministry of Community Development, Culture, Youth, and Sports. That department began to work on a National Women's Policy, which was submitted to the cabinet in 1987, approved by the government (in draft) in 1989, and presented to the national party. However, this policy had still not been approved as of June 1991. The location of the women's ministry changed twice, in October 1990 becoming part of the new Ministry of Community Development, Women Affairs and Children; both the minister and principal secretary were women.

Tanzania has included explicit statements about gender in its national water policy. "The Water Policy of 1991 has formalised the training, participation and involvement of women" (Tanzania, Ministry of Water, Energy and Minerals 1994, 276). "It is Tanzanian policy to have more equal gender involvement in control of benefits from rural water supply projects, and also that half of village water committee members should be female" (Tanzania 1992b).

Several Scandinavian donor agencies have supported Tanzania's development in the water and sanitation sector, many of them since the 1970s. These include the Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA), the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida), the Finnish Department of International Development Cooperation (FINNIDA), and the Norwegian Agency for International Development (NORAD). And the Royal Netherlands Government has supported two gender impact studies of domestic water supply programs, which address the concerns of this volume.

### ***Danish International Development Authority***

By 1992 DANIDA had guidelines for water sector policy supporting women's involvement at all levels, including design, construction, operations and maintenance, and management of facilities for water and sanitation. They have also tried to ensure that women have equal opportunities for employment as staff and managers (DANIDA, cited in IRC 1993, 21).

Yet evidence of DANIDA's commitment, and that of Tanzania, varies when one looks at implementation of water projects. A 1989 plan for the operation of Tanzania's rural water supply from 1990 to 1994, agreed to by the Ministry of Water and DANIDA, set goals of supplying more water and encouraging greater self-sufficiency, but did not mention gender at all (Tanzania and DANIDA 1989). In late summer 1991 a joint Tanzanian-Danish review mission reported on the implementation of the plan in three regions. There was detailed discussion of the village participation approach, especially since it was soon to be initiated as a national strategy in the water and sanitation sector. The report notes that the participatory approach was based on the United Nations' PROWESS (Promotion of the Role of Women in Water and Environmental Sanitation Services) program and included "in particular women at all levels of project planning and implementation" (Tanzania 1992a, 33).

The Tanzania-DANIDA review team describes how the participatory approach is implemented by project-hired village participation animators and government-assigned community development animators and health workers. They focus mainly on construction, but also support the formation of village water committees and village water funds. The review team suggests that more training is needed for these people as the participatory approach becomes general and that quality control mechanisms should be developed before water sources are handed over to villagers, to be sure they can maintain them. Despite the statement about gender and its emphasis in the PROWESS approach, it is never mentioned in this review.

A year later, a second joint Tanzanian-Danish review mission visited the area, and its report deals with gender in great detail. In a large section on gender aspects of implementation the report notes, "Ensuring a more equal gender involvement in control over and benefits from rural water supply projects is both a Tanzanian and a Danish policy" (Tanzania 1992b, 37). The review team found that training had been expanded to groups that include women, that half of water



committee members were women (a condition of national water policy), and that there were women tap and pump attendants. Among the regional staff of community development animators, and village participation animators, there were twenty-eight women and thirty-seven men.

The socioeconomic impacts of the project have been felt most by women and children, with children collecting more water, and women having more time in their fields because the new water sources are closer and safer in the evening. The review team's suggestions included having community development animators report on progress on many issues, with attention to the degree of women's involvement and assessment of whether greater female involvement influenced the quality of water service. The water ministry also requested in March 1992 that DANIDA fund a consultant for two years to prepare a plan to introduce PROWESS participatory techniques in the rural water sector nationwide.

It appears that DANIDA managed to involve women to a greater extent in the water and sanitation sector using training and institutional reorganization, with the result that half the water committee members were women, as well as a good number of community and supervisory staff.

### *Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency*

Sida has long been involved in supporting women in developing countries. This development approach was first formulated in 1964, and in 1972 Sida conducted an analysis that focused full attention on the situation of women in developing countries. In 1984 Sida water and sanitation strategy emphasized popular participation, especially of women, as a way to make water and health projects sustainable.

This policy stance found expression in the Health through Sanitation and Water Programme (HESAWA), a joint effort by the Tanzanian government and Sida that was initiated in 1985 in northwestern Tanzania. Although Tanzania and Sida had collaborated on water programs since 1965, the limited results prompted them to begin the HESAWA program, which stresses community participation and has self-reliance as a final goal. The HESAWA concept is that program beneficiaries should become the owners and controllers of their water and sanitation facilities. While both men and women are beneficiaries, women perhaps gain more: a better water supply benefits everyone equally in terms of health, but its benefit in reduced workload accrues particularly to women.

Yet two recent evaluations of HESAWA (Binamungu 1993; Smet and others 1993) indicate that women's participation is limited, especially in decisionmaking and implementation. The village council of about twenty-five is expected to do much of the planning and decisionmaking, and the 1993 Tanzania's Local Government Act states that women should make up at least one-fourth of the elected village council. But 1993 figures for membership in local village councils revealed that the female-male ratio ranged from a high of 10:24 to a low of 0:31. Generally, village councils had from 0 to 3 women members, though new elections could effect a

change in these low numbers. Villages in the HESAWA program were also to form a water committee with membership evenly split, male and female. Yet when an evaluation team visited twenty-four villages, they found only nine committees with this balance. In some areas a HESAWA quota procedure requiring the equal representation was effective.

The evaluations of HESAWA also shed light on the daily participation of women water sector work. Women work in construction, digging, and carrying materials, and they cook for other workers. Ten percent of mechanics trained at the district level were women. When asked their priorities, women said they wanted to be more involved in the siting, design, and management of water sources, and they requested training for the latter—although they did so carefully, to avoid offending anyone. A priority expressed by many women—washing slabs near sources—was not available; male planners had not included them.

Several constraints work against greater involvement of women. They seldom speak in public meetings or seek leadership positions, although one report mentioned that local women were encouraged after seeing one of their own conducting herself well on a committee. Women also lack the free time needed for long meetings. Both HESAWA evaluations mentioned that local people often felt that the program's gender aspect favored women unfairly, or was imposed by a foreign group, or both. It was felt that gender aspects were not well explained at the local level, and that a reformulation of this aspect of the program would be helpful.

One evaluation mentioned that the participatory aspect is weaker than it should be. The report also found that water supply has received more emphasis than health and sanitation: the latrine program was not functioning well, and although village health workers had been trained, people were not sure who they were; when located, the health workers stated they were paid irregularly.

Although much remains to be done to increase women's participation in the water sector, the evaluations conclude that women's involvement with water supply is "far stronger" in the HESAWA sites than in three villages chosen for comparison (Smet and others 1993). It appears that even though both the Tanzanian government and Sida encourage greater participation of women in water and sanitation programs, the goal is still difficult to reach. The reasons cited are well-known: cultural factors, which discourage women from public participation; and women's heavy workload, which results in limited time for other activities. Yet women want to be more involved. Organizational procedures such as requiring equal numbers of participants of each sex worked in some cases. Binamungu (1993) suggests that each district have a person trained in gender planning to monitor problems and potentials; this focused attention may be necessary, since a more general effort to increase women's participation did not work satisfactorily.

## *Finnish Department of International Development Cooperation*

In the early 1990s two FINNIDA projects in Tanzania were examined for their impact on women. Despite FINNIDA's explicit policy to include women in development as agents, beneficiaries, and policymakers, project evaluations found that implementation did not follow suit (Rojas 1993).

In 1989 Tanzania and Finland agreed to develop an urban water supply in Zanzibar. This appeared to be a model project in that it avoided the common pitfall of building physical facilities and ignoring the human factor. Instead, the first phase, 1991–94, was devoted to developing the necessary human resources and institutions before beginning construction. Yet, by the end of this period the author reported that little had been done to increase popular participation or the involvement of women (FINNIDA 1994). The document suggests ways of accomplishing these goals, and one would expect this explicit focus to have borne more fruit in three years.

Another study (FINNIDA 1994) examines the Mtwara-Lindi water supply project in Tanzania as an example of FINNIDA women in development policy at work over time. The project was begun in 1972, with a planning stage, and is followed in the study until 1993. The work was undertaken by an engineering firm—since the main project goal was provision of water supplies—and no socioeconomic studies were performed. A FINNIDA-financed study of the effects of the project on women found that they were hardly involved in planning, implementation, or training. A 1987 evaluation noted that although there had been a strategy in the previous phase to involve women in all aspects of the water project, little had actually been done. A subsequent evaluation (1990) did not mention women at all, and a 1992 evaluation found women disadvantaged by lack of training for the project. Finally, women have been highlighted as a target group for the final project phase, 1991–93, and the project is devising strategies to involve women and collect sex-disaggregated data.

Several gender impact studies conducted in the early 1990s and a water and sanitation sector review performed by the Tanzanian government in 1994 draw similar conclusion about the situation of women in the water and sanitation sector in Tanzania: although both bilateral donors and the Tanzanian government have had for some time policies to involve women in this sector as participants at several levels, many of their goals have not been reached. One of the gender impact studies, financed by the Royal Netherlands Embassy (Hauli, Sana, and Bashemererwa 1993), looked at water programs in the Shinyanga region and noted several problems that were widespread. The report is quite helpful, listing expected results of water programs, actual results, and recommendations. For example, one expectation was greater involvement of user groups, especially women, in the local Domestic Water Supply Programme. The study found that women were indeed in the majority among users but that local leaders rather than women initiated action. The report recommended gathering information from the “real” water users, the women, at established collection points or at home, rather than at meetings where men dominate (Hauli,

Sana, and Bashemererwa 1993, vi). Another expected program result was greater equality in the division of labor for water supply, and it was found that some women were digging and maintaining wells. Other organizations had similar findings, but women were consistently underrepresented at decisionmaking levels. Finally, there was expectation that water programs would reduce the distance people had to go to get water and would lighten women's overall workload—instead, both travel times and women's workload were still large.

A gender impact study by Mbughuni (1993), also funded by the Netherlands, echoes the finding on women's burden of work, and both she and Chachage, Nawe, and Wilfred (1990) warn that water planners must be careful not to increase women's workload. Mbughuni's careful research found that both sexes work about six hours a day in agriculture, but that during the dry season men can relax from about two o'clock in the afternoon until bedtime; in contrast, women have one hour of leisure time at most (1993, 5). Mbughuni also found that villages were not homogeneous in their customs, and that within villages household incomes varied, so planning must be specific. The study concludes that special efforts would be necessary to give women access to the time, money, information, and training necessary for their full participation. Women's first priority is safe, clean water, and most accept ownership of water points but need training to maintain them. In her study Mbughuni used the framework of practical and strategic gender needs, stating that water programs must address the latter if they want to maximize benefits for women. Finally, Mbughuni reported finding a problem common to both women's and more general participation: both village leaders and extension workers used a top-down rather than a consultative approach.

The Tanzanian "Water and Sanitation Sector Review" (1994) provides an example of women's generally low level of public involvement. A 1992 survey in seven regions of Tanzania examined membership in village committees for social services, finance and production, and defense and security; only 10 percent of almost 5,000 committee members were female. Clearly, this is a widespread problem that needs to be solved. The review also highlights other problems—in particular, the lack of coordination between donor agencies and sector ministries in their efforts to empower women and the piecemeal approach followed to integrate women. The final paragraph of the 1994 review contains perhaps the most telling statement: "The Water Policy of 1991 has formalised the training, participation and involvement of women. Strategies and action plans [should] be prepared and implemented as soon as possible" (Tanzania 1994, 276).

## **MOROCCO**

Just as having a policy that stipulates gender considerations is no guarantee that the policy will be implemented, the lack of a gender policy in the water sector does not mean that gender is not considered. In Morocco several government agencies deal with water, among them the National

Office of Potable Water (ONEP), a parastatal that deals with urban and some rural drinking water supply. Even though ONEP has no specific policy on gender and water supply, its efficient and flexible operational style has made one of its projects a model in its consideration of gender.

In the early 1990s ONEP wanted to replicate a water system that supplied drinking water to rural sites between towns in a river valley in an arid region of southeastern Morocco. The World Bank, which had financed the original system and would finance others, wanted a clear indication of the efficacy of operation before approving other sites. To this end, the Bank hired a consultant to work with ONEP in evaluating the original system.

The consultant had long experience with women's issues in Morocco, and knew that a convenient source of pure water could greatly improve women's quality of life, and also that for accurate information on water usage, women—not men, who are often consulted—must be interviewed. She also knew that, although sex segregation is not strict in much of Morocco, in this rural area women often hesitated to speak with men who were not relations. In short, she knew it was essential to work with women.

ONEP assisted in this effort, beginning with the consultant's first visit of this multistage project, when it sent a woman ONEP engineer to meet her flight. While this may have been serendipitous, and the engineer had no previous experience with socioeconomic research, she and a Moroccan woman sociologist wound up becoming project coordinators along with the consultant. All decisions, from site selection to questionnaire design to the hiring of research staff, were reached jointly (often in concurrence with the male ONEP leadership). A staff of eleven young women surveyors was hired; many men would have liked to work on the project, but it was believed that women surveyors were essential to ensure access to women water users. Men were included on the evaluation team as drivers and for data entry. Men were also included as interviewees for some questions, since decisions on piping water into a home—for many, a preference over the community tap—always involved family men.

The result was a study (Davis, Aloui and Fatine 1993) that provided precise, detailed information on women's use of water from the evaluated project as well as from other sources; as a result, the supply system was replicated in other areas. In this case, one person with a strong commitment to gender issues was able to ensure that a water agency acted on these concerns. However, it must be borne in mind that even though such individual cases are encouraging, and might even influence the actors in local agencies, without a clear policy there is no assurance of continued attention to gender issues. On the other hand, since a policy does not of itself guarantee concrete action, those concerned should take every opportunity to promote the involvement of women.

## THE PHILIPPINES

The Philippines has gender-sensitive policies at the national government level, among implementing nongovernmental organizations, and for donor agencies. These policies, reinforced by explicit attention to coordination, provide a supportive environment for gender and development efforts in the water and sanitation sector, and women are more involved in the sector than in many other countries. However, activists in the sector note that there is still more to be done.

### *Policy*

In 1975 the Philippine government created the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW) in response to the International Women's Year. Countries often react to such special occasions by mentioning the focal concern in statements; but in this case the government went well beyond that. The 1987 Constitution was the first to explicitly state that men and women are equal and to make clear women's role in building the nation. Yet a NCRFW report (WCRFW 1993) that cites these advances also notes that although in 1986 the Philippines had a woman president, women were rarely represented in decisionmaking bodies: in the 1987 elections women won just 2 of 24 slots in the Senate, and 18 of 204 in the Congress.

In December 1991 a more explicit policy step was taken with the passage of Republic Act 7192: Women in Development and Nation Building Act, approved by President Aquino in February 1992. The act's effect was significantly bolstered by the November 1992 passage of the Implementing Rules and Regulations for the Act. Implementation began in 1993.

The act charges the National Economic and Development Authority (NEDA) with helping the NCRFW, to ensure that the different government departments integrate women in national development (NCRFW and NEDA 1993, vi). The Implementing Rules and Regulations provide specific support to ensure that the act does not remain empty rhetoric. Rule II deals with resource mobilization, ensuring that in the first year of implementation, (1993), "at least 5 percent of funds received from foreign governments and multi-lateral agencies/organizations are in support of programs/projects that mainstream/include gender concerns in development" (NCRFW and NEDA 1993, 5). The percentage should increase to between 10 and 30 percent in subsequent years. The funds may be used in support of projects in which women's concerns are integrated, as well as for women's components or women-only projects. The roles and responsibilities of NEDA and NCRFW are clearly specified, and include development planning and advocacy, programming, and monitoring and evaluation. The Implementing Rules further mandate that personnel be appointed to focus on women in development issues in sectoral agencies, and these staff be at high levels and include men as well as women. One of their duties is to ensure the appropriate use of gender guidelines. NCRFW is to train agency personnel in gender sensitivity

and gender responsive development planning. All government departments and agencies are to submit a “compliance report to Congress every six months upon effectivity of the IRR [Implementing Rules and Regulations]” (NCRFW and NEDA 1993, 6–15).

The act and its implementing rules bore fruit almost immediately. In 1993 the NCRFW and NEDA collaborated to produce *Guidelines for Developing and Implementing Gender-Responsive Programs and Projects*. With financial assistance from the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), NCRFW produced a series of primers for women, including *Women and Population, Sexual Harassment, and Women Overseas Workers*. The documents consider water and sanitation as part of the infrastructure sector and incorporate gender issues widely. The Medium-term Philippine Development Plan (MTPDP) states, “in the enactment of RA 7192, implementation should pursue with the integration of women in all phases of infrastructure development through the encouragement of women’s participation and recognition of their actual and potential contributions. Specifically (1) to promote and increase participation of women in policy formulation, decision-making, planning, implementation, operation and maintenance activities in the infrastructure sector; (2) to consider and integrate the specific needs of women in infrastructure development; and (3) to develop and expand information generation and dissemination within the sector to encourage greater participation and provide a database for policy formulation and decision-making particularly as it affects women.”

### ***Implementation***

Two grassroots-level water projects in the Philippines demonstrate a greater involvement of women, on many levels, than do other projects discussed in this chapter. The first project is in the central Philippine province of Capiz, where ten women and two men built their own ferrocement rainwater tank. Nongovernmental organizations, including the Philippine Tulungan sa Tubigan (TSTF), UNICEF, and the International Development Research Center (IDRC), over the years had assisted in building more than 300 such tanks in the province. A local nongovernmental organization, the Capiz Development Foundation (CDFI), identified these tanks as appropriate for the community in question. Both CDFI and TSTF tried to encourage community participation, but, in this case, local men were often involved with other work, and construction was delayed. The women really wanted the tanks and requested training to build them themselves. It was decided that training sessions for all the potential women clients would be too expensive, so instead a user-friendly training manual was developed.

In another show of cross-organizational cooperation, a team—consisting of three people from the nongovernmental health organization, a female government engineer, TSTF technical staff, and CDFI community development workers—put together a manual on the installation, operation, and maintenance of the water tanks. The team members first learned how to construct

a tank, and then prepared a manual conveying the necessary information. The guide went through four pretests, some with mixed-gender focus groups, but the last with only women. The manual was then field-tested by having a group of ten women and two men build their own tank using the manual (CDFI provided the materials). Men dug the foundation, but women participated in all other aspects of construction. At the end of each day, the engineer and the manual's principal author asked the participants which aspects were difficult to understand, so they could revise. Over seven days they built a 10,000 liter water tank. They were not sure, however, whether it was safe, since they had built it themselves, so the engineer was brought in to reassure them. "The women were very proud, at the same time astounded that they could build a tank. Now they are saying, give us a manual on how to construct a house, and we will" (Libatique 1994, 3).

Another Philippine project illustrative of women's participation involved a mothers club in Bulacan, which was formed initially for socioeconomic development and later decided to take on the problem of inadequate potable water. Again, several groups were involved. The community was "adopted" by a local nongovernmental organization in Bulacan, the Mother Rita Barcelo Outreach Center; the Outreach Center, with the assistance of an association of private companies dedicated to social and economic assistance to the poor, the Philippine Business for Social Progress (PBSP), arranged to hire a professional community organizer. The Outreach Center, which had formed the Sitio Caping's Mothers Club (SCMC), maximized its contacts with local and national agencies and got support for its water supply project from another nongovernmental organization, Tulungan sa Tubigan Foundation, Inc. The community, through SCMC, was approved a number of wells equipped with hand pumps. The package of assistance provided by TSTF included the opportunity for SCMC members and users to be trained in the basic skills of water supply management, including a hygiene education component.

Women were active in planning, building, monitoring, and evaluating the hand pumps (professionals drilled the wells). Thirty women from the fifty village households took part. The planning phase included identifying needs, choosing which technology to use, selecting sites, setting objectives, and forming the water committee. During implementation women accepted delivery of construction materials and provided for the needs of drillers, including food that had been contributed by the community in response to the women's request. Women kept the pumps clean and held meetings to make arrangements whenever the system needed repair. The women have managed simple repairs themselves; when they need the assistance of their husbands, they take charge to ensure that repairs are made on schedule. For highly technical problems, SCMC officers contact the Outreach Center, TSTF, or private individuals, or some combination of these, to get help. When nine women participants were interviewed for a study of the project (Faigal and Arboleda 1993), three felt the project was not extra work for them (an important concern, rarely investigated). The six other women felt that it did make for extra work during the construction phase. But all the women felt that it saved them time afterward. The women also stressed that they were able to participate so fully because their husbands approved of such a project for



women, and because both their husbands and their children helped with household tasks while the women were busy with the project.

## **Conclusion**

The policy statements of many governments, nongovernmental organizations, and bilateral agencies mention, and even stress, the importance of considering gender issues to ensure the success of projects generally and of water and sanitation projects in particular. Still, it is clear this is no guarantee that gender issues will be considered during implementation. The institutional environment and arrangements between institutions are important and often neglected factors, as is funding. An institution that has the “three R’s” of rules, referees (or supporters), and rewards/sanctions attached to its gender policy provides an environment more conducive to success than one with only supportive policy statements. When the Danish aid agency DANIDA enforced rules to include women in training groups and on water committees in a Tanzanian water project, women’s participation increased markedly. The Swedish aid agency Sida also had success with requiring that quotas be observed for the participation of women in certain Tanzanian water projects.

Arrangements between institutions have been a long-standing problem in the water and sanitation sector, where engineering considerations are usually foremost. The agency that provides technical expertise rarely has the skills to deal with the social aspects of implementation, including gender; these concerns are often ignored when projects are carried out. Lack of coordination between sector ministries and donor agencies can also be a problem, as was found in Tanzania.

The importance of coordination between agencies is highlighted by the success of water and sanitation projects in the Philippines. There, gender-sensitive policies were supported by the coordinated efforts of government, nongovernmental organizations, and donor agencies—and, most importantly, women were involved at all levels of the projects. The Philippine government had also provided an environment in which rules were enforced: the 1992 Implementing Rules and Regulations supported the 1991 Women in Development and Nation Building Act. Particular provisions called for at least 5 percent of funds from international donors to support programs or projects that include mainstream gender concerns into development—and this percentage is expected to increase to between 10 and 30 percent in the future.

Thus, although having a gender and development policy is an important first step, the provision of a supportive environment that includes rules, referees, and rewards, adequate financial support, and interagency coordination is essential. Another positive factor is the involvement of motivated individuals, who can accomplish a great deal in an individual project—their motivation is usually tied to a specific project, however, and cannot be counted on to carry over into others.

## 4. INSTRUMENTS FOR PUTTING GENDER POLICY INTO OPERATION

Once an agency has a policy, what should be done to put it into operation? Which instruments should be used? This chapter will discuss the relationship between policy objectives and implementation methods. It will highlight the implementation history of gender-related policies. It will review various implementation methods, including training, institutional arrangements, budgets, rules and procedures, and social assessments. Finally, it will utilize the new institutional economics concepts considered in chapter two to further enrich the discussion.

### **Linking Objectives and Implementation**

To decide which instruments to use, an agency and its staff must look at the objectives of their policy. The instruments should match the goals. Upon carrying out this exercise, staff may realize that policy objectives are not clear, that they need to be more specific (Jahan 1995, 113). Measurable goals are needed. Furthermore, a distinction can be made between process-focused objectives such as integration and mainstreaming, and substantive objectives, such as gender equality and women's empowerment (Jahan 1995, 113). These distinct kinds of objectives may require specific, and disparate, types of activities. Also, a clear distinction should be made between ends and means. As Jahan states, "In donor agencies, concerns over means often took precedence over ends. As a result, donors spent a lot of effort in devising instruments and tracking the progress of [women in development] institutionalization in agency processes and procedures....[They] were far less successful in designing ... innovations ...[for] attaining their substantive objectives" (Jahan 1995, 113–14). That is to say, agencies monitored the setting up of women in development units and offices, but did not adequately assess their prospective impact.

To know how to proceed in the future, it is useful to know what has worked and what has not worked in the past. This brings us to the history of gender and development and policy implementation. Jahan provides an overview of this history (Jahan 1995, 116–19). She notes that the development of operational methods takes time and has often not kept up with changes in agencies' priorities. By the time procedures were developed for women in development, for example, agencies were starting to speak of gender and development. Moreover, initially techniques were developed relating to gender issues at the project level. Only more recently have methods for the policy and program levels been created. The sequencing of these efforts has perhaps been wrong.

Jahan mentions that much of the work done to date has been broadly based, across sectors. Only a few sectors have taken the next step—doing sector-specific gender policy analysis. Furthermore, policy objectives have not been supported with budgets adequate for achieving

desired results. Sufficient attention has not been paid to the link between micro and macro perspectives, which would link field data to policymaking exercises (Jahan 1995, 116–19). Finally, implementation has not been systematically tracked to see whether measures were being carried out and were leading to hoped-for outcomes.

When trying to devise efficient, specific methods to match policy goals, it can be useful to look at constraints that may impede the fulfillment of objectives; tools to effectively address these constraints can then be developed. For example, what barriers inhibit putting into operation a policy aimed at facilitating women’s involvement in project decisionmaking? What measures could help overcome these barriers? (See box 4.1 for a discussion of Bangladesh’s experience with involving women as project decisionmakers.) Moser makes a distinction between “technical” and “political” constraints (Moser 1993, 7–8). Technical constraints might include inappropriate planning procedures, while political constraints could be resistance by those opposed to change. Each type of constraint might require a different kind of response.

Box 4.1

Methods for Promoting Women’s Involvement

In rural areas of Mirzapur, *Bangladesh*, several methods were used to help ensure that women, as well as men, were involved in project activities. Women’s involvement was promoted through participation in consultation, decisionmaking, and monitoring and maintenance of hand pumps and latrines. Both men and women were involved in selecting sites for hand pumps and latrines. Women were given priority over men in the selection of sites for latrines, as convenience and privacy were important social and cultural factors in changing household practices. Housewives were given the responsibility of supervising the installation of the latrines, which was done by hired contractors. The women had earlier been given an orientation program regarding the monitoring of installation quality. The contractor was paid only after a satisfactory completion report was received from the housewife of the respective household, followed by a similar report from project workers. Hand pumps were maintained by local, female volunteer hand pump caretakers. Men were encouraged to watch women’s training programs and to help them with the various activities. Local women were also involved in several surveys for the measurement of hand pump water collection. The women’s involvement made the identification of households more efficient and minimized the cost. Local women were also trained in hygienic desludging of latrines.

*Source:* Based on Hoque and others 1994.

What are some of the instruments agencies have used to overcome constraints to policy implementation? Many organizations have begun with guidelines (Jahan 1995, 58–62). In some instances donors have developed guidelines, but their partner developing country governments have not adopted similar ones. Some donor staff have felt that general guidelines were not necessarily useful, and that projects needed to be designed based on country-specific situations. Use of guidelines has often been limited, as Jahan notes: “They set the standards and provided broad directions, but needed to be supplemented by other instruments, such as research, training and analytical tools. Additionally, in the absence of targets, timetables and accountability

measures there was often no pressure to use the guidelines” (Jahan 1995, 62). In other words, adequate incentives to follow guidelines did not exist—nor did “rewards” or “sanctions.”

## **Promoting Gender Policies**

Training is a tool many agencies have used to promote gender policies. (Chapter six treats this in detail, so only a few points will be mentioned here.) Some organizations have made training an important element early on; others have begun focusing on it only more recently. Some have made efforts to train many of their staff; others have focused on a smaller percentage. Training approaches have changed over the years. In the early 1980s the Harvard method (also known as the women in development method) was used, based on a case study approach developed by a group at Harvard University. Later, the gender planning model was developed by a group at London University. Agencies often began with training focused on women in development/gender issues, and later integrated this with other development concerns. A continuing challenge for training is achieving a balance between imparting knowledge and trying to change attitudes or “sensitize” staff. (Much of this discussion on training is based on work by Jahan [1995, 62–64].)

Seminars, workshops, and information dissemination campaigns are other ways to promote gender aspects of policy. Such vehicles can present information, update skills, provide visibility for specific endeavors, and provide a forum for debating future directions. Published proceedings of seminars or workshops can be widely distributed to maximize their impact.

Research is also important. As Jahan states, research has “... played a significant role in making gender issues visible, and it continues to be a critical programming strategy. By generating quantitative and qualitative data, research has not only raised awareness about gender issues, but has been the basis of developing all other operational tools” (1995, 62–64). It is used to develop lessons about best practice and to ascertain how projects are actually involving and affecting men and women. Unfortunately, much of the work done remains the province of women in development/gender and development specialists and has not been integrated into mainstream development research and programs (Jahan 1995, 66). This is a challenge for the future. Furthermore, much research is donor-funded, and thus sometimes donor-driven. Partner countries have not necessarily been able to focus on their own gender and development research agendas. Operational research has in some cases had priority over policy analysis and theoretical research (Jahan 1995, 66).

Many of the analytical methodologies at hand include some form of gender analysis. Analysis can hone in on such issues as gender-differentiated roles; access to and control over resources; needs, opportunities, and constraints; and methods for involvement in projects. If used well, techniques such as social assessments and gender profiles can inform project designers and implementers about gender issues relevant to a particular project or program. They can suggest

design elements that will address these concerns. Some methods, such as beneficiary assessments and systematic client consultation, can provide ways to elicit the demands and preferences of project participants. The key then is to put into practice the lessons learned through analysis. There are many examples of excellent analyses whose results were not incorporated into projects, thus wasting valuable resources.

Resources are key to implementing policy. Without appropriate resources, little can be accomplished. Budgets for women in development/gender and development activities have often been small, notwithstanding rhetoric that might suggest otherwise. The type of human resources available may have been part of the problem. In many agencies most staff working on these issues have not been regular agency staff but consultants, lacking the authority, access, and continuity that regular staff have (Jahan 1995, 40). Women in development/gender and development positions have often been junior-level, yet the tasks involved require agency seniority and clout. These slots were often staffed solely by women, and were regarded as dead-end jobs (Jahan 1995, 41).

Policy dialogue can be a way to promote gender and development aspects of policies. Policy discussions between sector actors and between donors and partner governments, can provide occasions to raise gender and development and other social issues. This can be an important opportunity for mainstreaming this topic within the sector. Conversely, if this subject is not raised during sector policy debates, it is likely that it will end up marginalized.

Procedures and rules are another opportunity for promoting gender-based policy. The use of gender analysis techniques can be mandated; projects can be assessed using a “gender and development checklist” or can be required to make a statement about gender and development impact; and staff can be evaluated based partly on how well they incorporate gender issues in their work. Although some agencies have employed these tactics, many have felt that mandating gender and development is not effective, that it should be a “voluntary exercise.” Some feel that persuasion works better, that project staff need to be convinced that they should incorporate gender and development issues because it will lead to more effective projects.

Perhaps a compromise is needed here. Mandating from the top may cause resentment; yet, if consideration of gender issues is agency policy, some rules or procedures may be needed to facilitate compliance (see the discussion of the “3 R’s” in chapter one). Without such rules the incentive to incorporate gender and development issues routinely and adequately may not be strong enough. The key is to avoid mandating cumbersome and inefficient procedures, such as endless checklists or huge, time-consuming studies. These are not efficient ways to achieve policy goals, as they have high transaction costs. Competition within an agency to find streamlined, efficient ways to incorporate gender issues may be an effective way to proceed.

A variety of institutional arrangements have been used to promote women in development/gender and development over the years. There have been special advisers or “focal points,” units or divisions dedicated to these issues, and separate programs. Some agencies have

had gender and development sections in global units, as well as focal points in regional bureaus. Jahan (1995, 38–39) describes various approaches organizations have taken. Some began with single women in development advisory positions, most at junior levels. After a decade or so they upgrade to women in development administrative units, with separate budgets and staff. Some also appointed special coordinators in regional units and overseas offices. In some cases the heads of the women in development divisions were given senior management status. More recently, several agencies have abolished their separate units, or lowered their administrative status (say, by changing them from divisions to groups or teams within a division). Agencies that did this often said the change was part of an effort to mainstream gender issues.

Separate units have often been marginalized from the main work of their agencies. They have in effect often had multiple tasks: advocacy, coordination and monitoring, policy development, and provision of technical support. With units thus overburdened, long-term policy elaboration was not emphasized as much as more short-term, operational work (Jahan 1995, 40).

Jahan asks whether separate units hindered or facilitated the mainstreaming of women in development/gender and development responsibilities, but finds “... that structures made very little difference” (1995, 41–42). Agencies without specific structures dedicated to these concerns seemed to make as much progress as agencies that had them. “The critical factors appear not to be structure, but the definition of mission, resources, commitment and accountability measures to ensure agency compliance. In all the agencies [studied], WID offices were given a catalytic role—they raised issues and provided ideas—but the responsibility of implementation was in the hands of programme managers and mission heads. Agencies gave programme managers responsibility, but they did not devise or enforce measures to hold managers accountable for WID. In the absence of institutional accountability the performance of managers varied greatly. To a large extent it depended on their personal commitment and that of WID staff” (Jahan 1995, 41–42).

Jahan also notes two other problems with the institutional mechanisms often used to implement gender policies (1995, 119). Women in development/gender and development measures (procedures/rules) that were introduced were not systematically tracked, and key indicators were not devised to determine the effects in developing countries. Furthermore, the mandates and resources of the units did not match: the units generally did not receive resources commensurate with the tasks assigned to them.

### **Applying the New Institutional Economics**

How can the new institutional economics concepts outlined in chapter two inform a discussion of institutional arrangement for mainstreaming gender policy? Using these concepts, one might conclude that the institutional arrangements often used would not yield the hoped-for results. The

organizational entities officially given responsibility for gender issues are the gender and development units, yet implementation is done by other agency sections. Since they are not officially accountable, what incentives do these units have to promote the policies? According to the “3 R’s,” there should be rules, referees, and rewards/sanctions. Yet, although in some cases rules exist, systematic mechanisms for monitoring the rules and enforcing accountability are not in place. Staff may see the lack of enforcement as an indication that the agency is not genuinely interested in its gender policy, since it has not given it any “teeth.” This may offer a glimpse of the informal norms under which an agency operates—that is, lip service is paid to gender issues but concrete action is not taken. Locating a gender and development unit in a central part of an organization, separate from the programmatic or regional units, may hinder effective implementation of gender policies in programs and projects. The organizational distance may make interaction between the gender and development unit and other sections cumbersome and time-consuming, resulting in high transaction costs.

## **Conclusion**

We have reviewed some of the instruments used by agencies to put into operation gender aspects of policies—and some of the constraints to implementation. Methods should be chosen based on gender and development objectives. Still, even when this is done carefully, the institutional environment and the institutional arrangements need to be such that they promote, rather than hinder, policy implementation. To assess whether this is the case, concepts of the new institutional economics can be employed. They can help ascertain whether organizational structures are set up in ways that minimize transaction costs; whether rules/procedures provide the right incentives to the appropriate agency actors; and whether there is accountability. They can also help reveal informal agency norms and exogenous variables (such as outside pressure groups) that may influence agency actions.

## 5. TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT ISSUES

Most national governments, nongovernmental organizations, and international agencies that work in the drinking water and sanitation sector have a policy on gender. One of the tools for putting this policy into operation is training. To learn more about these training efforts and their focus on gender issues in water and sanitation, a one-page questionnaire was sent to twenty support organizations. Further sources of information were the sections on training, tools, and evaluation in the International Water and Sanitation Centre's journal of abstracts (1991-1995, numbers 1-5), *Woman, Water, Sanitation*.

### **Gender Training for In-House Staff**

Nine of the twenty contacted agencies returned the questionnaire. Eight reported having gender as a subject of training in their agencies: the Asian Development Bank (ADB), the Dutch Directorate General for Development Cooperation (DGIS), the German Agency for Technical Cooperation (GTZ), the German Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ), the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD), OXFAM (in the United Kingdom and Ireland), the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida) and UNICEF. Water Aid, the ninth respondent, does not have specific training on gender.

All eight agencies organize training on gender and development in general, but the ADB, NORAD, and OXFAM programs pay explicit attention to gender in water supply and sanitation projects and programs. Sida is developing a specific course on gender and water supply that will be tailored to the needs of the Sida water section and its in-house consultants.

Six of the responding agencies hold training on gender and development for in-house staff more than once a year. OXFAM and Sida include other participants in their training: OXFAM includes field staff in their training programs and Sida involves in-house personnel, field staff, regular Sida consultants, and representatives from cooperating countries. DGIS plans a special training session on gender issues when it publishes its revised policy paper on gender in water supply and sanitation. Participants will be in-house staff and organizations providing consulting services in sector projects.

The most frequently used training methods among respondents are presentations and group discussions (six agencies used each of these methods), followed by case studies (five agencies). Three of the respondents also do inventories and discuss participants' experiences with gender issues. Trainers are either consultants (three agencies) or consultants together with in-house staff (three agencies).



For training materials DGIS uses, among others, *Gender Assessment Study: A Guide for Policy Staff* and the IRC 1986 policy paper *Women, Water, Sanitation*. (The IRC publication is currently under revision to reflect recent developments in gender and water resources.)

Furthermore, DGIS officers who prepare project identification memorandums receive guidance for assessing the effects of the proposed project on women, poverty, and the environment. GTZ is finalizing a training book on gender and development for project staff. (Details can be obtained from Juliane Osterhaus in the GTZ Department of Gender Issues.) In 1990, GTZ published a five-volume series on community participation and health education in water supply and sanitation, which includes discussions of reasons for involving women (vol. 1), how to do so (vol. 2), which gender aspects to include in monitoring and evaluation (vol. 5), and examples of gender-specific monitoring forms. OXFAM has published *The Oxfam Gender Training Manual*, a manual for field-tested training on gender analysis at the individual, community, and global levels.

Training is one of the components of UNICEF's gender strategy and, accordingly, a program for gender training has been developed. It consists of general gender and development training, including the application of the Women's Equality and Empowerment Framework in UNICEF programs, with references made to the water and environmental sanitation sector. Regular sessions are held several times a year and include presentations, group discussions, and case studies. Participants include agency staff (from headquarters and the field) and consultants, as well as governmental and nongovernmental counterparts. The impact of training sessions is assessed based on the degree to which gender concerns and relevant recommended actions are reflected in country programs.

The World Bank has a Gender and Policy Analysis Unit (GAP) located in the Human Capital Development and Operations Policy Vice Presidency. It has gender issues coordinators in several of its regional vice presidencies. Finally, there is a Gender and Poverty Network. The latter consists of persons who want to share experiences on gender issues and the use of gender-sensitive working methods within the Bank. The group has an informal character. The GAP unit organizes trainings on gender and development for in-house staff—sometimes on a regional level, other times on a sectoral level—using case studies to show how including gender issues contributes to improved project performance.

The Women and Development section of the European Community organizes in-house training programs on gender for all desk staff dealing with development cooperation programs. The training makes use of case studies involving gender issues in water projects.

The Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) has recently engaged a consultant to develop a gender training program. The program will include water and sanitation. Training materials include findings from *Participation of Women in Water Supply and Sanitation: Roles and Realities*, a joint publication of the Project for the Promotion of the Role of Women in Water

and Environmental Sanitation Services (PROWESS) and the International Water and Sanitation Centre (IRC).

### **Training for Field Staff**

Regular training opportunities related to gender in water and sanitation seem to be more rare for field staff. The UNDP–World Bank Water and Sanitation Program has, over the years, organized a number of field-based training programs related to participatory development methods. The use of these participatory techniques helps facilitate a more balanced participation of men and women in the projects. Some of the participatory techniques have a gender focus.

IRC organizes tailor-made training for field staff and consultants in the water sector. Gender is an element in these trainings. Several external support organizations (DGIS, NORAD, Sida, GTZ) send their staff to these training sessions, as does Stichting Nederlandse Vrijwilligers (SNV, a Netherlands nongovernmental organization equivalent to the Peace Corps). If required, special training on gender and water and sanitation are offered at IRC and at VENA (a Dutch specialized research and training center on gender and development). Gender issues are also part of two short courses offered by the IRC, “Management for Sustainability in Water Supply and Sanitation Programs” and “Hygiene Promotion Related to Water Supply and Sanitation.”

In-country training activities on gender and water are generally project-related. In Jakarta twenty-two male and female officers from various ministries took part in a water-related gender analysis training program, organized by Mitra Dalan Pembangunan (Partners in Development). Yayasan Melati, another Indonesian nongovernmental organization, developed a training package, *Wanita Dan Air*, for a drinking water project in West Java.

The United Nations Centre for Human Settlement (HABITAT) covers gender aspects in water and sanitation as part of its training program on low-income housing projects. Gender training for field staff is also part of the in-project training for male and female staff of the Swedish-supported Health through Sanitation and Water Programme (HESAWA) project in Northern Tanzania and of a Swiss-supported rural water and sanitation project in Pokhara, Nepal. Materials developed: “HESAWA and Gender Awareness: Participants' Manual (1991); and “Women’s Involvement in Community Water Supply and Sanitation,” an approach paper (prepared by Helvetas in 1991). Training on gender aspects in a water project for low-income urban populations was also developed by a UNICEF-supported project in Tegucigalpa, Honduras.

In the Philippines the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW) commissioned the development of a course that uses popular theater for building the gender awareness of female field staff in all kinds of development projects. (A publication of the course, *Usapang Babae: Gender Awareness through Theatre Arts, Games and Processes*, was published by NCRFW in 1992 in Manila.) Gender issues are also covered in a popular theater piece developed by the Project Support Unit Foundation (PSUF) for a DGIS-supported water and

sanitation program in Uttar Pradesh, India (IRC, 1995). The PSUF will also be involved in a World Bank-supported rural water and sanitation program in Uttar Pradesh.

Regional training materials on gender issues in water supply and sanitation have been developed in workshops organized by IRC in the Netherlands, NETWAS in Kenya, CINARA in Colombia, and NGO Decade Service in Sri Lanka. These documents have been published by IRC.

The United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW) follows a training approach whose guiding principles are a) promoting global awareness on women as equal partners in development; b) building up national capacities in research and training; c) developing relevant training materials for selected audiences; and d) orienting policy action on women/gender and development at regional, national, and international levels. The institute develops training materials on a wide variety of topics, although it provides training programs in limited areas, including gender statistics, water supply and sanitation, new and renewable energy sources, and environment issues. Some of the INSTRAW training materials are developed for use by other groups, both in and outside the United Nations system, that have more capacity and resources to undertake large-scale training.

INSTRAW's training approach is to utilize innovative training methods based on research—primarily the institute's own research but also that of other organizations both in and outside the United Nations. INSTRAW's experience has shown that research is the necessary foundation for the development of successful training material and that research and training activities must be closely linked. Training materials should evolve out of research on a particular topic and should be part of a training program, whether by INSTRAW or others. The evaluation of training materials is an integral part of all INSTRAW training exercises, laying the basis for further research, which begins the cycle again.

INSTRAW has developed three multimedia training packages *on Women, Water Supply and Sanitation*. The innovative training packages were developed in cooperation with ILO-Turin Centre, the former DTCD (now DDSMS), and Fondation de l'Eau. The training packages are aimed at a range of users: engineers and trainers; development planners and provincial authorities in charge of water supply and sanitation projects; senior officials in ministries of education, health, and planning; and representatives of nongovernmental and women's organizations. The training materials are based on modular, participatory training methodology supplemented with audio-visual materials and applicable for various target groups. The packages contain training text, a user's guide, a trainer's guide, a lesson plan, additional readings, a bibliography, a checklist of key issues for group work, and evaluation forms.

Using these training packages as a foundation, INSTRAW, in cooperation with various United Nations bodies and agencies, organized, between 1986 and 1994, ten national and interregional training seminars in Ecuador, Ethiopia, the Gambia, Guyana, Kenya, Namibia, Nigeria, Somalia, Sudan, and Thailand. More than 500 participants were trained. Evaluation

showed that the training methodology is applicable and useful for a range of target groups. All the reports from the seminars are available from INSTRAW (United Nations).

### **Effects of Training**

The effects of trainings for in-house staff are generally not assessed. Only ADB reported doing so but it did not provide information on methods and results. GTZ assesses effects indirectly, by random evaluation of projects on gender aspects. The gender department of the European Community evaluated a sample of field projects, including two water projects, on their treatment of gender issues. The evaluation showed that more inputs are required to realize a gender approach. Results were best in Swaziland. When an all-male water system management yielded poor results, more women joined in; now, half of those attending training workshops are women. The effectiveness of the water supply system increased, leading to a 25 percent reduction in women's water collection time and an increase in water use from ten to thirty liters per capita per day. Where women have access to land, credit, and other resources, they use the time gains for income generation. In turn, part of that income goes toward paying for maintenance of the water system. However, one third of the women—most of them heads of households—do not benefit because they cannot pay the water tariff (BMB/Femconsult 1990).

In Niger, project documents show that technical and managerial training and functions were assigned to men and cleaning around the pumps to women and children. Both men and women served as project motivators, however, and special efforts were made to bring women into project meetings. As a result, women did have a limited influence on the location of the pumps. However, because the project favored locations outside the village to allow for vegetable gardens, most sites were on the outskirts and men owned the gardens. All male pump committees stopped functioning for lack of interest. Hygiene around the pumps was managed by women and was observed to be good (de Groot, 1990).

Reporting on implementation of the gender approach in the HESAWA water and sanitation program in Tanzania, training adviser Dina Binamungu writes: "In 1992, an analysis of the approved HESAWA plans in the 15 districts was carried out to identify the degree of their gender-responsiveness .... The analysis showed that women were predominantly involved in their traditional roles, which mostly require laboring .... However, there was some satisfactory gender representation in those activities where the HESAWA policy requires an equal number of men and women" (Binamungu 1993, 7). This affected the training programs for village health workers, water source caretakers, water management committees, and adult education groups. Binamungu stressed that training and other inputs on gender can only have a positive effect when the gender concepts are developed from the local culture and do not create antagonisms. The external evaluation of the program (Smet and others 1993) showed that although a balanced involvement

had not yet been achieved generally, women were much better represented in water committees than in village councils; moreover, the difference in gender balance between program and nonprogram villages was noticeable. An evaluation of technical training for male and female hand pump mechanics in another Sida-supported water program—the SWACH program in Rajasthan, India—showed that investment for female mechanics was higher but also had a better return, even though the opportunity costs for the women are high (Jonsson and Rudengren 1991). A later evaluation revealed that when the local councils took over the maintenance of the water system, the women were no longer paid (Centre for Development Studies 1994).

## **Conclusions**

The systematic use of training as a tool for implementing a gender policy in water and sanitation is most common for in-house staff. Water and sanitation is usually recognized as one of the sectors where a gender approach is imperative. Participatory techniques (case studies, discussion, and, to a lesser extent, accounts of participants' own experiences) are preferred. For project implementers, attitude development and skills-building on gender issues are rare and their provision depends on the strategy of the individual project. This is clearly an area for improvement.

The organization and effect of training programs are seldom evaluated. Evaluation of methodology (does the training reflect up-to-date insights on adult learning?), immediate effects (does the training lead to better gender attitudes, knowledge, skills?), and usefulness (is the training relevant to and applicable in the participants' work?) would be helpful for further development.

A few agencies have assessed whether training programs combined with other inputs have an effect on gender-conscious practices in the field. Their findings show that a gender approach arises out of project inputs or because of the failure of a nongender approach. Where gender policy is put into practice it gives local women, along with local men, influence in the design and functioning of water supply; without a gender-based approach women get more of the physical work, especially cleaning and cooking. The studies show that a gender-sensitive approach requires a different attitude and better support from male project planners and local authorities. These groups are unlikely to change in response to a gender approach imposed from the outside. They are, rather, important target groups for training—particularly training that takes their attitudes and way of thinking as a starting point and then encourages active analysis and skills development.

## 6. CONCLUSION

This sourcebook has attempted to bring together information and experience regarding gender issues at the policy level in the water and sanitation sector. It has delineated how gender issues inform and enrich the sector principles enunciated at the 1992 Dublin International Conference on Water and the Environment. Incorporating gender concerns into the policy level and analyzing the results is a fairly new endeavor, and much work remains to be done. This document highlights some of the experience thus far, providing lessons and pointing the way toward the future. Although more and more agencies have overall gender and development policies as well as specific gender aspects spelled out in their sector statements, the impact “on the ground”—in the lives of developing country women and men—has not been as significant as was hoped. An analysis of institutional and other variables can shed light on this predicament and furnish recommendations for the future.

Agencies need to be clear about policy goals and choose instruments to match them. Adequate resources, both financial and human, need to be identified. Exogenous variables, such as outside, supportive pressure groups, need to be factored in, as do internal, informal organizational norms that may be barriers to a real consideration of gender issues. Institutional arrangements, which are key to implementing policy, should provide the correct incentives to institutional actors, ensure that bureaucratic procedures remain simple (for example, keeping transaction costs low), and follow appropriate rules that are monitored and for which staff are held accountable.

Rounaq Jahan, in her book *The Elusive Agenda: Mainstreaming Women in Development* (1995), addresses many of these issues. She notes that being clear about policy includes clarifying the relationship between women in development /gender and development policies and the overall objectives of agencies and governments. Do the policies help achieve the objectives, or are the two inconsistent with each other? Distinctions should be made between long- and short-term objectives, and measurable goals and timetables need to be determined for both. A realistic financial plan must be developed for achieving objectives, including the preparation of cost estimates for various targets. Sources of possible financing should be identified, and innovative ways of raising additional resources explored. Whenever feasible, funding for gender objectives should be mainstreamed into regular budget processes—making it part of on-going project funding—so as not to separate gender issues from core agency work.

Jahan mentions that the focus on gender and development began with the development of tools to address gender issues within the context of projects. Only later did gender work move to the policy level. The bulk of this work had a broad, cross-sectoral focus; thus, much work remains to be done on gender policies within individual sectors. This task calls for more and better coordination of policy analysis, statistics and databases, program development, and policy dialogue, in order to make the most of the experience in each of these areas.

Institutional frameworks have often been inadequate. As discussed earlier, policies were stated, but accountability measures were not put into place. Furthermore, monitoring of policy implementation was not sufficient. Key indicators were not developed to track the impact of policy on men and women in developing countries. Adequate resources were not allocated for reaching goals. Northern institutions (donors) often led policy initiatives, because developing country governments and nongovernmental organizations did not always have the capacity (financial or institutional) to do so. For all these reasons, efforts should be made to pursue capacity building in developing country institutions (central and local governments, universities and research and training institutions, and nongovernmental organizations) and to promote the development of gender-based agendas in developing countries. Developing country organizations have learned a great deal from experience at the grass-roots level; efforts need to be directed toward documenting, replicating, and expanding this experience.

The external environment is very important where gender and development is concerned. As Jahan states, "... agencies and governments argued that it was lack of understanding and expertise preventing them from achieving their WID/GAD policy objectives. But they underplayed the political economy of the process of change: how the disparities in power and resources and conflict of interest might obstruct achievement of WID/GAD policy objectives" (Jahan 1995, 126). Decisionmaking about gender and development aspects of sector policy goals and implementation strategies needs to take these exogenous variables into account. This may be difficult, and results may not come quickly. This is a time of transition in the external, political environment. Precisely where the transition will lead is not yet known; but it is clear that the growing strength of democracy and of civil society can provide opportunities for different segments of society—including poor women and men—to make their demands heard and to expand their involvement in projects. Agencies with gender and development policy objectives should be aware of this continually evolving situation, and position themselves and their activities accordingly.

Further analytical work is needed on gender issues at the policy level. It would be useful to continue case studies of policy development and implementation—including impact assessments—in order to systematically document a significant number of agency experiences. Histories of policy implementation could, in effect, be "mapped," showing strategies and institutional arrangements utilized and results achieved. Methods that have proved particularly efficient and effective could be highlighted. The costs and benefits of various instruments—an area often overlooked—could be determined. As noted in chapter five, the effects of training are seldom evaluated; and the same holds true for other methods. Although it is often hard to measure the costs and benefits of training, procedures, and the like, it would behoove agencies to try.

To facilitate the incorporation of gender issues, it may be useful for agencies to combine them with other social variables. When analyzing gender issues in a particular project context,

staff can also look at other variables such as ethnicity, income level, and religion. Agency policies on gender can become part of overall guidelines on social policy. In times of decreasing development resources, addressing gender issues in a cost-efficient way becomes increasingly important: merging gender with other social issues is one way of conserving resources. More specifically, merging gender issues with other social variables can provide the water and sanitation sector with the sociological underpinnings that help fit a demand-based, participatory approach to a particular geographical setting. The challenge ahead for those concerned with gender issues will be to deepen their exploration of this and other strategies aimed at achieving policies and procedures that enhance the lives of poor women and men.



## OVERVIEW OF AGENCY POLICIES ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT

As early as 1947 the United Nations established a commission on the status of women charged with preparing recommendations and reports on promoting women's rights. However, it was only in 1975, with the organization of the first International Women's Year Conference in Mexico City, that the world community focused on the full and equitable participation of women in the development of their countries. The conference approved a world plan of action that consisted of recommendations and targets to promote the status of women in a variety of social, economic, legal, and other areas. It also specifically called on national governments and international agencies to adopt special mandates to promote women's participation.

As an outcome of the conference, the United Nations systems designated the ensuing decade (beginning in 1976) as the UN Decade for Women, a move that provided impetus for the creation of a wide range of national women's movements and organizations in the North and the South, as well as international networks linking some of these groups. The Mexico Conference targets included a marked increase in literacy, modernization of farming, comprehensive health education and services, legal guarantees of equitable political participation, and equal employment opportunities. The attainment of these goals was assessed by the mid-decade conference held in Copenhagen, Denmark, in 1980.

Progress made during the entire Decade was reviewed by the Third World Conference held in Nairobi, Kenya, in 1985. Future strategies for the advancement of women, focusing on equality, development, and peace, were elaborated in the document entitled *Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women*. Similar themes were sounded in the Convention for the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women, which was adopted in 1979 by the UN General Assembly and became an international treaty in 1981.

The legacy of the UN Decade for Women has been mixed. Although the Decade succeeded in raising the consciousness of the world community and gaining legitimacy for women's needs and concerns on the global development agenda, it has so far failed to deliver any significant changes for the majority of women living under conditions of increasing poverty and deprivation in developing countries.

A succession of paradigm shifts have taken place in the women in development movement. The Decade furthered dialogue and debate on the theoretical and conceptual approaches to women in development, discussions that continue today. Throughout the 1950s and 1960s the prevailing view of women in development (the welfare approach) focused attention exclusively on women's reproductive roles. Programs and projects were designed to enhance women's health and

their abilities as wives and mothers, and a large number of "skill training" schemes concentrated on teaching women cooking and sewing. However, as different approaches were tested—equity, antipoverty, efficiency, and so on—women's contributions to the productive sectors of the economy and their contributions as community organizers and activists became better understood and more "visible." The understanding of women in development evolved to its present emphasis on mainstreaming, that is, the integration of women in all areas of development programs.

A further analytical shift took the emphasis away from "women in development" toward "gender and development." This shift emphasizes that the concerns of women should not be perceived only in terms of biological roles; rather, the focus of policy should shift to a consideration of socially constructed relations between men and women. This recognizes that the gender roles of men and women are diverse and that they vary considerably between and within countries. For this reason it is difficult to predict gender differences using simple checklists—there must be a fuller understanding of all cultural and social factors if programs and projects are to intervene successfully. Despite this analytic shift, the term "women in development" remains prevalent within the development field and is used along with "gender and development" throughout this sourcebook.

The UN Decade also promoted institutional changes in governments and in bilateral and multilateral organizations to respond to recommendations emanating from the world conferences. Many governments established government women in development (WID) units, and bilateral donors and multilateral organizations did the same. With few exceptions, however, WID units have tended to be uniformly small and powerless, isolated from decisionmaking processes.

At the national level in many countries women's units have been completely marginalized, and no other government structures have come to the fore to effectively promote women's full participation in development. Hence, national institutional capacity to establish, implement, and monitor gender-sensitive policies and programs is still, in large measure, lacking. In relative terms, the WID units of bilateral and multilateral organizations have fared better than the national ones. WID policies and guidelines have been articulated and WID training has contributed to increasing the gender awareness and competency of staff involved in policy formulation and program and project design.

The remainder of this annex summarizes the GAD/WID policies of a variety of development agencies.

## **UNICEF**

The evolution of the UNICEF policy on women reflects the increasing awareness of the contribution of women to economic and social development. In the early years of UNICEF, basic health and social service programs emphasized the role of women as mothers, child caretakers,

and homemakers and promoted the education of women and girls. The UNICEF basic service strategy in the 1970s promoted health and education of women and girls, provided training and support for the economic activities of women, and encouraged their participation in the community management of services.

In 1985 the shift in policy was to make women's issues a more integral part of UNICEF cooperation with governments. This policy was an extension of the 1980 policy that emphasized the integration of women in the development process. In response to the UN principles for promotion of equality and development of women, UNICEF undertook a policy review for presentation to its Executive Board in 1985. The Board endorsed the desired integration and mainstreaming of women envisioned in the policy document. The management strategy for implementing the policy plan of 1985 was endorsed by the Board in 1987. The UNICEF global policy can be summarized in terms of three essential and interrelated goals:

- reducing disparities between males and females;
- obliterating the causes of gender discrimination that obstruct the goal of reducing the disparities between males and females; and
- enabling and empowering women to participate in the development process.

The objectives and program thrusts of UNICEF's actions in gender and development are defined in its 1985–87 policy on women in development and in its recent 1994 policy paper on gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls. UNICEF's policies are guided by a growing understanding of the gender-based discrimination that affects women and girls throughout the life-cycle, the complementarity of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the needs of the girl child, and the needs of women in their multiple roles. The operational approaches to implement UNICEF's policies and strategies are mainstreaming gender concerns both as a cross-sectoral dimension and as an integral aspect in sectoral programs; promoting gender-specific program activities for girls and women; and giving special attention to the girl child. UNICEF actions for the girl child include programs for the elimination of disparities in health, nutrition, and education for girls and also initiatives for the elimination of harmful traditional practices of early marriage and female genital mutilation, and innovative ways of reaching adolescent/young men and women with the knowledge and skills to delay parenthood, especially to avoid teenage pregnancies and to provide protection against sexually transmitted diseases, particularly HIV/AIDS.

UNICEF actions will be targeted toward the elimination of gender disparities, advocacy and specific initiatives for girls, and the integration of gender issues through the application of the Women's Equality and Empowerment Framework. Program activities will also include capacity

building for gender-responsive program development; involvement of males in sharing family responsibilities, particularly parenting; and promotion of gender equity in the family, with a focus on early socialization and youth. Other ongoing activities for continued action are collection and analysis of gender- and age-disaggregated data and development of indicators for gender-sensitive policies and programs; capacity building through training for gender-sensitive policies and programs; advocacy and social mobilization for innovative policies and gender-sensitive legislation in line with CRC and CEDAW. UNICEF programs will continue to promote the provision of opportunities for mobilization and organized participation of women at the community, local, and national levels and alliance-building among government agencies, nongovernmental organizations, women leaders, social activist groups, and others to create a positive environment for the effective participation of women in the emerging democratization and decentralization process in many countries.

## **UNDP**

The United Nations Development Programme is committed to closing the gender gap. This is reflected in the programs it supports in more than 170 developing countries and territories. UNDP strives to ensure that the projects and programs it supports address women's needs, tap their potentials, and move women into their country's development mainstream. The effort gained momentum in 1987 when a division for Women in Development was established within the Bureau for Program Policy and Evaluation (BPPE), to create and monitor the extent to which women are given proper consideration at all stages of a project cycle. The division's mandate was to "assist in ensuring and monitoring throughout UNDP's programs and projects a substantially larger role for women, both as active participants at all levels and as beneficiaries of such projects" (UNDP INT/92/325/a/15). The other main focus of UNDP's women in development policy is to assist governments, in line with their national priorities and global concerns, in integrating and promoting women in their development activities. The policy also suggests that there is growing need for technical assistance agencies to deal more directly with the question of beneficiaries and target groups.

In June 1990 the Governing Council requested that UNDP continue to strengthen its capacity to ensure that their programs are gender sensitive. In implementing its mandate the Women in Development Division initiated the design, implementation, and evaluation of training in skills development and gender analysis for UNDP. Furthermore, working closely with UNIFEM at the field level, UNDP has attempted WID mainstreaming through efforts to involve women in the roundtable process and in programming missions.

UNDP's 1993 Human Development Report maintains that increasing women's participation in the decisions, events, and processes that shape their lives is central to bringing about sustainable human development. UNDP believes that adoption of a "Gender in

Development" (GID) approach is the best way to increase this participation. Accordingly, it has replaced the Division for Women in Development with a GID program that relates to all UNDP activities. GID shifts the focus from women as a group to the socially determined relations between men and women. It directs attention to the social, economic, political, and cultural forces that determine differences in the ways in which men and women control project resources and participate in and benefit from development activities.

It also encourages governments to consider questions of gender when they formulate development policies, since these policies are typically organized along sectoral lines and the benefits to women are usually greater when gender concerns are linked with sectoral planning. In 1991 UNDP's Governing Council approved a five-year, \$8 million program to help governments develop more gender-sensitive policies and programs.

At the operational level, UNDP supports national, regional, and global programs. For instance:

- In Nepal thousands of girls have attended courses and young women instructors are being trained to extend the program.
- With several other UN agencies, UNDP supports the Safe Motherhood Initiative. By 2000 this global effort aims to reduce by at least half the more than 500,000 maternal deaths that occur each year.

In helping to set the scene for the Fourth World Conference on Women, the UNDP's Human Development Report focused on gender issues.

## **UNIFEM**

In July 1985 the former Voluntary Fund for the United Nations Decade for Women was renamed the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM). It was established in autonomous association with the UNDP in order to preserve its separate identity as the only fund in the UN system established to provide technical and financial support to low-income rural and urban women in developing countries.

With its new status, UNIFEM was given a special mandate by General Assembly Resolution 39/125, whereby its resources are to be used:

- to serve as a catalyst with the goal of ensuring the appropriate involvement of women in mainstream development activities at preinvestment stages, and
- to support innovative and experimental activities benefiting women in line with national and regional priorities.

UNIFEM's projects and programs in the regions are coordinated by three regional sections (Africa, Asia Pacific, and Latin America/Caribbean) at headquarters. UNIFEM is currently decentralizing many of the responsibilities related to project appraisal and management to the eleven regional field offices.

Initially, UNIFEM's policy and strategy related to science and technology aimed at increasing women's access to appropriate technologies and to the associated inputs of credit and training. But for the past several years UNIFEM has been focusing more on women's active role in science and technology and the value of indigenous knowledge and technologies. Issues currently being addressed include:

- increased involvement of women in the design of technologies meant for their use;
- appropriate technical and business training for women at the grass roots and for intermediary organizations working with them;
- better communication and flow of information between agencies and women at the grass roots; and
- documentation and dissemination of information critical to women's increased access to technology.

The start of 1994 saw the establishment of a new section devoted to Communications and External Relations (CERS). Both in Africa and Asia/Pacific the focus of work has been on the operational strategies developed in 1993 to promote agriculture and food security, industry and trade.

### *Africa*

The essential elements of this strategy are the provision of support to women for food crops. Second, UNIFEM, in its support to women in crisis, continues to emphasize innovative initiatives and strategies that would allow refugee, displaced, and returnee women to participate actively in efforts to solve the problems confronting them. Finally, with respect to women's role in industry and trade, UNIFEM has in the first phase of funding selected one woman from each organization for training in leadership and organizational skills. The UNIFEM mission attended training sessions in both Soweto and Bophuthatswana, where women who participated in the project in turn trained their constituencies. Following this training the women have been able to serve as active resource persons for their own organizations.

## *Asia/Pacific*

UNIFEM's Asia Pacific Development Strategy (APDEV) for 1994–95 was approved at the last session of the Consultative Committee. The primary objective of the APDEV is to develop and strengthen institutional mechanisms that will link women to formal decisionmaking structures that closely affect their lives and livelihoods. The strength of the APDEV continues to be its reliance on two strategic means to effect change. These are:

- providing tools to women and to governments in order to facilitate their roles in creating more gender-responsive development planning; and
- legitimize the voice of women, with regard to their expertise and knowledge.

Since the Consultative Committee last met, eight initiatives were approved for a total of US\$115,936.

## **INSTRAW**

The United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW) was established by the Economic and Social Council (Council resolution No. 1998 [LX] of 12 May 1976) in conformity with an earlier decision of the General Assembly (G.A. resolution 3520 [XXX] of 15 December 1975), which was based on a recommendation made by the World Conference of the International Women's Year held in Mexico City from 19 June to 2 July 1975. In 1984 INSTRAW's statute, submitted by INSTRAW's Board of Trustees, its governing body, was approved—by Economic and Social Council Resolution No. 1984/124 and then by General Assembly Resolution No. 39/249. INSTRAW is the only autonomous research and training institution within the framework of the United Nations to serve as a research and training vehicle at the international level in order to contribute to the advancement and mobilization of women in development, to raise awareness of women's issues worldwide, and to assist women in meeting new challenges and moving in new directions. INSTRAW has been based in Santo Domingo since 1983, at the invitation of the Government of the Dominican Republic.

INSTRAW's research and training programs are aimed at placing issues relevant to the advancement of women into economic and political decisionmaking processes. It does this by holding national training workshops and conducting joint research and training programs and projects in collaboration with specialized United Nations agencies, the Commission on the Status of Women, United Nations Focal Points for women, and, especially, regarding data and statistics, with the Statistical Division of the United Nations Secretariat.

INSTRAW's main program thrusts have therefore been focused on:

- economic empowerment,
- the collection of statistics and indicators on women's work in the formal and informal sectors,
- availability of statistics on elderly women,
- women and time use,
- statistics and women in the informal sector in industry, trade, and services,
- migration of women and the methodological issues involved in the measurement and analysis of internal and international migration,
- women, water, and sanitation, including waste management,
- new and renewable sources of energy,
- women and sustainable development,
- women and environmental management,
- role of women in environmentally sound and sustainable development,
- image and participation of women in alternative and mass media, and
- gender and development studies, including training materials.

## UNFPA

The UNFPA is a subsidiary organ of the United Nations. UNFPA involvement in the area of women, population, and development has been a hallmark of the organization since its inception. Cognizant of the empirical research indicating that improvements in women's status, particularly in education and health, had a beneficial impact on demographic variables, the Fund encouraged governments to address this dimension in their population and development programming.

In 1975 UNFPA became one of the first UN organizations to issue guidelines on women, population, and development. The ultimate objective of this strategy is the total integration of women's concerns into all UNFPA activities and the increased participation of women in all projects supported by the Fund. Women are viewed as both beneficiaries and participants. To achieve the objectives of the strategy, UNFPA is following three approaches:

1. *Mainstreaming women.* This approach is meant to ensure that women are fully involved both as beneficiaries and participants in all programs and projects, for example, Maternal Child Health/Family Planning (MCH/FP). Within MCH/FP, activities are aimed at improving the health of women and children. Emphasis is placed on women's reproductive rights and quality of care, including provision of a wide range of family planning methods. Furthermore, women are provided education and training in management, supervisory skills, and policymaking.



2. *Supporting women-specific projects.* These would include formal and informal education, training, or skill development.

3. *Supporting special programs for women.* These would include, for instance, research and creation of awareness of women's contributions to development in their many roles—reproductive, productive, and environmental; and strengthening of women's organizations.

Of late there have been increased efforts to integrate women's perspectives into the research and institutional strengthening activities of the program. During 1992 one of the main recommendations from the meeting on "Women's Perspectives on the Introduction of Fertility Regulation Technologies" (Geneva 20-22, 1991) was that the program should promote dialogue between scientists and women's groups. In October 1992 in Manila, dialogue was initiated between representatives of women's health groups, researchers, and family planning managers in an attempt to "... identify ways of keeping women's groups involved in the articulation of research needs in the area of reproductive health—including appropriate follow-up activities."

UNFPA earmarked funds for the 1995 Beijing Conference, including support for the development of materials to enable women's nongovernmental organizations from developing countries to participate in the conference. Furthermore, full consideration will be given to gender issues, especially as related to women's rights and reproductive health.

## UNESCO

Since its inception UNESCO has sought to promote equality between the sexes and to improve the status of women. UNESCO's actions have had two major objectives:

- involving women fully in the democratization process, and
- combating the violence to which women too frequently fall victim.

Efforts have been made to realize these objectives through initiating programs to increase women's participation in development and intensifying education and vocational training. The first international meeting of the research and action network concerning the role of women in the informal sector of the economy was held in Bogor (Indonesia) from 2 to 5 November 1992, with the assistance of the Indonesian government and the support of the regional Participation Program. Discussion focused on the concept of the informal sector and its future, on the impact of structural adjustment on women working in the informal sector, and on the strategies to be implemented in order to make such women less vulnerable.

Another UNESCO priority, the education of girls and women, is supported in the Program and Budget for 1994–95 under the general heading of the program "Towards Basic Education for All," in a project that brings together women in positions of responsibility within their communities (UNESCO, General Conference, Paris 1993). Conventions and recommendations concerning women have included special efforts to promote the technical and vocational education of women.

UNESCO's global training program for women media professionals, which increased steadily over the 1980s, has also benefited from extrabudgetary funds. A US\$250,000 project designed to train between 200 and 300 media women in a series of courses in East and West Africa between 1985 and 1987 was accepted in 1985.<sup>4</sup>

## FAO

FAO has a long history of providing support for programs that assist rural women. This goes back to 1949, when Home Economics and Social Programs were initiated within the Rural Welfare Division, and later in the Nutrition Division. The 1988 Plan of Action for the Integration of Women in Development is both broad and ambitious. Even if all the actions envisaged in the plan were to be undertaken by FAO, the objectives could only be partially achieved given that member governments have the primary responsibility for creating the conditions necessary for the achievement of the plan's challenging objectives. These conditions are as follows:

- Food security and sustainable development should be fully considered in development programs and objectives. Obviously, the most effective means to achieve this is through "mainstreaming" women's participation in development activities, rather than promoting special programs and projects for women alone.
- FAO representatives should report on implementation of the plan of action at the national level at least once a year and include developments related to WID policy as well as in-country WID machinery.
- FAO should develop a more comprehensive information system relating to the plan of action. Practically speaking, until a project coding or assessment system that is capable of tracking women in development is developed and implemented, informal consultations with key technical divisions should be encouraged in order to have updated information on their main activities and resources.

In the future the major thrust of FAO's activities will continue to be directed at supporting women in their role as agricultural producers.

Within this framework, future activities will give greater recognition to women's special needs for income-generating activities and control of income; education and training opportunities; and technologies and other means to both ease the burden and increase the productivity of women's work.

## **USAID**

Two decades ago the U.S. Congress introduced the subject of women in development into USAID's work. The 1973 "Percy Amendment" to the Foreign Assistance Act required that U.S. bilateral assistance programs "be administered so as to give particular attention to those programs, projects and activities that tend to integrate women into the national economies of foreign countries, thus improving their status and assisting the total development effort" (cited in Tinker 1982; and Maguire 1984).

This legislative mandate:

- Addresses the social and equity issues that derive from women's status in relation to men. It stresses the need for development planners to be sensitive to the ways in which modernization may negatively affect females in society. This approach casts women as beneficiaries of development, and focuses on the need for planners to guard against negative effects of their projects on women.
- Addresses the economic and efficiency issue, focusing on women as active contributors and agents of change of economic development. It actively seeks to enhance women's participation in this process. This approach emphasizes women's role in economic productivity, and helps to raise their incomes and give them access to productive resources.

Unlike most of USAID's policy statements, the women in development policy is cross-sectoral; it is meant to provide the policy framework and overall practical guidance for each sector and for the Agency as a whole in its efforts to incorporate women into the development process.

USAID activities are supposed to take into account the actual and potential roles of women in developing countries in carrying out its development assistance program, which should include the following elements:

- overall country programs and individual project designs that reflect the distinct roles and functions of women in developing countries,
- collection of data disaggregated by sex,

- support to women's institutions and programs in developing countries in cases where special effort is required due to cultural constraints,
- recognition that the productivity of women is important to personal, family, and national well-being, and that this is dependent on their improved access to resources, and
- adequate human resource development programs in health care, family planning, nutrition, and education.

## **World Bank**

The need to address women as project participants and beneficiaries was first specifically acknowledged in the 1984 World Bank guidelines on women and development. These guidelines have spurred progress in Bank efforts to include gender issues in development policies and programs. The shift in focus from a women in development approach that examines women's issues separately, to a gender and development approach that addresses women's issues in relation to men expressly signals a change in the Bank's outlook on issues surrounding women's participation.<sup>5</sup>

The World Bank Policy Paper *Enhancing Women's Participation in Economic Development* (1994) identifies the reasons why investing in women is critical for poverty reduction:

- Investing in women helps achieve social and economic returns. Improving women's educational attainments contributes to their mobility from low-paying, low-productivity activities to activities of higher economic value. Investing in women also produces major social returns central to development—for example, female education lowers fertility and slows population growth. Educated women desire fewer children and are better able to achieve their desired family size. Family planning programs reduce fertility more when combined with female education.
- Education offers favorable private returns to the individual and has a long-term and sustainable effect on women's productivity and thus on the growth of the sector in which they work. Increasing the opportunities for women to participate in economically productive formal labor market activities also increases economic efficiency.<sup>6</sup>
- Investing in women is a major theme of the Bank's two-pronged strategy for poverty reduction. This strategy calls for broadly based, labor-absorbing economic growth to generate income-earning opportunities for the poor; and improved access to

education, health care, and other social services to help the poor take advantage of these opportunities.<sup>7</sup>

- Improving opportunities for women is critical for ensuring development compatible with environmental sustainability. Sustainable development requires easing population pressure and conserving natural resources, and women's decisions count heavily on both fronts.<sup>8</sup> Investment in women—in education, in raising women farmers' productivity, and in promoting awareness of health and sanitation—can have significant effects in contributing to environmentally sustainable growth.

The Gender Analysis and Policy (GAP) unit is one of the thematic groups in the Poverty and Social Policy Department (located in the Human Capital Development and Operations Policy Vice-Presidency). The GAP group is the institutional focal point for gender issues at the Bank. Its responsibilities include:

- increasing income-earning opportunities for women, their food security, and their access to social services,
- integrating gender into overall project goals in order to enhance project effectiveness.
- Providing intellectual leadership and conducting analytical studies on gender issues,
- designing guidelines for Bank policy on the integration of gender issues into Bank country assistance strategies and operations, and
- providing staff training and disseminating examples of best practice.

Among bilateral agencies there are several institutions that can be identified as key players in supporting and developing gender and development policies. In Europe Sida, DANIDA, NORAD, OECD/DAC, and the Netherlands government are active promoters of gender and development issues and policies.

## **Sida**

The idea of supporting women in developing countries through Swedish aid was first formulated in the budget proposal approved by parliament in 1964. In 1972 Sida made an analysis of the situation of women in developing countries. The importance of "integrating women in the development process" was enthusiastically discussed.

Through its aid programs, Sida strives not only to promote economic equality and social equality between the rich and the poor, but also between men and women. The general aim of Sida's Action Plan is to make assistance as a whole more women-oriented. Sida's aid strategies for women have included the "welfare strategy," which is concerned with reaching women and

children through social and health care measures. The second strategy for "economic independence," is based on a view of women as producers and active participants in the economy. Its main objectives are that:

- assistance as a whole become more women-oriented,
- women's productive work and responsibility for reproduction be facilitated so that women can support themselves, attain economic independence, and, in the long run, be accorded equality with men in social, economic, political, religious, and cultural respects,
- assistance in all areas be designed in accordance with the special needs of both men and women, and
- women on both the donor and the receiver side be given the opportunity to actively participate in and contribute to shaping the broad outlines of aid policy as well as the planning, implementation, and evaluation of individual assistance inputs.

These objectives aim to:

- enhance the ability of women to become self-supporting,
- raise the productivity of the labor,
- give access to productive resources, including education and housing,
- ease the burden of child care,
- reduce the time spent on household chores, and
- provide health care, voluntary family planning, and nutritional aid.

These objectives relate to the overall societal objectives of:

- resource growth,
- economic and social equality,
- economic and political independence, and
- development of democracy.

## **DANIDA**

The 1987 Plan of Action for development assistance to women institutionalized the focus on women in development in Danish development cooperation. The plan's objectives are to:

- Provide women with basic services.
- Create the impetus for including women as actors in all sectors.
- Empower women with the means to control their own lives and to raise political and economic issues that will enable them to do so.

The policy plan includes efforts to:

- Secure a fair share of public funds for sectors that benefit women.
- Address the continuing deficits in women's education, health, earning power, and legal rights.
- Promote women's rights in general and in particular support efforts to combat violence against women in all its forms.

## **CIDA**

In November 1984 CIDA (the Canadian aid agency) approved a framework and an implementation strategy for the integration of women in development. The general objective of this strategy is to integrate the women of the developing world both as agents and as beneficiaries. The objectives of CIDA's women in development policy are to:

- Increase women's participation in economic, political, and social processes.
- Improve women's income levels and economic conditions.
- Improve women's access to basic health and family planning services.
- Improve women's levels of educational achievement.
- Protect and promote the human rights of women.

In order to assist CIDA programs in implementing and monitoring the objectives of the women in development policy, a delivery and monitoring framework has been developed. For each of the objectives the framework suggests corporate strategies. These strategies are:

- To identify and implement procedures and mechanisms that ensure women's participation in CIDA-funded programs.
- To utilize local consultants who have expertise in gender-related issues in the development, management, evaluation, and monitoring of CIDA policies, programs, and objectives.
- To identify, disseminate, and implement program approaches that are successful in responding to the initiatives of women in developing countries.

## **Netherlands Government**

The Netherlands government has been developing women in development policies over a number of years. The first concise document that had an operational angle was the Women and Development Action Program (1987). This statement emphasizes that through women's active involvement in the development process, economic independence and social self-reliance can be increased. The objectives are to:

- improve women's access to and control over production factors, services, and infrastructure facilities,
- reduce women's workload,
- improve the enforcement of laws that lay down equal rights for women,
- increase the involvement of women in decisionmaking at domestic, local, national, and international levels,
- improve the organization of women at all levels,
- encourage the exchange of information and communication between women and women's groups and change stereotypical images of women,
- improve women's knowledge and self-awareness, and
- combat physical violence and sexual abuse.

Within the Netherlands Development Cooperation policy the Development Assistance Committee/women in development criteria are used as:

- criteria in the Development Screening Test,
- criteria for setting women in development targets within country and regional policy plans,<sup>9</sup> and
- a tool for statistical reporting to the Development Assistance Committee, to measure the levels of effort on women in development.

## **NORAD**

The Norwegian Royal Ministry of Development Cooperation has developed a strong focus on the human and social aspects of development. It recognizes the interrelationship between the productive and reproductive roles of women. Women have been acknowledged as playing a major role in participating in and influencing political activities. Promotion of women's development carries with it two principal goals:



- women's living and working conditions must be improved, and
- women must be motivated and provided with opportunities to participate in economic, cultural and political activities with a view to change the mainstream of development to benefit women.

To reach these overall objectives NORAD has created the following subgoals:

- women's productivity must be increased and return on labor enhanced and women must be given increased control over their labor,
- women's access to local and other resources must be improved,
- women's social and political rights must be secured,
- women's responsibility for children and other dependents must be shared,
- women's health must be improved, and
- women must be accepted as full-fledged partners in development.

Through the development assistance process NORAD aims to achieve:

- increased education for women, particularly poor rural women,
- increased credit facilities for women,
- improved technology made available to women,
- improved training facilities for women,
- increased support to women's organizations,
- provision of basic services (water, health, schools, housing, and so on),
- increased emphasis on income generation for women (extension services and the like), and
- increased emphasis on making women and men aware of the important role women play in social and economic development.

The Norwegian development assistance policy has a strong focus on poverty that provides the basic framework for their women in development policies.

### **Ministry of Human Resource Development—India**

The Indian government has taken an active and clear stand regarding the promotion and progress of women in both the social and economic spheres. This is a result of the Sixth Plan, which incorporated a separate chapter on women in development. Currently, the Seventh Plan (1985–90) states a clear objective toward women: to enhance the economic and social status of women.

The basic strategy used through the Seventh Plan is to cultivate a sense of awareness and confidence among women in both economic and social arenas.

The high-priority programs for women have focused on:

- providing employment opportunities,
- strictly enforcing the Dowry Prohibition Act, and
- preventing harassment and atrocities toward women.

In the Twenty Point Program of 1986, point twelve lays down tasks to be undertaken by the government to raise the status of women. Some of the major issues for women being addressed are creating mass awareness about women's rights, providing an enabling environment through training and employment, and facilitating women's participation in nation building and public opinion.

Future directions for integrating women in development policy in the national planning framework within each ministry are mobilizing women through effective delivery mechanisms and extension services, creating women's groups and organizations to help implement government programs, and strengthening the role of nongovernmental organizations as links in the mobilization process.

Within the Ministry of Human Resource Development in India, the Department of Women and Child Development has played a crucial role in promoting economic progress among women through various schemes, including:

- assistance to voluntary organizations for creches for children of working and ailing women,
- setting up women 's training centres or institutes for rehabilitation of women in distress,
- providing vocational training of adult women,
- setting up family counseling centres,
- establishing a women's development corporation,
- supporting training and employment programs for women, and
- setting up centres that combine training, employment, and production for and by women.

## OVERVIEW OF AGENCY POLICIES FOR GENDER ISSUES IN THE WATER AND SANITATION SECTOR

The overlapping of two important events—The United Nations Decade for Women (1975–85) and the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade (IDWSSD, 1981–90)—brought to world attention the symbiotic relationships of the two, one concerned with equality and the other with safe drinking water and sanitation. Consequences of inadequate supply of water and sanitation are very evident. However, they hit women most severely, as women are the traditional water carriers and family health care givers in many societies of the developing world.

The plan of action adopted at the UN Conference on Women (Mexico, 1975) stated: “Improved, easily accessible, safe water supplies (including wells, dams, catchments, piping, etc.), sewage disposal and other sanitation measures should be provided both to improve health conditions of families and to reduce the burden of carrying water which falls mainly on women and children.” This point was reiterated in the action plan adopted at the Mar del Plata Water Conference (1977): “... special emphasis should be given to the situation and to the role of women in the area of public participation.”

At the UN Mid-Decade Conference on Women (Copenhagen, 1980), a resolution was passed strongly supporting the goals of the IDWSSD. It called on “Member States and UN agencies, including specialized agencies, to promote full participation of women in planning, implementation, and application of technology for water supply projects.”

To achieve this commitment by the United Nations system, a steering committee for cooperative action of the IDWSSD was established consisting of relevant United Nations specialized agencies and organizations, as well as governments, bilateral agencies, and nongovernmental organizations. This process resulted in a vast amount of research and development that yielded a range of appropriate technologies and tools to develop sound policy.

Around the time of the Earth Summit two important international conferences on the subject of women and the environment were held in Miami, in November 1991. The Global Assembly on Women and the Environment, sponsored by the United Nations Environment Programme, focused on energy, water, waste, and environmentally friendly systems; and emphasized the positive contribution of women to the environment. The World Women’s Congress for a Healthy Planet, organized by the International Policy Action Committee, highlighted evidence from women witnesses on the effects of environmental degradation in different parts of the world; and the conference produced the Women’s Action Agenda for the

21st Century. The main result from the Earth Summit was Agenda 21—the plan of action for sustainable development for the twenty-first century, containing detailed programs and recommendations concerning development and the environment. Agenda 21 includes a separate chapter on women and also specific chapters relating to women in various sectors, such as health, education, freshwater resources, forests, and so on.

The importance of the gender dimension was reinforced in the discussion at the International Conference on Water and the Environment (Dublin 1992). One of the conference's four central principles focused solely on women:

Women play a central part in the provision, management and safeguarding of water. This pivotal role of women as providers and users of water and guardians of the living environment has seldom been reflected in institutional arrangements for the development and management of water resources. Acceptance and implementation of this principle requires positive policies to address women's specific needs and to equip and empower women to participate at all levels in water resources programs, including decision-making and implementation, in ways defined by them.

The recognition and greater involvement of women in water projects, especially at the grassroots level, was one of the positive achievements of the International Decade for Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation. The remainder of this annex summarizes the specific water and sanitation policies of various agencies.

### **Collaborative Council for Water Supply and Sanitation**

The Collaborative Council for Water Supply and Sanitation, which has its secretariat at the World Health Organization, is made up of water professionals and strives to ensure that sustainable water supply and sanitation will be available to all people, with special focus on the needs of the poor. At its 1991 meeting in Oslo the Council focused on seven key areas related to improved planning and management of water supplies, one of which was "gender for sustainability."

From its rich experience with women in water and sanitation projects, the Council recognizes both the importance of involving women, because of their traditional roles, and the benefits, especially in terms of health and socioeconomic factors. At its meeting in Morocco in September 1993 the Council emphasized the need to incorporate gender issues. It agreed that gender issues should not be focused on women alone, and that the full benefits of gender-sensitive projects will only be achieved when women and men share responsibilities. The Council has had a working group on gender issues, which has now become a mandated activity of the Council.

## **Netherlands government**

Water supply is a prominent concern within the development assistance efforts of the Netherlands government. In February 1989 the government's approach to the sector was summarized in a policy document entitled "Water," which included the following principles:

- an integrated approach should be taken to related areas. Water supply improvements should, for example, be linked with improvements in sanitation and drainage,
- users should be encouraged to actively participate in the various processes of the project,
- economic sustainability should be assessed, and
- social sustainability such as institution building and transfer of knowledge should be supported.

Regarding the role of women in projects, surveys show that in nearly all developing country cultures, women tend to be indispensable to the water sector. Reasons for this include:

- Women's unique local expertise makes them indispensable as informants on location, availability, and reliability of water sources.
- Women's intimate social knowledge is useful in finding suitable training candidates for local maintenance and management.
- Women are familiar with the traditional learning systems that are particularly relevant for effective health education and project communication as a whole.
- Experience shows that women can assist in low-cost construction, with practical and economic benefits accruing to projects—women come up with their own improvements on the basis of their specific skills and insights.
- Technical maintenance of traditional facilities has always been largely in the hands of women; it seems cost-effective to continue with this arrangement.

Project preparation plans involving women should include:

- meaningful participation of women in decisions on design and location of water sources and sanitation facilities,
- contribution of women to decisions on additional funding, manner of payment, and control over operation,
- health education to all users, including women,

- provision to users, including women, of adequate information on technical, financial, managerial, health, and workload implications. Users can make careful choices based on the information provided by project staff, and
- provision of training for women on simple repair and preventive maintenance of facilities. Women should also receive adequate compensation for workload increases and be given a substantial role in overall management of the service.

## **INSTRAW**

The United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW), an autonomous entity within the framework of the United Nations, was established in 1976 with the objective of stimulating and assisting the advancement of women and their integration in the development process, through research, training, and dissemination of information. In view of its catalytic role, INSTRAW develops and utilizes networking, as appropriate, in carrying out its functions at the national, regional, and international levels. The Institute carries out its activities in close collaboration and coordination with institutes, organizations, and other bodies within and outside the United Nations system.

INSTRAW is a major advocate for women, water supply, and sanitation within the United Nations system. Since 1982 INSTRAW has given priority to its program on women, water supply, and sanitation. The main objective of the program is to increase awareness and to sensitize planners, senior officials, trainers, engineers and experts in charge of water supply and sanitation policies, programs, and projects of the importance—and the "how to"—of involving women in these areas; specifically, women need to be involved in an integrated manner in water supply and sanitation planning, management, implementation, and evaluation of programs and projects. In order to achieve its objective the INSTRAW program consists of three clusters: policy design and coordination; research, training, and capacity building; and information .

The INSTRAW program involves strengthening collaboration and cooperation with relevant international agencies, councils, commissions, and committees by participating in and providing substantive contribution to relevant meetings, sessions, conferences, and seminars. INSTRAW has been involved since 1982 in United Nations interagency collaboration and coordination in water supply and sanitation. In 1982 INSTRAW and UNICEF jointly assumed the responsibility of the Secretariat of the Inter-Agency Task Force on Women and the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade (IDWSSD), within the United Nations Steering Committee for IDWSSD. Since 1989 INSTRAW and PROWESS have provided secretariat services for the task force. The task force has emphasized the need for programs and activities to enhance women's participation at all stages and levels. During the decade INSTRAW, in

cooperation with other UN bodies and agencies played a crucial role in promoting women's roles and activities in the water sector.

INSTRAW participates regularly in the Inter-Secretariat Group for Water Resources of the Administrative Committee of Coordination. The institute contributes substantive inputs on the role of women in water resources management. For example, the institute contributed to Agenda 21, *Protection of the Quality and Supply of Fresh Water Resources: Application of Integrated Approaches to the Development, Management and Use of Water Resources*, as it relates to women.

INSTRAW and PROWESS were mandated by the Collaborative Council for Water Supply and Sanitation in 1991 to be the lead agencies for the working group on gender issues and water supply and sanitation. During the Collaborative Council meeting held in Rabat, Morocco, from 7 to 10 September 1993, the activities of the working group were presented. INSTRAW participated in the International Conference on Water and the Environment: Development Issues for the 21st Century, held in Dublin, Ireland. One of the four main principles articulated at the conference was devoted to women: "women play a central part in the provision, management and safeguarding of water."

INSTRAW, in cooperation with UNICEF, organized a panel on "Women, Water and Environmental Sanitation" at the NGO Forum, Fourth World Conference on Women. And, in cooperation with DDSMS, it organized a special session on "Women and Natural Resources Management," during the Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, China, September 1995.

INSTRAW will continue to be a major advocate for women, water supply, and sanitation in the United Nations system and will continue to provide substantive inputs, strategies, guidelines, and innovative training methodologies to enhance women's role in the water sector.

### **UNDP–World Bank Water and Sanitation Program**

The UNDP–World Bank Water and Sanitation Program is a collaborative initiative emerging from the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade of the 1980s. Program activities serve to strengthen national and local efforts for improving the access of poor people to safe water and sanitation. Drawing on more than a decade of experience in the developing world, the program today is playing a catalytic role in improving sector investments and national policies to better serve the poor in the 1990s through demand-driven, participatory approaches.

PROWESS (Promotion of the Role of Women in Water and Environmental Sanitation Services) was launched by the UNDP in 1983, with the aim of supporting and expanding the involvement of women in activities related to the Drinking Water and Sanitation Decade. It merged with the Program in 1992.

The Water and Sanitation Program/PROWESS has mainstreamed gender issues into its work. It has also produced specific documents that examine experience and provide tools for

others in the sector. Participatory training courses, using the SARAR methodology, have been conducted in all regions. Participatory tool kits, with samples of training materials, have been produced. All of these incorporate gender concerns. Some publications include: *Participatory Evaluation: Tools for Managing Change in Water and Sanitation*, *Participatory Development Tool Kit*, *The Contribution of People's Participation: Evidence from 121 Rural Water Supply Projects*, *Community Participation in Rural Water Supply Projects in Northern Punjab and AJK*, and *A Trainers' Manual for the Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Sector in Pakistan*. The Program is the coordinator for the Collaborative Council's Working Group on Gender Issues (now a task force which produced the *Gender Issues Sourcebook for Water and Sanitation Projects*).

## UNICEF

In 1976 the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements called for a global approach to achieving water supply and sanitation coverage in all countries by 1990. In 1980 the United Nations General Assembly proclaimed the period from 1981 to 1990 as the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade (IDWSSD) with the goal of achieving universal access to water and sanitation in developing countries by 1990. The Water and Environmental Sanitation Section within UNICEF provided ongoing support for countries attempting to reach these goals and currently cooperates in water and sanitation programs in nearly 100 countries.

At the World Summit for Children in 1990, a historic promise was made to promote the survival, protection, and development of children. This included, among other, the setting of goals to achieve safe water and sanitation for all by 2000.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child, a landmark human rights legislation that set standards for better legal and social protection for children, was adopted by the General Assembly in 1989. The convention recognizes the right of the child to enjoy the highest attainable standard of health. Article 24 of the convention specifically urges countries to take appropriate measures to combat disease and malnutrition within the framework of primary health care. This requires, "among other things, provision of clean drinking water and sanitation services."

In May 1995 the UNICEF Executive Board recommended the adoption of new strategies in Water and Environmental Sanitation (E/ICEF/95/17). A key lesson learned during the past decade is that sustainability of water and sanitation services is contingent upon the full involvement of communities, especially women, in decisionmaking, planning management, and empowerment of such programs. The new UNICEF water and environmental sanitation strategy therefore places special emphasis on human resources development of women in its programs to address past gender imbalances in the sector.

The new guiding principles for water and environmental sanitation strategies are:



- *Advocacy*, highlighting the needs and rights of children and the poor and building political and public commitment to the adoption of appropriate policies and accelerated action.
- *Basic services, managed by the community*, retaining strong commitment and providing catalytic support to the expansion of cost-effective services using appropriate technologies, paying particular attention to sanitation and taking into account the potential for upgrading services by the communities themselves.
- *Capacity building*, adopting program approaches that build capacity at all levels and in all segments of society, to ensure sustainable sector development.
- *Community cost-sharing of capital and recurrent costs of basic levels of service*, taking into account the willingness and ability to pay, as well as the need to recover the full capital and recurrent costs of higher levels of services in order to generate additional resources to extend basic services and ensure their sustainability.
- *Community management of the "water environment,"* including water conservation, water quality protection, and solid and liquid waste management, within the context of Agenda 21 and primary environmental care.
- *Gender-balanced approaches*, recognizing women as key players and agents of change and not solely as primary beneficiaries in the context of overall efforts to empower women.
- *Global, national, and local goals*, defined and set in collaboration with appropriate partners at different levels and pursued through effective monitoring systems.
- *Intersectoral linkages with health, education, nutrition, environment and other development programs*, exploiting synergies among all sectors that support child survival, protection, and development.
- *Participatory approaches to meeting objectives*, empowering communities and promoting their role, with the support of other stakeholders, in planning, implementing, managing, and monitoring services.
- *Partnerships*, formed and strengthened with governments at all levels, as well as with civil society, nongovernmental organizations, the private sector, external support agencies, and others, thus ensuring cooperation and complementarity.

Both the Water and Environmental Sanitation Sector as a whole, as well as UNICEF programs, have now reached a transitional point where the lessons learned and sound experiences of the past need to be applied widely. Both water supply and environmental sanitation are no longer to be considered as vertical programs for the delivery of physical services. Greater emphasis needs to be placed on health and socioeconomic benefits and on providing the knowledge, skills, tools, and technologies, as well as on generating motivation and fostering

supportive skills for communities and people to take decisions and make choices to help themselves.

## **CIDA**

For development programming to be effective, it must involve both women and men. In recognition of this basic principle, the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) is implementing a strategy to ensure that women in developing countries are included in all development programs, both as agents and beneficiaries. This strategy recognizes the constraints faced by women and recommends various measures to overcome them. These constraints include:

- exclusion of women from planning and implementation of water and sanitation projects,
- water and sanitation technologies that often do not take into consideration women's views, level of know-how, and cultural context, and
- insufficient maintenance of the systems and women's lack of expertise in repairing them.

Program success also depends on development planners' consulting the target group—both men and women. If certain project decisions are made without consultation with the local people, cultural constraints or restrictions may, for example, inhibit women from participating in new facilities. Thus, to achieve effective community participation, planners should adopt measures to ensure that women are involved when the community is consulted, including:

- Planners should elaborate and define the program that involves women in the project.
- Dialogue with the local people must be initiated so that the position and participation of women in the project is fully appreciated.
- Criteria for the female-male composition of the project committee must be prepared.
- Active participation of women in discussions and decisions must be encouraged.
- Projects should include female staff at all levels of participation, from outreach to managerial activities.

On the implementation side, women's participation in construction and administration can be viewed as critical. A review of the literature illustrates women's significant contributions to construction in water supply and sanitation projects:

- In Malawi women provide up to 70 percent of the labor for piped water schemes.
- In Thailand women mix concrete, pour latrine bowls, and cast rain water jars.
- In Asia women work as paid construction workers.
- In Mozambique and Tonga latrine slabs are made and sold by women's cooperatives.

Women's participation in the administration and management of a project can also help promote project success:

- Women make special efforts to solve local problems, including fee collection and fund-raising for repairs.
- Women can handle collections in those cultures where male collectors cannot visit houses when husbands are absent.
- Women tend to be trusted more with community funds; hence, they are often appointed as treasurers.
- Women often solve conflict inside a divided community.

## **IRC**

IRC is an internationally operating organization dealing with information and technology support for water and sanitation improvements. The IRC felt that during the Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade, two important factors emerged. First, the key to the success of community water supply and sanitation projects is a well-balanced relationship between the functions carried out by the community on the one hand and the support of agencies on the other. Second, the increased emphasis on community participation in many cases has brought to light the need to pay special attention to the interests and potential of women. Traditionally, women have played a major role in most issues relating to water and sanitation, and continue to do so after the provision of new or improved facilities.

In June 1984 the IRC organized a symposium in Amsterdam to discuss cooperation between communities and agencies in water supply and sanitation projects. Emphasis was put on the involvement of women as prime beneficiaries of the supplied facilities. The consensus of the meeting was that prerequisites for achieving the ambitious goals of the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade must be met. These are:

- adequate cooperation between communities and agencies,
- practical involvement of women,
- further development and application of appropriate technologies for water supply and sanitation, and
- appropriate human resources development.

A series of recommendations were made by the participants and were put into the framework of project planning:

- Special attention needs to be given to the rehabilitation of existing systems.
- Technologies, designs, and maintenance systems must be planned and decided simultaneously. For instance, one of the objectives of a PVC hand pump program in Sri Lanka was maximum decentralization of maintenance responsibilities to the community level. The technology in the program was not suited to this objective, but the technology was adapted (instead of PVC rod, a wooden core was used) and the problem overcome.
- Projects should take into account the willingness of the community to pay. It is inadvisable to base a water/sanitation system on possible improved income generation in the future.
- Women's needs should be taken into account and they should be directly involved in the project. For example, in Thailand two or more pumps were installed on wells where necessary. This reduced the waiting time for women.

In September 1993 the IRC organized an Asian workshop on the involvement of women in water supply, sanitation, and water resource protection projects. The major conclusions of the workshop were:

- The ultimate aim of women's involvement is to achieve a more equitable society with reference to work burden, decisionmaking, and planning.
- To achieve these aims, men also need to be sensitized to gender issues with regard to the role of women in water supply and sanitation.
- A gender approach in water supply and sanitation projects is needed.

## **Sida**

Reviews of Sida's water sector by the end of the 1970s and the beginning of the 1980s indicated that women had been neglected in water and environmental health projects. They were seldom involved in concrete activities and even less so in decisionmaking positions. To remedy this, Sida tried, through its water strategy (1984), to emphasize popular participation, particularly female participation, as essential for the sustainability of water and environmental health projects.

Sida's water and environmental health programs are similar in all the cooperating countries. The similarities can be found both with regard to the objectives and the means through which these objectives are achieved. In brief, the objectives are to improve health conditions for vulnerable groups, especially children and women; and to reduce work loads, especially for women and children, by shortening the distance they have to cover to reach water sources.

The strategy for achieving these objectives includes:

- building capacity in the local community for solving water-related problems,
- building support for programs through already existing institutions,
- implementing a program planning process at the village level, and
- providing a choice of simple techniques and an affordable maintenance system.

These strategies have been applied in several developing countries. For example, Swedish cooperation with India in the water sector was initiated in 1979. From the very beginning, the support was channeled through UNICEF. In Kenya, Swedish assistance has emphasized large and complex installations; but between 1979 and 1984 there was a change in focus toward more participatory and low-cost techniques.

Sida's strategy to involve women in the water and environmental health programs has been to:

- attach great importance to the choice of simple technologies so that maintenance is possible at the community level,
- underline the importance of social mobilization—and of open meetings—so that both women and men become aware of a project and its messages, are reached by it, and have a chance to participate in and influence it,
- require that women be members of water user committees, along with men, since women usually give higher priority to a well-functioning water system than men,
- see to it that women, along with men, are elected to the new jobs or positions created within the project and that women and men are trained to carry out these jobs properly, and
- train women in jobs that are already their traditional responsibility, like that of caring for the health of family members and that of serving pregnant mothers (traditional birth attendants).

## **NORAD**

The Norwegian Ministry of Development Cooperation has been giving more importance to the role of women in water supplies. Their stated objectives are:

- involving women in the planning, implementation, and follow-up of all water projects,
- consulting local women regarding choice of location, technology, and maintenance costs, and
- educating both women and men in the use of new sources of water and the importance of water for health.

- Women's living and working conditions must be improved.
- Women must be motivated and provided with opportunities to participate in economic, cultural and political activities with a view to change the mainstream of development to benefit women.

To reach these overall objectives NORAD has created the following subgoals:

- Women's productivity must be increased and return on labor enhanced and women must be given increased control over their labor.
- Women's access to local and other resources must be improved.
- Women's social and political rights must be secured.
- Women's responsibility for children and other dependents must be shared.
- Women's health must be improved.
- Women must be accepted as full-fledged partners in development.

Through the development assistance process NORAD aims to achieve:

- Increased education for women, particularly poor rural women.
- Increased credit facilities for women.
- Improved technology made available to women.
- Improved training facilities for women.
- Increased support to women's organizations.
- Provision of basic services (water, health, schools, housing, and so on).
- Increased emphasis on income generation for women (extension services and the like).
- Increased emphasis on making women and men aware of the important role women play in social and economic development.

The Norwegian development assistance policy has a strong focus on poverty that provides the basic framework for their women in development policies.

## **USAID**

The chief implementing agency for bilateral U.S. assistance is the Agency for International Development (USAID), which works through regional bureaus, headquarters offices, and missions around the world. Since improving socioeconomic conditions and creating infrastructure in developing nations have been major goals of USAID, water supply and sanitation projects have been included as a part of the total financing effort. Technical assistance in water supply and sanitation was always used by USAID to support and complement its project financing, but with the launching of the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade in 1979–80, the agency decided to augment and streamline its technical assistance capability. Accordingly, in July 1980 it funded the Water and Sanitation for Health (WASH) Project.

The WASH Project was conceived as an innovative way to marshal and deploy resources in the water supply and sanitation field. At the outset, its program focus was primarily on rural areas but it has incorporated an emphasis on urban areas in recent years. The main objective has been to help client countries throughout the world to achieve improved water and sanitation conditions. The strategies used have involved providing information, technology transfer, technical assistance, and training resources.

The WASH mechanism became the major USAID vehicle for technical assistance in the water sanitation sector, because it could work more quickly and with fewer administrative burdens than other mechanisms. The success of the technical assistance program under WASH has been more clearly attributable to its intrinsic premise: that policies are most successful when they help people learn to do things for themselves.

Polices or strategies falling under the WASH program include:

- an interdisciplinary approach,
- a participatory approach,
- coordination and collaboration,
- active information service,
- hygiene education,
- health benefits,
- institutional development,
- training,
- appropriate engineering design and application,
- plans for operation and maintenance, and
- greater community role in management and decisionmaking.

When the WASH Project came to an end, the Environmental Health Project (EHP) was inaugurated. EHP encompasses nine subsectors: water supply and sanitation, solid waste, wastewater, tropical diseases, air pollution, food hygiene, hazardous materials, occupational health, and injury.

## **KWAHO**

The Kenya Water for Health Organization (KWAHO) has been at the forefront in involving women in water supply and sanitation. KWAHO's main objective is to assist local communities in improving their health by providing safe drinking water and adequate sanitation through their own efforts and at their own pace. One of KWAHO's successful projects is located in the Kachogo Kakola area near Lake Victoria. This project was set up to address a series of problems manifested particularly in serious health epidemics such as cholera and other water-borne diseases. It was established that the most viable solution to these problems would be the development of shallow wells for water supply, with the use of the Afridev hand pump, and funding was acquired for ninety wells. The project involved the participation of sixty-one women's groups, and provided water to 80 percent of the target population.

KWAHO ensures that women are involved in water and sanitation projects by seeing to it that women are encouraged to be involved in deciding the siting of wells, and by providing training in construction, installation, maintenance, and repair of hand pumps.



Annex 3

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\* Membership as of October 1995, when this document was presented to the Barbados meeting of the Collaborative Council

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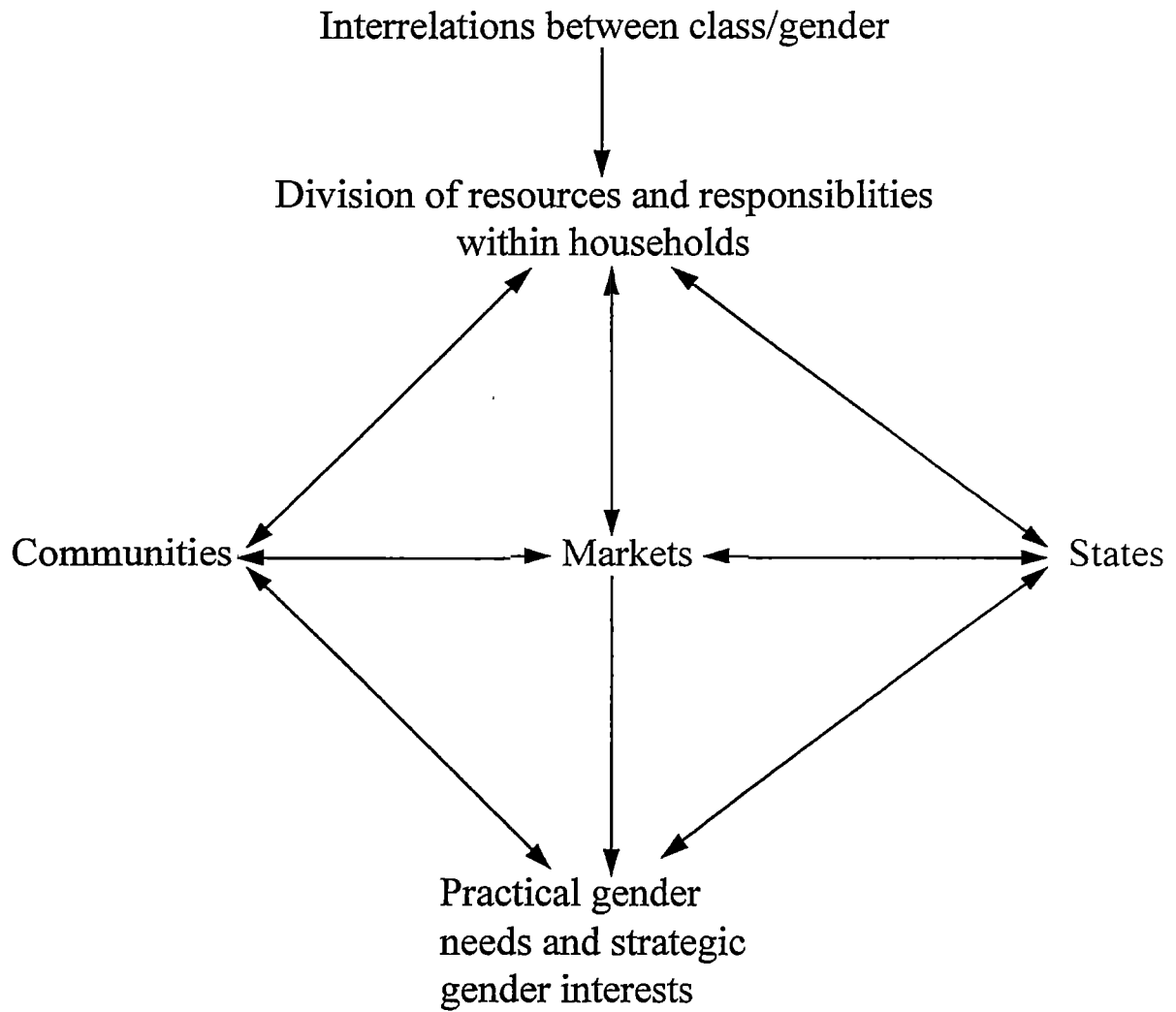
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Annex 4

CHARTS CONCERNING GENDER ISSUES AT THE POLICY LEVEL

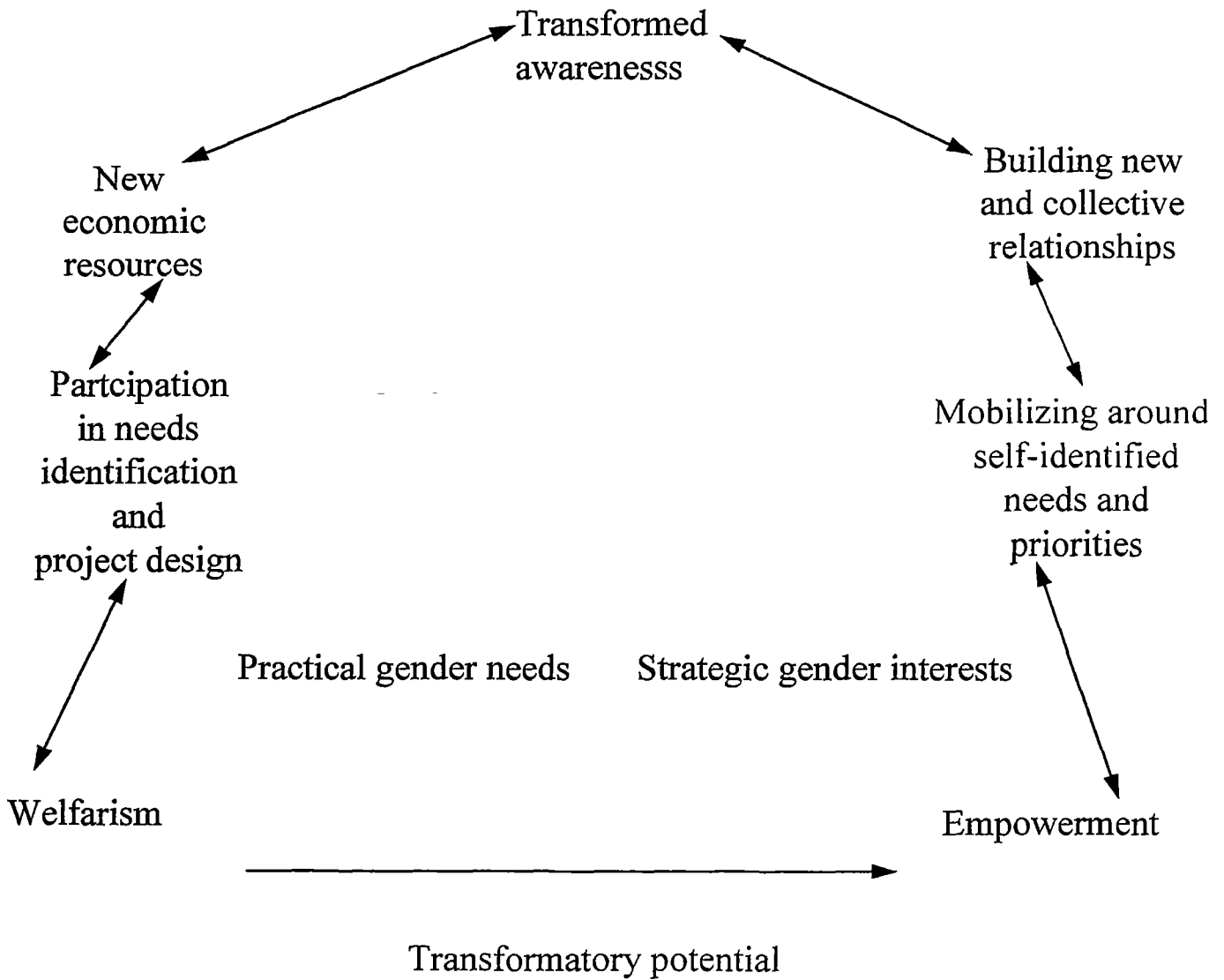


*Who does what?  
Who gets what?  
Who gains? Who loses?  
Which men? Which women?*

Analyzing Interventions

Source: Kabeer 1994, 311.

# Evaluating Change



## Analyzing Interventions

Source: Kabeer 1994, 311.

Gender Relations (as outcome)

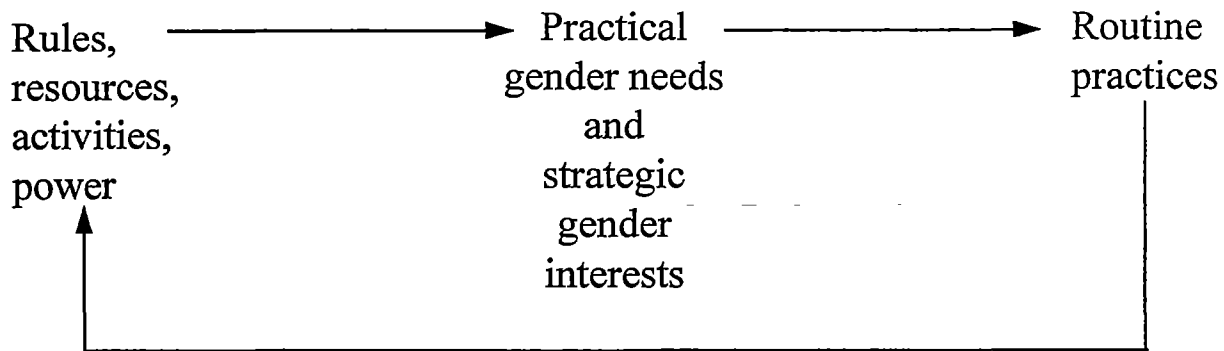
Rules,  
norms,  
customs,  
rights,  
responsibilities,  
claims,  
obligations

Resources  
as inputs,  
resources  
as outputs

Activities,  
roles, tasks,  
labor

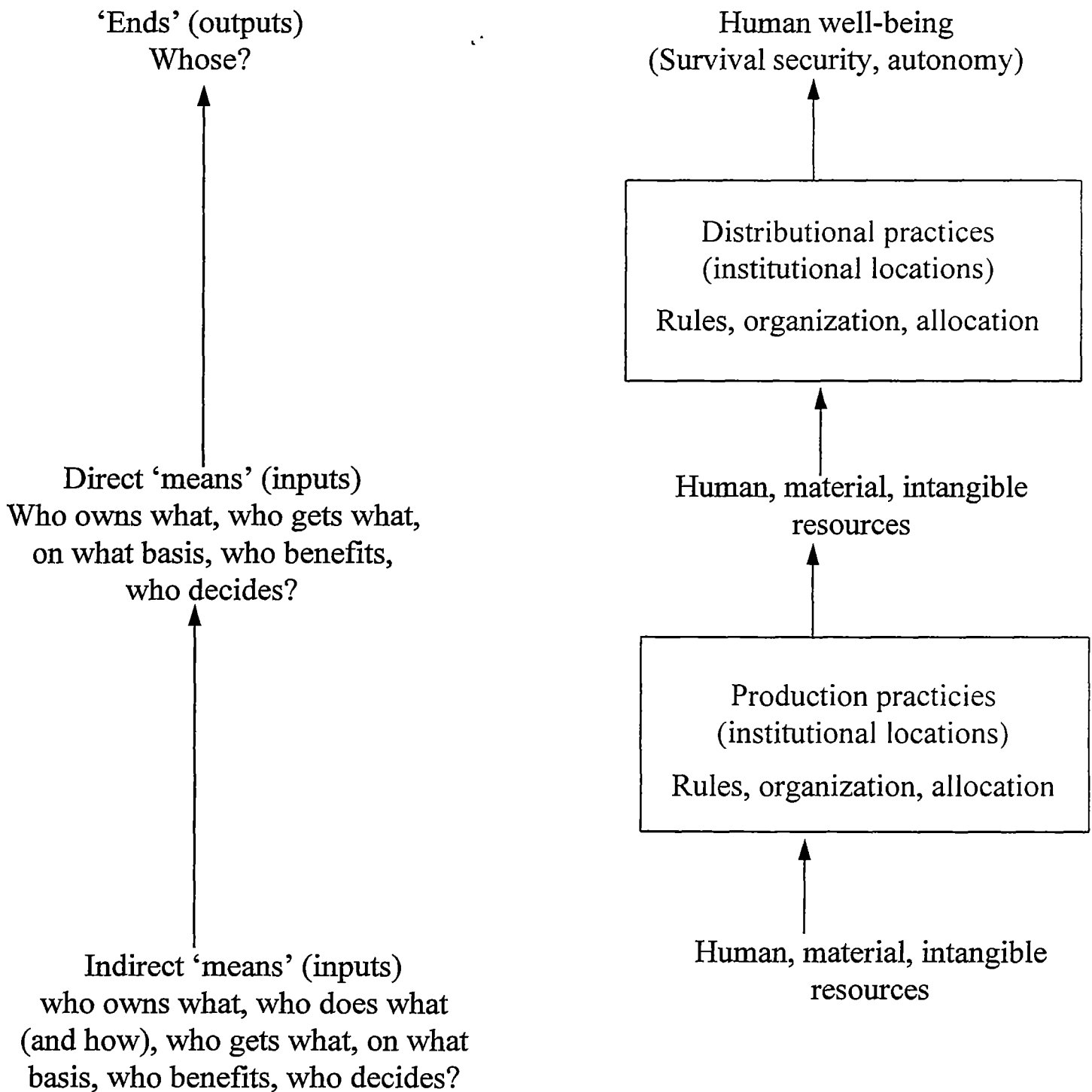
Command  
and control  
(hierarchies  
of power and  
decisionmaking)

Gender Relations (as process)



Institutional Analysis

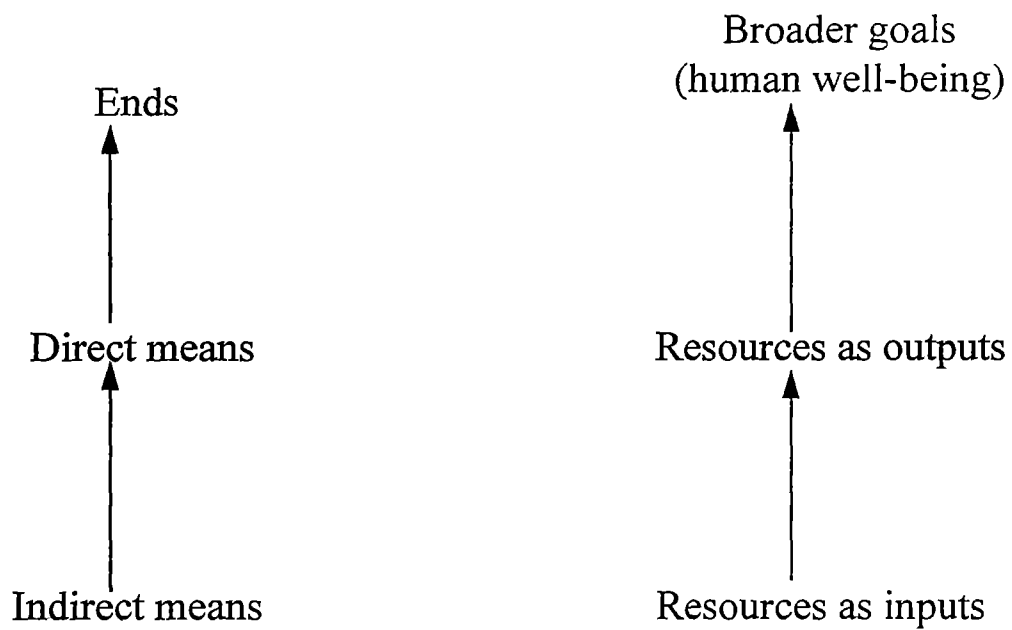
Source: Kabeer 1994, 309.



### Analyzing Interventions

Source: Kabeer 1994, 310.





### Analyzing Interventions

*Source:* Kabeer 1994, 310.

## **ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK FOR ASSESSMENT OF WID/GAD POLICIES AND MEASURES**

### **I. Objective**

#### **A. Substantive**

- Women's advancement
- Gender equality
- Women's empowerment

#### **B. Instrumental**

- Integration
- Mainstreaming

### **II. Approach**

- Integrationist
- Agenda-setting

### **III. Strategies**

#### **A. Institutional**

- Responsibility
- Accountability
- Coordination
- Monitoring
- Evaluation
- Personnel policy

#### **B. Operational**

- Guidelines
- Training

- Research
- Special projects
- Analytical tools
- Country programming
- Macro-policies
- Policy dialogues

#### IV. Measures of progress

##### A. Mainstreaming

- Resources
- Discourse

##### B. Gender equality

- Laws and norms
- Human development

##### C. Empowerment

- Women's movement
- Public action
- Decisionmaking

*Source:* Jahan 195, 11.

## **POLICY OBJECTIVES, APPROACHES, AND METHODOLOGIES**

### **I. Objectives**

#### **A. Substantive**

- **Women's advancement**
- **Gender equality**
- **Women's empowerment**

#### **B. Instrumental**

- **Integration**
- **Mainstreaming**

### **II. Approaches**

- **Integrationist**
- **Agenda-setting**

### **III. Methodologies**

- **Women in development (WID)**
- **Gender and development (GAD)**
- **WID-specific**
- **WID-integrated**

*Source:* Jahan 1995, 20.

## **POLICY ADVOCATES AND TARGETS**

### **I. Advocates**

#### **A. Insiders**

- **Activists within agencies/governments**
- **Special machinery/WID specialist**
- **Corporate/state leadership**

#### **B. Outsiders**

- **Women's organizations**
- **Research/academic institutions**
- **Civic and political organizations**

### **II. Targets**

- **Agency/government processes and procedures**
- **Public policies/institutions**
- **Women beneficiaries**

*Source: Jahan 1995, 29.*

## **INSTITUTIONAL STRATEGIES**

### **I. Responsibility**

#### **A. Structure**

- **Advisory Position**
- **Administrative Unit**
- **Focal Point**

#### **B. Function**

- **Policy and Strategy Development**
- **Advocacy, Coordination and Monitoring**
- **Technical Support for Operations**
- **Implementation**

### **II. Accountability**

#### **A. Internal**

- **Staff Performance Appraisal**
- **Project/Program Screening**
- **Corporate/Program Evaluation**

#### **B. Public**

- **Board/Parliament**
- **Citizens' Groups**
- **Media**

### **III. Coordination**

- **Separate**
- **Integrated**

#### **IV. Monitoring**

- Reporting requirements of WID
- WID action on project-reporting format
- Statistical reporting on WID budget

#### **V. Evaluation**

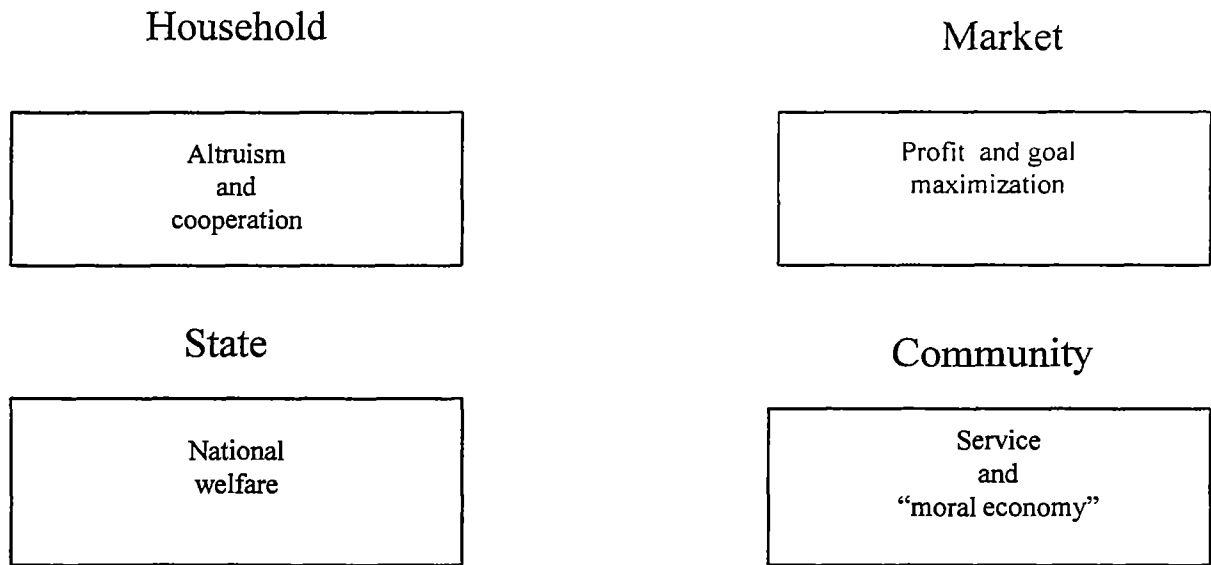
- Guidelines
- Checklists
- WID/gender issues in TOR
- WID/gender specialist in missions

#### **VI. Personnel policy**

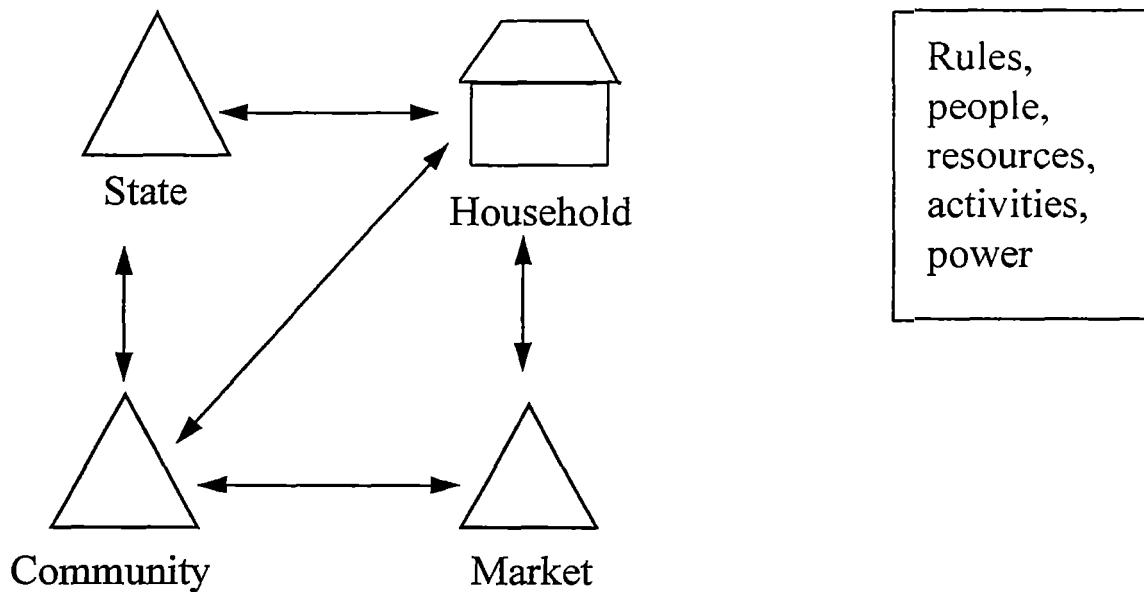
- Quotas
- Targets
- Career development policies

*Source:*Jahan 1995, 37.

## I. Institutions: The Official Picture



## II. Institutions: The Unofficial Picture



## Institutional Analysis

Source: Kabeer 1994, 308.

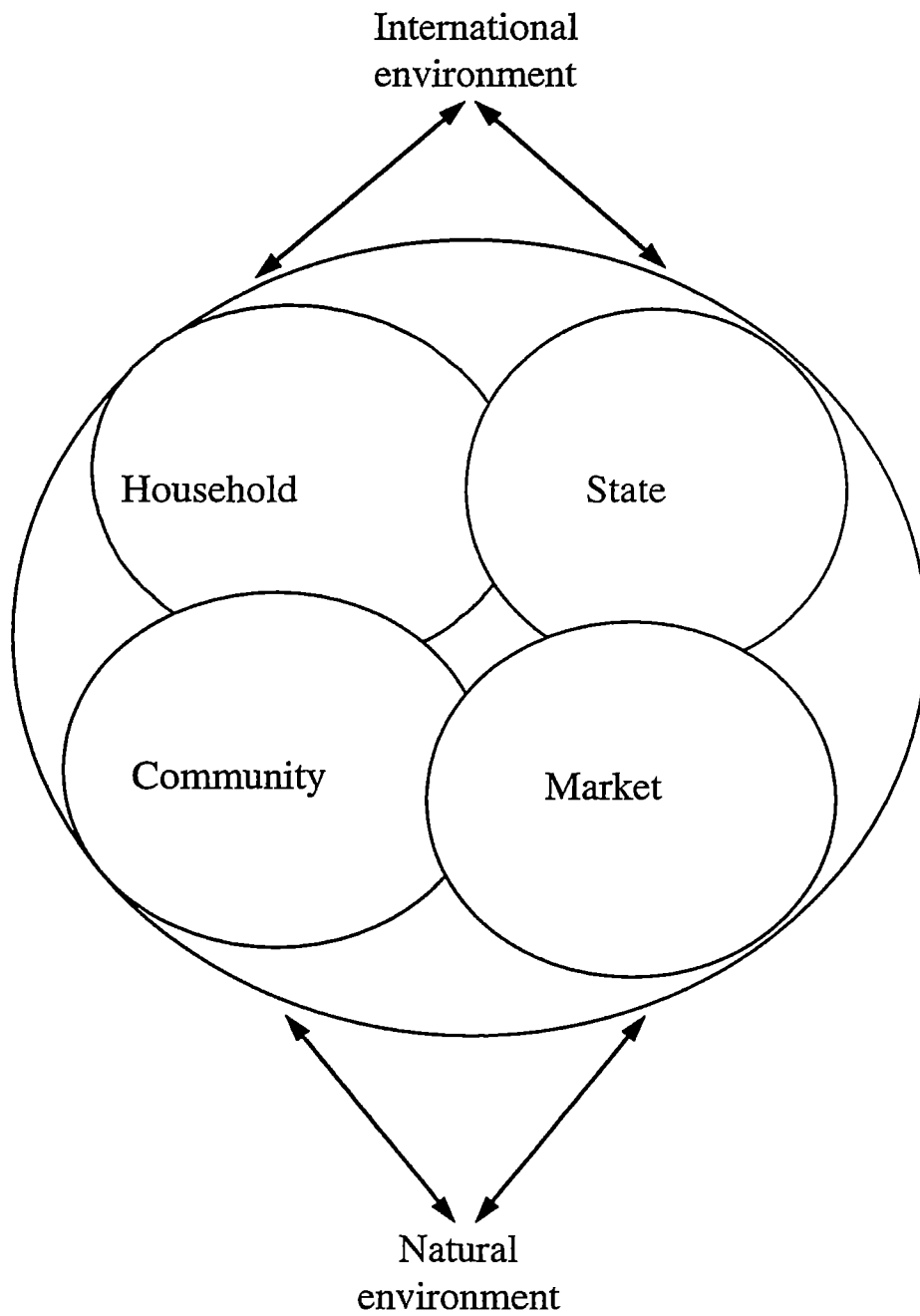


## Framework of Gender Policies

Issue	Welfare	Equity	Antipoverty	Efficiency	Empowerment
<b>Origin</b>	<p>Earliest approach:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Residual model of social welfare under colonial administration</li> <li>Modernization/</li> <li>Accelerated growth economic development model.</li> </ul>	<p>Original WID approach:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Failure of modernization development policy</li> <li>Influence of Boserup and First World Feminists on <i>Percy Amendment of UN Decade for Women</i>.</li> </ul>	<p>Second WID approach:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Toned down equity because of criticism</li> <li>Linked to redistribution with growth and basic needs.</li> </ul>	<p>Third and predominant WID approach:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Deterioration in the world economy</li> <li>Policies of economic stabilization and adjustment rely on women's economic contribution to development.</li> </ul>	<p>Most recent approach:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Arose out of failure of equity approach</li> <li>Third World women's feminist writing and grassroots organization.</li> </ul>
<b>Period most popular</b>	1950-70: But still widely used.	1975-85: Attempts to adopt it during the Women's Decade.	1970s onward: Still limited popularity.	Post-1980s: Now most popular approach.	1975 onward: Accelerated during 1980s, still limited popularity.
<b>Purpose</b>	To bring women into development as better mothers, which is seen as their most important role in development.	To gain equity for women in the development process: Women seen as active participants in development.	To ensure poor women increase their productivity: Women's poverty seen as a problem of underdevelopment, not of subordination.	To ensure development is more efficient and more effective: Women's economic participation seen as associated with equity.	To empower women through greater self-reliance: Women's subordination seen not only as problem of men but also of colonial oppression.
<b>Needs of women met and roles recognized</b>	To meet PGN in reproductive role, relating particularly to food aid, malnutrition, and family planning.	To meet SGN in terms of triple role—directly through state top-down intervention, giving political and economic autonomy by reducing inequality with men.	To meet PGN in productive role, to earn an income, particularly in small-scale income-generating projects.	To meet PGN in context of declining social services by relying on all three roles of women and elasticity of women's time.	To reach SGN in terms of triple role—indirectly through bottom-up mobilization around practical gender need as a means to confront oppression.
<b>Comment</b>	Women seen as passive beneficiaries of	In identifying subordinate position of women in	Poor women isolated as separate category with	Women seen entirely in terms of delivery capacity and ability to	Potentially challenging with emphasis on

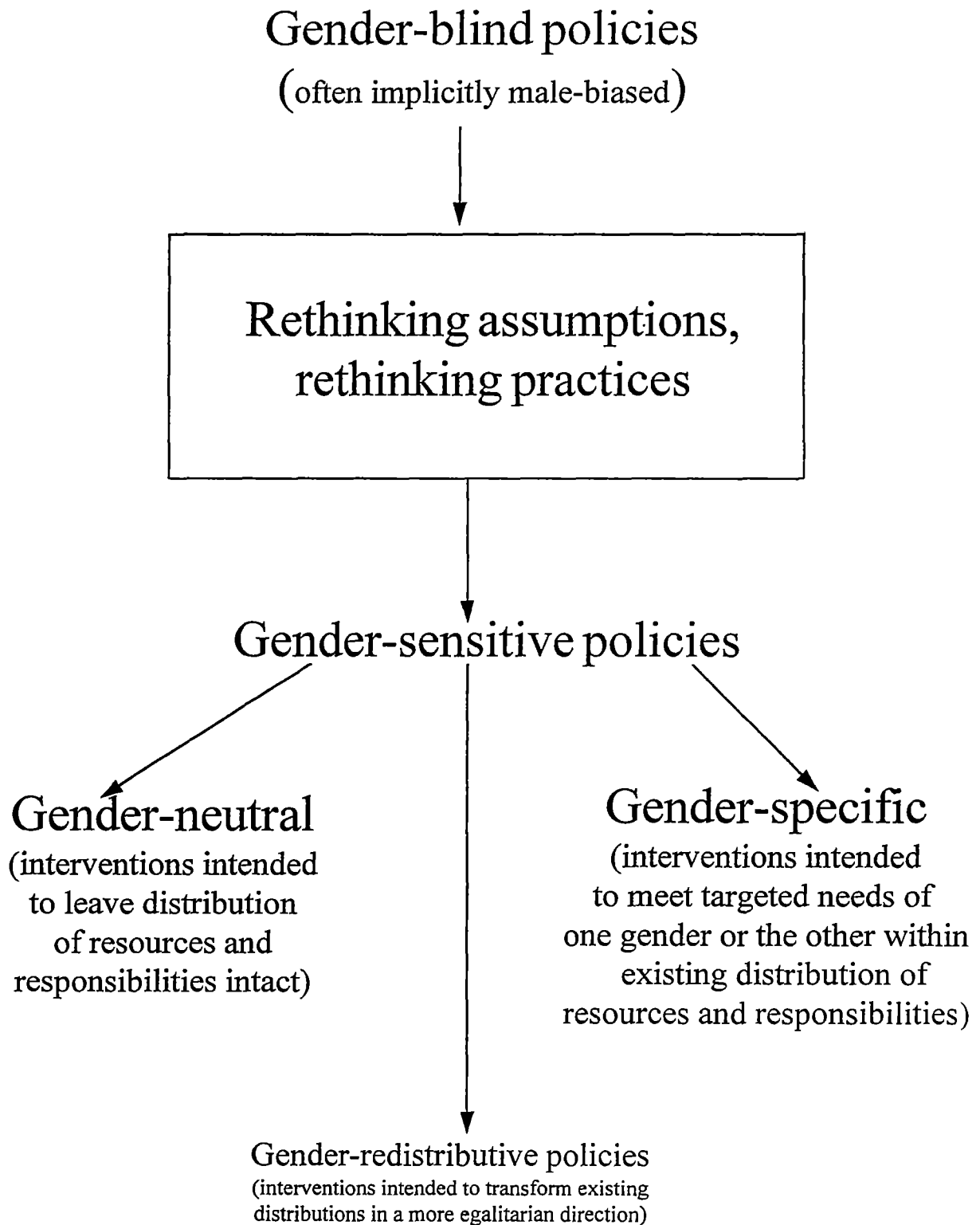
	<p><b>development with focus on their reproductive role; nonchallenging, therefore widely popular, especially with government and traditional nongovernmental organizations.</b></p>	<p><b>terms of their relationship to men, challenging is criticized as Western feminism, considered threatening and not popular with government.</b></p>	<p><b>tendency only to recognize productive role; reluctance of government to give limited aid to women means popularity still at the small-scale nongovernmental level.</b></p>	<p><b>extend working day; most popular approach both with governments and multilateral agencies.</b></p>	<p><b>Third World and women's self-reliance; largely unsupported by governments and agencies; avoidance of Western feminism criticism means slow significant growth of underfinanced voluntary organizations.</b></p>
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Source: Moser 1993, 56-57.



### Institutional Analysis

*Source:* Kabeer 1994, 309.



### Policy Review

Source: Kabeer 1994, 307.

## **OPERATIONAL STRATEGIES**

### **I. Guidelines**

- **Project**
- **Sector**
- **Country program**

### **II. Training**

- **Separate**
- **Integrated**
- **Awareness and sensitivity**
- **Skill and expertise**

### **III. Research**

- **Gender-disaggregated statistics and data**
- **Operational research**
- **Policy analysis**
- **Theoretical research**

### **IV. Special projects**

- **Innovations**
- **Empowerment**
- **Upscaling**
- **Mainstreaming**

### **V. Analytical Tools**

- **Gender analysis**
- **Consultation with target population**

## VI. Country programming

- WID/gender country profile and strategy
- Gender issues in country assistance strategy
- WID components in major sectors/programs
- Five-year/annual development plans

## VII. Macro-policies

- Gendered analysis
- Gendered action

## VIII. Policy dialogue

- Gendered participation
- Gendered agenda

*Source:*Jahan 1995, 59.

## NOTES

<sup>1</sup> The economic benefits of increasing girls' access to education have been well documented—see, for example, King and Hill 1993, and Summers 1994.

<sup>2</sup> Unpublished note by the International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, D.C., as discussed in Ismail Serageldin, *Toward Sustainable Management of Water Resources* (Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 1995), 27.

<sup>3</sup> The JAKPAS project was funded by a Japanese grant facility, managed by the UNDP–World Bank Water and Sanitation Program, and executed by the World Bank.

<sup>4</sup> Funds allocated to women's activities within the Communication Sub-sector have never been large and have on average contributed about 6 percent of the total funds allocated to regular programs in this Sub-sector.

<sup>5</sup> The Bank aims to reduce gender disparities and enhance women's participation in the economic development of their countries by integrating gender considerations into its country assistance programs.

<sup>6</sup> Reducing wage differences between men and women independently of their productive attributes contributes to their allocative efficiency.

<sup>7</sup> To the extent that women are overrepresented among the poor, programs aimed at enhancing women's economic participation and productivity are highly compatible with targeted approaches to poverty reduction.

<sup>8</sup> Thus, in Sub-Saharan Africa high population growth rates and agricultural stagnation have meant overgrazing, deforestation, and depletion of water resources.

<sup>9</sup> In 1988 at least 50 percent of the expenditures in the bilateral programs in 12 sectors should comply with at least three to four DAC/WID criteria.

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## Acronyms

<b>CIDA</b>	<b>Canadian International Development Agency</b>
<b>CODE-NGO</b>	<b>Caucus of Development Non-governmental Organizations Networks</b>
<b>DAC</b>	<b>Development Assistance Committee</b>
<b>DANIDA</b>	<b>Danish International Development Agency</b>
<b>FAO</b>	<b>Food and Agriculture Organization</b>
<b>HESAWA</b>	<b>Health through Sanitation and Water Programme</b>
<b>INSTRAW</b>	<b>United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women</b>
<b>IRC</b>	<b>International Water and Sanitation Center</b>
<b>ITN</b>	<b>International Training Network</b>
<b>NCRFW</b>	<b>National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women</b>
<b>PROSANEAR</b>	<b>Water and Sanitation Project for Low Income Communities</b>
<b>PROWWESS</b>	<b>Promotion of the Role of Women in Water and Environmental Sanitation Services</b>
<b>Sida</b>	<b>Swedish International Development Cooperation Authority</b>
<b>UNDP</b>	<b>United Nations Development Programme</b>
<b>UNFPA</b>	<b>United Nations Fund for Population Activities</b>
<b>UNICEF</b>	<b>United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund</b>
<b>UNIFEM</b>	<b>United Nations Development Fund for Women</b>
<b>USAID</b>	<b>United States Agency for International Development</b>
<b>WASH</b>	<b>Water and Sanitation for Health Project</b>
<b>WID</b>	<b>Women in Development</b>





