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UNDP-WORLD BANK WATER AND SANITATION ASSESSMENT PROGRAMME

PARTICIPATION, GENDER AND DEMAND-RESPONSIVENESS

Making the links with Impact and Sustainability of Water and Sanitation Projects

MALAWI COUNTRY REPORT

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

A PREAMBLE

This assessment in Malawi is part of the participatory learning assessment, one of the global programmes managed by UNDP-World Bank Water and Sanitation Programme. The assessment aimed to contribute to the understanding of issues of poverty, participation, gender and demand responsiveness as they link with impact and sustainability of water and sanitation programmes.

The Malawi assessment was formulated within the global conceptual framework. However, some modifications were made to meet other national demands:- to provide baseline data for the preparation of a community managed water and sanitation programme by the Ministry of Water Development; and to provide data for the establishment of a data bank in the Ministry of Water Development.

The assessment was conducted in three districts: Thyolo; Phalombe and Karonga. In each of these districts, three communities were assessed. Both the districts and the communities were selected on the basis that:-

- a. they have implemented the water and sanitation programmes established for the past three to ten years;
- b. their programmes have been formulated on the principle of community based management; and
- c. they were willing to participate in the assessment.

The selection of communities was done in consultation with District Executive Committees. This ensured that the communities were selected according to criteria set by the assessment framework. In each community, thirty households were selected for a survey. These were purposely selected. In total, two hundred and seventy households were interviewed. A semi- structured questionnaire was used to collect the data. In addition to a survey of selected households, a focus group discussion was also used. In each community, three groups were identified and interviewed: men only; women only; and a mixed group of men and women. Each group consisted of ten to fifteen persons.

Consultations were also made with key informants at community and district levels.

B. SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS

B1. The Policy Framework

The provision of water in urban and semi-urban areas of Malawi is the responsibility of water boards whereas city and town councils are responsible for sanitation services. These services are provided at a cost. Discussions are underway to have both services provided by the water boards. It has also been shown that privatization of some services, notably sanitation, can improve quality of service delivery. On the other hand, in rural areas, water and sanitation services, particularly water, are provided free of charge by government, donors and non governmental organizations.

The sanitation component has not received as much emphasis as the water component in the rural water and sanitation programmes. There has been lack of policy. While specific water policy

does now exist, a policy on sanitation does not exist. Instead, sanitation issues are covered in the water policy and the health policy. The situation is complicated in that no single ministry is responsible for sanitation development in the country. The mandates of Ministry of Water Development; Ministry of Health and Population; Ministry of Local Government and Ministry of Women, Youth and Community Services are not explicit on issues of sanitation policy. None of these is providing a lead to formulate a national policy.

While the water policy addresses issues of demand responsiveness and participation, there has not been explicit focus on gender since Malawi has had no policy on gender until July 1998. Thus it has been hard to mainstream gender in water and sanitation programmes.

B2. Definition and extent of poverty

Poverty is pervasive and widespread in the communities assessed. The definition of poverty involved subjective wealth ranking in terms of housing, asset ownership, livestock ownership, food security and whether or not one runs a viable business. More women ^{than} that men were assessed to be poor. This is due to differences in access to income generating opportunities. While farming remains a major occupation for both men and women in all the communities, it is evident that more men than women are advantaged because they are engaged in other more lucrative activities.

Communities too can be classified according to extent of poverty. A community was said to be poor if it has limited access to such services as health services and poor transport infrastructure such as roads and transport facilities. The perception of community poverty seems to advance the notion that provision of water and

sanitation services alone can not improve the poverty status of a community. Complimentary services such as health facilities, markets, good roads and schools, telephone and postal services as well as creation of gainful employment are a prerequisite. They should be conceived at the time water and sanitation programmes are being formulated.

B3. Availability of protected water

In the water and sanitation programmes in Malawi, much emphasis has been on construction of protected water facilities, mainly protected wells, boreholes and gravity fed water schemes (taps). Little progress has been made in terms of provision of good sanitation facilities. In the communities assessed, communal boreholes were the commonest form of protected water followed by communal piped water facilities (taps). These were introduced to replace water sources previously used by the communities:- rivers, shallow wells and other unprotected sources which exposed communities to water borne diseases especially during the rainy seasons.

B4. Functioning systems

It was evident that not all the facilities were functioning. In some cases all the taps and boreholes in a community were reported to be sealed off due to frequent breakdowns and lack of repairs and maintenance.

B5. Effective use of protected water

Assessed in terms of number of households that have regular access to the protected water sources and for what use the water is put, it was found out that the water is not used effectively. Firstly, access to the water facilities is limited due to distance, non functioning system and non reliability of the water. Thus, the communities use

unsafe sources of water, namely streams/ivers and springs/unprotected shallow wells. Hence, they are at risk of outbreak of water borne diseases which are common especially during October to February periods. Whether or not from protected sources, there are no restrictions as to who has access to the facilities and for what use the water is.

B6. Gender and poverty

Both the rich and the poor have had same opportunity in terms of access. The water has been used for such purposes as drinking, cooking, washing, bathing and construction. However, the rich were reported to be using more water because they have had more activities which required use of water and also they have had more water storage facilities. This suggest that it has been the rich who benefitted from the communal water facilities that were installed in the programmes. Women too seem to have benefitted. The introduction of the facilities was reported to have reduced burden of women who used to walk long distances and carry big pails on their heads.

B7. Demand responsiveness

Assessed by the extent to which users participated in key decision making regarding the formulation, management and maintenance of the facilities, it was found that the demand for the services never originated from the users. Instead, the project ideas were brought to the communities from outside, mostly by government. This typical top-down approach has affected issues of community ownership and consequently management and sustainability.

B8. Community Participation

Whereas gender, poverty and demand responsiveness in community development are relatively new concepts in Malawi, participation in the establishment of the programmes is not new. What is different is the nature of participation that exists today where communities have a choice to participate or not. Before 1992, it was imperative that communities participate, in most cases by providing labour. Thus, most of the water facilities installed under the programme were out of order due to breakdowns since programmes have not built in an aspect of effective community participation in issues such as repairs and maintenance.

C. MAJOR CONCLUSIONS

From the assessment, the following are major conclusions:-

1. There is lack of genuine community participation. Communities are not involved in the planning processes of projects/programs development. Planning process is largely still top-down despite the efforts to promote bottom-up approach. The powers and authority to plan is still concentrated at the central level. Communities as a result still lack spirit to own and manage their projects effectively thereby affecting the sustainability of the projects.
2. All the communities lack abilities to manage their WSS facilities effectively because community based structures which facilitate performance of these functions are weak. Poverty also militates against them in managing an effective and efficient maintenance fund. Due to these

- reasons, most of the water facilities are not functioning . The backup services from Ministry of Water Development are also not adequate. These factors are threatening the sustenance of these facilities.
3. Poverty is widespread and gender based. The majority who are poor in these communities are women whose participation in decision making is very minimal at all levels. It is still uncommon to see women entrusted with big responsibility of decision making yet women are main users of WSS facilities. Further, it is evident from the communities that WSS Programs existing in their communities were not established through demand responsive approach. They lack basic skills to organize themselves and put forward requests for WSS facilities from donors.
 4. It is very clear from this study that the sharing of roles and responsibilities in the implementation and management of WSS projects is gender based with women performing more arduous tasks such as collection of water for household use and management of water points.
 5. Although decentralized institutional framework exists to promote participation, gender and demand responsiveness, there is lack of coordination and collaboration to holistically advance these issues effectively. These institutions also lack capacity in terms of financial and human resources. It is urgent that institutional capacity building should take precedence.
 6. The policy environment exist to support the promotion of gender, demand responsiveness, water and sanitation issues. However these policies have short falls. For instance, the water and sanitation policy has not mainstreamed gender issues while the gender policy does not adequately engender water and sanitation issues.
- Sanitation policy.

D. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, the following are proposals for improving the water and sanitation programmes in Malawi.

1. The programme should retrofit the health education and sanitation (HESP) component to the water programme. The component should intensify information, education and communication for the beneficiaries. Adequate care should be given to traditional sources of water like rivers and unprotected shallow wells because people still use them even if they have protected sources. The community should be given civic education regarding project ownership and their roles and responsibility.
2. In view of inadequate supervision by the Ministry of Water Development as a lead Ministry in the water sector, capacity should be strengthened at all levels to provide adequate supervision to all WSS programs. In addition, the Ministry should strengthen its monitoring system. Supervisory visits to monitor the implementation of the programme be

regular and the extension workers responsible for the areas should be given support to enable them to be more mobile and innovative in their work.

cash contributions to community projects, there is need to link up with income generating activities. This would provide an incentive to people to be contributing to community projects.

3. In line with the observation that most of WSS projects were not conceived by the communities and thus sustainability has been affected since people view such projects as just hand outs and do not in most cases want to dispense their stake in these project, community members should be involved in all stages of the project to ensure ownership and sustainability. The Village Development Committee should be the entry point to the community.

6. It is also recommended that the programming process should mainstream issues of gender, participation and demand responsiveness. A special assessment should be conducted to identify how best this could be done. The output should include development of guidelines and indicators for mainstreaming gender, participation and demand responsiveness in the water and sanitation programmes in Malawi.

4. Community training is crucial in the management of the facilities. This is so especially for community based committees charged with responsibilities of implementation. These committees need to be equipped with relevant skills. Thus, the main water committees should be trained. Some of the issues that could be covered in the training should be :-

- ▶ maintenance and repairs
- ▶ management of the water and sanitation programme
- ▶ leadership skills
- ▶ gender and development
- ▶ committee procedures.

5. The analysis on the community contribution shows that cash generating opportunities are dwindling with harsh economic environment the country is facing at the moment. To make effective

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Geographic location of Malawi

Malawi is a small land locked country in Sub Saharan Africa, bordering with Tanzania in the North, Zambia in the West and Mozambique in the West-East. Administratively, the country is divided into three regions; Northern Region with five districts, Central Region with nine districts and Southern Region with twelve districts.

1.2 Major socioeconomic indicators

Malawi is one of the poorest country in the world. Generally the standards of living are low for most of the population. In 1995, with per capita income of US\$ 773, Malawi has one of lowest in the Sub Saharan Region. Between 1980 and 1994, up to forty two percent of the population were below the income poverty line of US\$1 per day.

The 1998 Population and Housing Census puts the population of Malawi at nine million, and growing at less than two per cent per annum (between 1987 and 1997). Generally, the population growth has been high relative to other countries in the Sub Saharan Africa. Between 1970 and 1995, the population grew at 3.1 per cent per annum as compared to less than two per cent in Mozambique and Zambia. While the population growth has declined, average life expectancy too has declined to thirty seven years in 1998 from forty one years in 1995. This decline is largely attributed to the HIV/AIDS scourge that has hit the country in the recent years.

Malawi has also one of the lowest human development indicators in the Sub Saharan African region. Up to forty percent of the population can not read and write. Furthermore, over sixty percent of the population has no access to health, safe water and sanitation services.

Although efforts to promote gender in the country are being undertaken, Malawi still has the lowest gender indicators. According to UNDP (1998), the Gender Development Index value for Malawi in 1995 was 0.325 as compared to 0.372 for Zambia, 0.354 for Tanzania and 0.497 for Zimbabwe. Similarly, the Gender Empowerment Value (0.256) is the lowest in the region.

Appendix 1 gives major human development indicators for Malawi.

Chapter Two: *Conceptual Framework and Methodology*

assessment.

2.1 Design of the assessment

This participatory learning assessment was one of the global programmes managed by UNDP-World Bank Water and Sanitation Programme. The assessment aimed to contribute to the understanding of issues of poverty, participation, gender and demand responsiveness as they link with impact and sustainability of water and sanitation programmes.

While the design of the Malawi assessment was formulated within the global conceptual framework, some modifications were made to meet other demands. For instance, the assessment also aimed at providing baseline data for the preparation of a community managed water and sanitation programme by the Ministry of Water Development with assistance from the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA). In addition, the assessment aimed at providing data for the establishment of a data bank in the Ministry of Water Development.

2.2 The Study Areas

The assessment was conducted in three communities in each of the three districts selected for the study. Both the three districts and the three communities in each district were selected on the basis that:-

- a. they have implemented the water and sanitation programmes established for the past three to ten years;
- b. their programmes have been formulated on the principle of community based management; and
- c. they were willing to participate in the

Thyolo District

Thyolo district is one of the twelve districts in the Southern Region of Malawi. Administratively, the district has seven Traditional Authorities which are Bvumbwe, Nsabwe, Kapichi, Changata, Nchilamwela, and Chimaliro

The 1987 Population and Housing Census estimated Thyolo District population to be 431,157 of which forty eight percent were males and fifty two percent were females. In 1994, the population was estimated to be 494,820. There were over 105,843 households. Twenty eight percent of these are headed by women.

Thyolo is basically an agricultural economy. Over ninety three percent of the population derive their livelihood from agriculture. The main food crops in the district are maize, sorghum, sweet potatoes cassava, bananas. These are the domains of the smallholder agricultural sector. On one hand, the cash crop economy of Thyolo is dominated by large commercial estates that grow tea, coffee, macadamia nuts. On the other hand, the cash economy of the smallholder production sub sector is characterized by fruits (especially banana) and vegetables.

The district has three hospitals, six secondary schools, ten distance education centres and one hundred sixty five primary schools. Illiteracy rate for the district stands at forty three percent. Out of this, sixty six percent are females.

Generally, there is limited access to safe water and proper sanitation in the district. Over seventy percent of the district population use unprotected sources of water and over ninety percent of the

population do not have proper sanitation services.

In this district, the three communities that were assessed are Bvumbwe, Mphuka, and Sandama.

Phalombe District

Phalombe is also one of the districts in the Southern Region of Malawi. It lies in the western side of the Mulanje Mountain. It covers two traditional chiefs which are Mkhumba and Nazombe.

Until 1998, it was part of Mulanje district and served as a sub-district. Phalombe is now a full district with its own administrative and development structures just like any other district in the country. As such, it is difficult to obtain some social indicators such as literacy rates and access to health, water and sanitation.

Communication in Phalombe is generally difficult. Many villages can hardly be accessible either by road or through use of telephones especially during the rainy season.

The basis of Phalombe economy is subsistence farming, dominated by maize. However, there is substantial cash cropping especially rice and tobacco. In the recent years, the district has experienced food shortage as a result of natural disasters (avalanche and droughts). Thus, some households have been dependant on relief food.

Three communities were assessed in Phalombe. These are Yuwa, Kaledzera and Phodogoma.

Karonga District

Karonga is one of the five districts in the Northern Region of Malawi. With a population of 148,014 it is one of the least densely populated districts in

Malawi. There are three Traditional Authorities (TA) of Kyungu, Wasambo and Kilupula and two Sub-Traditional Authority (STA) Mwakaoko and Mwirang'ombe.

Like most districts in Malawi, Karonga depends on agriculture as the main source of livelihood. Food crops grown include rice, maize, cassava and green bananas. These crops also serve as cash crops. In addition, there is significant cross border trade with the neighbouring Tanzanian districts.

Karonga has a relatively higher literacy rate compared to Thyolo and Phalombe. However, access to water and sanitation facilities is also limited.

Three communities were assessed. These are Mwantawali, Mwambuli and Mwenengolongo.

2.3 Sampling and sample size

Selection of communities

The selection of communities was done in consultation with District Executive Committees. This ensured that the communities were selected according to criteria set by the assessment framework.

Selection of households for a survey

In each community, thirty households were selected for a survey. These were purposely selected. In total, two hundred and seventy households were interviewed. A semi-structured questionnaire was used to collect the data.

Focus Group Discussions

In addition to a survey of selected households, a focus group discussion was also used. In each community, three groups were identified and interviewed: men only; women only; and a mixed group of men and women. Each group consisted of ten to fifteen persons.

The type of questionnaire/checklists used and variable collected are presented in Appendix 2.

Within the focus group discussions, the following were conducted:- Wealth ranking; Matrix scoring; Transect walks; and Community mapping. These tools were largely adapted from the methodological guide that was prepared by the Regional Water and Sanitation group of the World Bank in East and Southern Africa for Global Assessment.

Consultations at various levels

The assessment also made use of consultations at various levels: District Executive Committees; Village Development Committees, Area Development Committees and/ or Area Executive Committees; Water Point Committees and/or Village Health Committees.

Key informants were also interviewed. These included village heads, government staff at district level from Ministry of water Development and Ministry of Health and Population and Ministry of Women, Youth and Community Services.

Timing of the data collection

The study was conducted between November 1998 to January 1999. In terms of data collection it was done from 29 November to 17 December 1998.

Data collection in each district was for a total of seven days. Three teams of five research assistants were used, one in each community. The data collection was well supervised.

Data Analysis

The household questionnaire were processed in the office and SPSS was used. The other data collected were analyzed in the field and summary community reports were prepared. These were used in the preparation of districts and the country report.

Can we get these reports?

Please refer to annexes for the district reports.

2.4 Strengths and weaknesses of the methodology

The methodology used was participatory, cost effective yet addressing issues that the assessment meant to explore in terms of meeting the guidelines provided by the global framework, the need to provide baseline data for the preparation of community based water and sanitation programmes especially in Thyolo and Phalombe; and the need for establishing a data bank in the Ministry of Water Development. Thus, the methodology used allowed the collection of adequate data for various stakeholders (Ministry of Water Development; Canadian International Development Agency and the World bank Regional Water and Sanitation Group- ESA)

However, there were some weaknesses. The global framework, the Participatory Learning Assessment (PLA) Methodology was not fully followed. Instead, there were some adaptations to meet needs of various stakeholders. Thus, the PLA tools were not tested, as expected. Instead, the tools were used only to generate the data required.

Chapter Three: National Water and Sanitation Policy Framework

Adequate water and sanitation services are a prerequisite for sustainable development. However, like in most developing countries, the vast majority of people in Malawi have limited access to safe water and proper sanitation. A recent Malawi Social Indicators Survey (1995) shows that only thirty seven percent of the Malawian population have convenient access to safe drinking water whereas only six percent have access to proper sanitation services.

3.1 Organization of water and sanitation services in Malawi

The provision of water and sanitation services in Malawi has essentially been the role of government, parastatal organizations, donors and Non Governmental Organizations.

In the major cities and towns of Malawi, such services are provided at commercial rate. In case of water, Blantyre and Lilongwe Water Boards provide the services in Blantyre and Lilongwe respectively. Otherwise, the rest of the urban and peri-urban areas are served by Regional Water Boards.

The provision and management of sanitation services in the urban areas has been the responsibility of City and Town Councils. However, discussions are in progress to transfer this role to the Water Boards and the private sector. The recent development in the cities of Blantyre and Lilongwe, where running of most public toilets has been privatized, show that it is possible to improve service delivery of sanitation through privatization.

In rural areas, water and sanitation services, particularly water, are provided free of charge by government, donors and non governmental organizations.

3.2 Development of rural water and sanitation services

Government's efforts to improve water and sanitation services in rural communities of Malawi are not new. They date back to the colonial period in the 1930s when wells were provided. Such efforts continued in the early days of independence in mid 1960s when boreholes were introduced. Then the major thrust was in mid 1970s when a rural piped water programme (gravity water schemes) was introduced..

Initially, the programmes were implemented by the Ministry responsible for Community Development with funding from various donors such as UNICEF, Christian Service Committee of Malawi; United States of America, Canada, Oxfam, Denmark and the African Development Bank. Today, the World Bank and CIDA have promised to fund some new schemes and rehabilitate more (Kleemeier, 1998).

During these periods and even today, the sanitation component has not received as much emphasis as the water component. Sanitation development has been hampered by lack of policy. While specific water policy does now exist, a policy on sanitation does not exist. Instead, sanitation issues are covered in the water policy and the health policy.

The situation is complicated in that no single ministry is responsible for sanitation development in the country. The mandates of Ministry of Water Development; Ministry of Health and Population; Department of District and Local Government

Administration and Ministry of Women, Youth and Community Services are not explicit on issues of sanitation. In addition, none of these is providing a lead to formulate a national policy.

3.3 The National Sector Policies

Until 1998, Malawi did not have a Water Policy or a Sanitation Policy or a Water and sanitation Policy. The lack of policy has adversely affected sustainability of water and sanitation services. Due to this, facilities have been installed without following required standards. Furthermore, facilities inappropriate to Malawi conditions have been installed in some areas. This has affected performance and management of the facilities, thus adversely affecting sustainability.

Recognizing that lack of policy has affected sustenance of water and sanitation services in Malawi, there now exists a Water Resources Management Policy and Strategies, which also include issues of sanitation. The policy articulates two aims of water and sanitation in Malawi:-

1. to ensure sustainable management and use of water resources, water supplies and sanitation facilities; and
2. to ensure that citizens of Malawi have access to safe and adequate sanitation.

Specific objectives are:-

1. To promote the concept of community based management whereby communities are empowered to take charge of planning, implementation and management of their water supplies and sanitation services;
2. To promote the provision of convenient access to portable water supplies; within a distance of five hundred meters;

3. To ensure that all households have access to hygienic means of excreta and refuse disposal and other sanitation facilities;
4. To promote the provision of water and sanitation facilities that are affordable and appropriate for rural communities;
5. To build capacity at all levels to manage water and sanitation services;
6. To ensure coordination among various players in the provision of water and sanitation services;
7. To ensure that the development of water and sanitation sub sector is not harmful to the environment and to catchment areas; and
8. To promote economic value of water resources.

While the policy addresses issues of demand responsiveness and participation, there has not been explicit focus on gender due to the fact that Malawi has had no policy on gender until July 1998. Thus it might have been hard to mainstream gender in water and sanitation programmes.

Chapter Four: Major Findings of the Assessment

4.1 Poverty: Definition and extent

While poverty is pervasive and widespread in Malawi, its definition and mapping varies from community to another. Most studies on poverty in Malawi (World Bank, 1995) have defined and mapped poverty at household level. The results of this assessment goes beyond defining poverty at household level. From a community perspective, some communities can be said to be poorer than others.

Definition of poverty

According to community self assessment, definition of poverty involved subjective wealth ranking in terms of housing, asset ownership, livestock ownership, food security and whether or not one runs a viable business.

There was little variation in definition of poverty between communities and between districts. All three districts and the nine communities had almost similar attributes of poverty which largely constituted at least one of the following five common major attributes:-

1. Type and quality of a house owned;
2. Types and number of assets owned;
3. Classes and numbers of livestock owned;
4. Food security position and/or
5. Type and viability of business operated.

Thus, the community definition of poverty incorporates basically the deprivation of basic needs.

According to the assessment made, the rich were:-

- ▶ those with houses made of burnt bricks and roofed with corrugated iron sheets; those that own a car, an ox wagon and/or a hi-fi music system;
- ▶ those that owned cattle and/or goats
- ▶ those that had adequate food throughout the year and
- ▶ were running a year through viable business.

On the other hand, the poor were:-

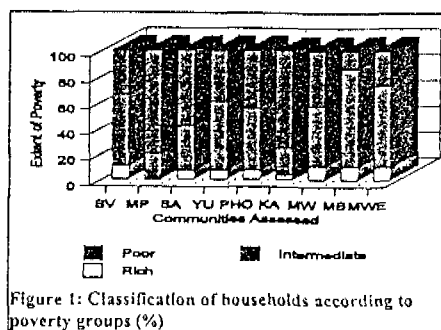
- ▶ those that had wattle or mud houses with a grass thatch;
- ▶ those that did not own a tangible household property or any livestock;
- ▶ those that had food to last only up to July-August every year and
- ▶ did not run any business

Appendix 3 gives district comparisons of the definition and attributes of poverty.

How many are rich/poor?

A self classification (Figure 1) according to whether the household considered itself to be rich or poor showed that in general there were more poor than rich households. Relatively more households in Mwambuli and Mwanjawali communities in Karonga, Yuwa in Phalombe and Bvumbwe in Thyolo considered themselves to be more of intermediate than rich and poor households.

The household self assessment also revealed a smaller proportion of the rich in all the communities. In particular, no household in Mphuka community classified itself as being rich.



Nota:

Thyolo

BV - Bvumbwe

MP - Mphuka

SA - Sandama

Phalombe

YU - Yuwa

PHO - Phodogolo

KA - Kaledzera

Karonga

MW - Mwamtawali

MB - Mwambuli

MWE - Mwenengolongo

Gender and poverty

It has been fashionable in Malawi to associate the issue of single headship of a household with women. However, an issue of single male headship of a household appears to be emerging (Table 1 below).

Table 1: Gender and poverty in the communities

Communities Assessed	Distribution according to headship of a household (%)		
	Headed by married male	Headed by single male	Headed by single woman
Thyolo District			
Bvumbwe	71	4	25
Sandama	73	3	23
Mphuka	75	7	18
Phalombe District			
Yuwa	86	0	13
Kaledzera	79	4	4
Phodogoma	74	1	25
Karonga District			
Mwamtawali	57	4	39
Mwambuli 2	83	7	10
Mwenengolongo	80	3	10

Note: Figure (%) may not add up to 100 due to rounding up

Up to seven percent of the households in the

communities assessed were headed by single males who were either widowed or divorced/separated or had never married before. However, the proportion of households headed by women was very high, reaching up to thirty nine percent in Mwamtawali of Karonga District. This observation is seen to be contrary to expectation. It is generally expected that there are more female headed households in the matrilineal Southern region districts such as Thyolo and Phalombe districts than in the patrilineal Northern region districts such as Karonga.

Appendix 4 gives details of the marital status of the households heads surveyed.

Most research conducted in Malawi show that poverty is a gender issue and is directly related to the sex of a household head. It is female headed households that are likely to be poor (World Bank, 1996). The results from both the focus group discussions and a survey of selected households confirm these findings. Generally more women than men are poor. Men are generally either rich or intermediate.

According to the community assessment, in Bvumbwe community for instance,

- ▶ twenty percent of the population were said to be rich men and no woman was said to be rich.
- ▶ twenty percent and ten percent were men and women respectively who were intermediate.
- ▶ Twenty percent and thirty percent were said to be poor men and women respectively.

On the other hand, in the same Bvumbwe Community, results of self assessment of the households showed that:-

- ▶ Out of the male headed households interviewed, 13% were rich, 47% were intermediate and 40% were poor.
- ▶ Out of the female headed households, 7% were rich, 64% were intermediate and 29% were poor.

The picture in Sandama is however slightly different. Some women were said to be rich. The unique demographic feature of this community is that, at the time of the interviews, there were more women than men. Most men were reported to have left the community in search of employment elsewhere.

Gender and sources of livelihoods

While farming remains a major occupation for both men and women in all the communities, it is evident that more men than women are advantaged because they are engaged in other more lucrative activities. On the contrary, women by tradition conduct home based, less lucrative and petty activities. In all the three districts surveyed, the following were reported to be, major occupations:- farming; formal employment and business. The majority of women depend on farming as the major occupation and source of income. Men dominate in formal employment and businesses. The exception was observed in the Mwamtawali and Mwambuli 2 communities where more women than men were reported to be engaged in businesses.

The focus group discussions confirmed as to what work men do. They were reported to be engaged in work such as construction and brick making or they traveled long distances to seek better employment opportunities. In Thyolo, these employment opportunities exist in the surrounding tea estates while others travel to Blantyre to work in the industries. These opportunities, by the norms of culture, are accessible largely by men. Thus, men are likely to be relatively less poor than women. It is in this view that the introduction of alternative viable opportunities in the communities is likely to ameliorate women's poverty thereby bring about empowerment.

Appendix 5 gives details of major occupation and sources of income.

Differences in levels of education by men and women does reinforce on why poverty is a gender issue in the communities assessed. In the southern districts of Thyolo and Phalombe, it is women who lag behind in terms of education attainment. However, the situation is different in the northern district of Karonga where the proportion of both men and women who can read and write is almost the same (Appendix 6).

New poverty dimension: even communities can be poor

A community was said to be poor if it has limited access to social infrastructure such as health services, poor transport services, schools and water and sanitation services. According to this definition, all three communities in Phalombe qualify to be poor whereas in Thyolo, Mphuka and Sandama could be said to be poor while Bvumbwe is intermediate.

This community perception on which communities are poor seems to advance the notion that provision of water and sanitation services alone can not improve the poverty status of a community. Complimentary services such as health facilities, markets, good roads and schools, telephone and postal services as well as creation of gainful employment are a prerequisites. They should be conceived at the time water and sanitation programmes are being formulated.

4.2 Water and Sanitation Security

Water and sanitation security was assessed in terms of availability of and accessibility to adequate protected water and sanitation facilities by all households in a community and generally found to be poor.

Availability of protected sources of water

In the water and sanitation programmes in Malawi, much emphasis has been on construction of protected water facilities, mainly protected wells, boreholes and gravity fed water schemes (taps). Little progress has been made in terms of provision of good sanitation facilities.

Before the protected facilities were introduced, communities were using water from rivers, shallow wells and other unprotected sources. Water borne diseases such as diarrhoea were very common especially during the rainy season from October to February.

With the programmes, protected water sources were introduced through construction of modern facilities. In the communities assessed, boreholes were the commonest form of protected water except in Mphuka and Mwenengolongo communities where piped water facilities (taps) were introduced. In Kaledzera, both boreholes and taps were introduced.

Functioning systems vs Accessibility

From the assessment (Table 2), it was evident that not all the facilities were functioning. In Mphuka and Yuwa communities, in particular, all the taps and boreholes respectively were sealed off due to frequent breakdowns and lack of repairs and maintenance.

Table 2: Population Coverage of the facilities installed

Communities	Population coverage	Type of water facilities installed	
		Boreholes	Gravity fed (Taps)
Thyolo District			
Bvumbwe	693	7	na
Sandama	27,432	16	na
Mphuka	21,000	na	20**
Phalombe District			
Yuwa	726	11**	na
Kaledzera	793	2	3
Phodogoma	1,466	6	na
Karonga District			
Mwamtawali	DK*	6	na
Mwambuli 2	1,200	3	na
Mwenengolongo	2,000	na	5

Note:

- 1 *na denotes that such facilities are not available in the community*
- 2 *DK denotes that the communities do not know the figures.*
- 3 *** denotes that all the installed facilities are not working*

In this assessment, accessibility to protected water facilities was defined in terms adequacy of facilities, distance to the facilities and waiting time at the water point.

The water facilities installed are generally inadequate for most of the communities, particularly in Sandama and Mphuka where there are over four hundred households in each community. This under provision of the facilities is aggravated by the fact that in some communities

(Mphuka and Yuwa), all the protected water facilities that had been installed were reported to have been sealed off due to frequent breakdowns.

However, if they were functional, the facilities would be readily accessible in terms of distance from a household for over half of the population in a given community since they reported that the facilities were located less than half a kilometer away (Figure 2).

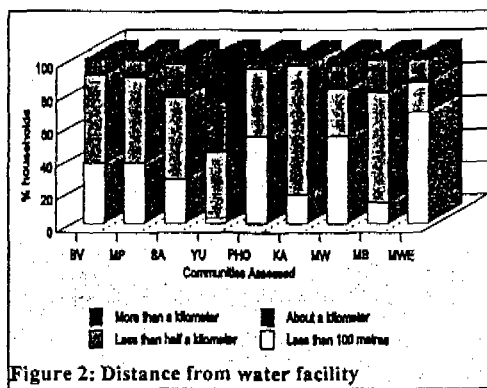


Figure 2: Distance from water facility

The water policy stipulates that a water point should be within five hundred meters from a household.

For households that have been able to utilize the protected water facilities, there were different responses to a question of how much time they had to wait at a water point before drawing water. In the Thyolo communities, households reported within thirty minutes, they would draw the water. In Phalombe, households in Phodogoma and Kaledzera reported that they would draw the water in less than thirty minutes. Households in Yuwa community would wait for an hour or more before they would draw water. In Karonga, almost half the households could draw water within thirty minutes whereas the others reported that they

would wait for an hour or more. However, seventy percent of the households felt that the water (3-6 pails per day) they were drawing per day when the facilities were functional was adequate for their household's use. On average, a household size was assessed to range from seven to nine members (Appendix 7 and 8).

The presence and effective use of the water facilities have had advantages. Before the installation of the water facilities, women were traveling long distances to fetch water. In addition, they had to wait for long hours to draw water from a shallow well. The process of traveling long distance, combined with waiting for too long caused misconception as some husbands especially in Karonga were suspicious that their wives were having affairs.

Effective use of protected water

Effective use is hereby explained in terms of number of households that have regular access to the protected water sources and for what use the water is put.

The assessment showed that generally, there was little utilization of safe water in almost all the communities surveyed. For instance, none of the households surveyed in Mphuka and Sandama and Yuwa reported to be utilizing water from a borehole, a tap or protected shallow wells since the installed facilities were not operational. Consequently, the communities use unsafe sources of water, namely streams/rivers and springs/unprotected shallow wells (Appendix 9a). Hence, they are at risk of outbreak of water borne diseases which this year (October 1998 to February 1999) has been a problem especially in Phalombe and Karonga.

Whether or not from protected sources, there are

no restrictions as to who has access to the facilities and for what use the water is. According to the focus group discussions, where the protected facilities were operational, the water has been used for such purposes as drinking, cooking, washing, bathing and construction. Where water is scarce, effective use would entail limiting use of protected water for human consumption only.

Use by gender and poverty groups

According to the focus group discussions, both the rich and the poor have had same opportunity in terms of access. The water has been used for such purposes such as drinking, cooking, washing, bathing and construction. However, community discussions indicated that the rich used more water because they have had more activities which required use of water and also they have had more water storage facilities. This suggest that it has been the rich who benefitted from the communal water facilities that were installed in the programmes.

In terms of gender, both male headed and female headed households have had equal access to the facilities. However, the introduction of the facilities was reported to have reduced burden of women. Traditionally, drawing water is a woman's job in the communities assessed. Before the protected facilities, women would walk long distances and carry big pails on their heads.

4.3 Demand responsiveness of the programmes

Demand responsiveness in a programme is assessed by the extent to which users participated in key decision making regarding the formulation, management and maintenance of the facilities.

The consultations conducted so far suggests that

the demand for the services never originated from the users. Instead, the project ideas were brought to the communities from outside, mostly by government. The ideas were later relayed to the communities through their traditional or political leaders. These leaders were presumably acting on behalf of the communities. This is typical top-down approach.

The reason for the top down approach had to do with the governance system in place at that time, which did not provide avenues for demand, poverty and gender responsiveness and genuine participation in programmes. Thus, communities had little influence on what type of the technology should be installed, where they should be installed, how and when they should be installed and why such communities should contribute and manage the facilities. It might therefore been very had to provide water facilities that satisfy the needs of a given community. Similarly, it might have been difficult to provide facilities that are worth the value of communities contribution required to sustain the services.

However, new programmes especially in the new millennium are likely to be responsive to the needs of the communities. Participatory development and decentralised governance has been formalised in the 1998 Decentralisation Policy for Malawi. It provides a framework for demand responsive community development. This demand responsiveness includes issues of poverty, gender and participation as being critical issues. Effectively applied, the new framework should properly mainstream these development concerns in water and sanitation programmes.

This assessment shows that participation, though of different nature, has always been there. However, there is no evidence to suggest that the

services were demand and gender responsive and genuine participation. The system of project planning and management at that time did not make deliberate efforts to integrate these aspects.

4.4 Community Participation

History of community participation in Malawi

Whereas gender, poverty and demand responsiveness in community development are relatively new concepts in Malawi, participation in the establishment of the programmes is not new. What is different is the nature of participation that exists today where communities have a choice to participate or not. Before 1992, it was imperative that communities participate, in most cases by providing labour.

The World Bank Participation Source Book 1995 defines participation as a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives and the decisions and resources which affect them. Thus, while researchers such as Kleemeier (1998) paint a rosy picture that the Malawi Piped Water Scheme is a best example of participatory and demand responsive approach, there are doubts as to whether or not there was popular participation in water and sanitation programmes.

What used to happen is that public meetings would be held in the communities with traditional area and political leaders. Communities would agree to provide labour and maintenance. A project committee would be formed among the communities to oversee the facilities. This process has mistakenly taken to imply participation.

Within the framework of participatory development and good governance, participation implies a

situation in which communities and individuals are willing to contribute, in whatever form, towards the services that they consider to be of benefit to them as communities or individuals. Thus, such services are likely to be sustained by the communities themselves without looking out to government, NGOs or donors for assistance. This has not been the case in Malawi. For instance, there has been failure by communities to maintain and repair their own facilities. That is why, according to Malawi Social Indicators Survey (1995), over thirty percent of the water facilities installed under the programme were out of order due to breakdowns. It may ultimately be concluded that the programmes have not built in an aspect of effective community participation. Community participation in issues such as repairs and maintenance could be done timely where a concept of effective, popular and genuine participation existed.

Community contribution towards the services

From the assessment (Appendix 9), most households (over 80%) in the communities contributed either money, labour or materials during construction. The common contribution was labour. Money and materials were contributed mostly by households that were not able to provide labour input.

While the majority of the households surveyed felt that the contributions were voluntary, a significant proportion (about 20%) reported that it was not voluntary. The governance system in place at that time compelled the households, rich or poor; male headed or female headed, to contribute. It is more of those that were said to be intermediate in Thyolo that contributed than the rich and the poor. In Phalombe more rich households than intermediate and poor reported to have made contributions. On the other hand, the proportion of

the rich and the poor that made contributions is almost the same.

Asked whether or not they would contribute towards construction in future programmes, most of the households (over 75%) expressed willingness to contribute either labour, money, materials or a mix. The exception is Mphuka community where only fifty percent expressed willingness. In terms of willingness to contribute towards future construction, almost all groups expressed that they would be willing. The exception was Thyolo where some 20% indicated

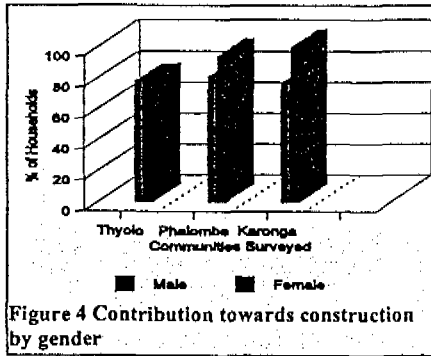


Figure 4 Contribution towards construction by gender

that they would not be willing to participate. May be they have been disappointed with performance of past programmes or they still have the misconception that in the democratic environment, one could choose not to contribute.

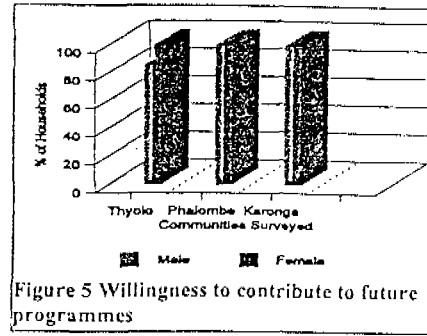


Figure 5 Willingness to contribute to future programmes

From gender perspective, it was generally more women than men who made contributions especially labour towards construction (Figure 4 and Figure 5) and pledged their willingness to contribute in future. The explanation may be because more women than men appreciate the importance of having water facilities within their proximity. Thus, they see the need to contribute since availability of such facilities would reduce their water drawing burdens.

Community role in repairs and maintenance

While there was more community contribution during construction, there has been relatively less involvement in repairs and maintenance. Likewise, more households were willing to contribute towards construction of future facilities and not repairs and maintenance. This attitude explains why the communities were not willing to repair the facilities that reported to be non functional. Thus, it can be concluded that aspect of effective management has been missing in the programmes. This has affected sustainability since most of the facilities were reported to be non functioning.

4.5 Division of labour, responsibilities and benefits

The assessment of division of roles, labour and responsibilities centred around the extent of relative participation by men and women; the rich and the poor, boys and girls in the water and sanitation programmes.

Division of roles and responsibilities

Through the process of scoring, the communities indicated the extent to which men, women, boys and girls were involved. The general pattern was as presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Project Cycle Involvement Scoring- a case of Karonga

Project stages	Relative participation			
	Men	Women	Boys	Girls
Initiation	0	0	0	0
Planning	0	0	0	0
Implementation	6	4	0	0
Maintenance	3	5	1	1

The community was not involved at the initiation and planning stages of the gravity fed scheme and borehole programme. However, at the programme implementation level, records show that the people participated in provision of unskilled labour like trench digging and preparing access roads to the intakes. Whereas skilled labour in surveying, marking and determination of intake site was done by the project staff. The same pattern was observed in Thyolo and Phalombe.

Division of burden during implementation

The findings suggest that both men and women

contributed unskilled labour towards construction. But in terms of repairs and maintenance, it is more men than women who contribute money. The reason could be because relatively more women than men are poor. It is not a question of unwillingness to contribute on the part of women.

Intra-household division of burden

In terms of water collection, it is generally females that were reported to be involved in collecting water. However, all members of the households used the water. Similarly, there was no division in terms of use of facilities such as toilets and bath rooms. All age groups and both sexes were reported to use them equally. However, the role of cleaning those facilities was essentially left to women, youth and children.

4.6 Effective financing

In almost all the communities assessed, there was no evidence to suggest the existence of a well coordinated long-term financing mechanism for the operations and maintenance of the facilities. While user committees were reported to exist, they seemingly did not have legal basis for instituting user fees to finance the facilities. Instead, financing for repairs (operations) and maintenance was done on ad hoc basis where the level of contribution was determined by the cost of spare parts required. The only exception was in Mwambuli 2 community where a well defined maintenance fund was reported to be functional through a Water Point Committee which ensured regular availability of funds repairs and maintenance. This was through user contributions. Thus, no effective financing mechanisms existed in the other communities.

Chapter Five: *The Policy Environment and Institutional Arrangements*

5.1 The Policy environment

As stated in the 1995 Policy Framework for the Poverty Alleviation Programme, the centerpiece of the agenda for the development of Malawi is poverty alleviation. Thus, all other sectoral policies are formulated and implemented within the framework of the poverty alleviation policy. The principles of poverty alleviation programme entail that the poor and most disadvantaged groups, including women, should be empowered to improve their well being thereby playing a vital role in national development.

A key feature of the new development strategy for Malawi is be *people centred*. Such a focus dates back to 1992 when the need for good governance was felt in this country. Thus, responding to the need for promoting community demand responsiveness and participation in programmes, there has been a reorientation of national development policy in November 1993, when government formalized decentralization by establishing the District Development Focus. Consequently, a National Decentralization Policy was drafted and incorporated into the Local Government Bill in 1997 which was enacted in December 1998.

Through the District Focus efforts were made to devolve decision making authority and financial control over development funds to the district level. The objective is to ensure that powers for decision making on development programmes and control of resources for such programmes is vested at district and community levels. Such initiatives would promote demand responsiveness, participation and empowerment.

But in the case of water and sanitation programmes, the mandates have been with parent ministries as already alluded to in Chapter one. Efforts are yet to be made within the decentralization framework to devolve and/ or deconcentrate some decisions and resources to sub national institutions. Thus, it is hoped that the programmes would be sustainable since there is likely to be effective financing, participation and management of the programmes.

5.2 Institutional Arrangements

The implementation of water and sanitation programmes has been top down, from the national level institutions to the grassroots communities. Government, donors and NGOs have financed the programmes wholly. They have used technical staff to install the facilities in the communities. The only contribution from the communities has been in the form of labour.

Politics have surrounded the questions of ownership of the facilities. A household would contribute a piece of land where the facility should be located. Once that is done, that piece of land has been assumed to belong to the community. Hence, the facility too has been considered to be owned by the communities. Community water management committees have been set up to look into issues of repairs and maintenance.

But as discussed earlier, these committees have had no legal basis to enforce community resource mobilization. Neither have they had technical capacity to repair and maintain the facilities. Nor have they had capacity to implement mechanisms for effective use of the water. In other words, the community based committees have not been effective in ensuring sustainability of the facilities.

5.3 The renewed roles and responsibilities: Implications for Water and Sanitation Programmes

Under the decentralized governance framework, district and community based development is being promoted. Relevant support structures and financing mechanisms have been established.

District Development Committee (DDC)

The DDC works as a policy guiding body for the district. It ensures that district projects and programmes are consistent with policy and hence it approves programmes and projects which originate from the community. Membership includes the District Commissioner (DC) who is also the chairperson by default, all Members of Parliament (MP) in the district, representatives from political parties, Chiefs (TA) and the private sector.

District Executive Committee (DEC)

The DEC works as the technical arm of the DDC at the district. Membership is composed of the District Development Officer (DDO) who is chairperson, heads of all governmental departments at district level and Non-Governmental Organization (NGOs). The DEC assists communities to formulate, implement and manage development programmes. DEC appraises the community development plans and make recommendations to DDC for approval.

District Development Fund (DDF)

To support the financing of district and community development, a DDF has been established. Once a community project has been approved by DDC, funds will be allocated. Communities are expected to account for the funds. This DDF is meant to

ensure the effectiveness and sustenance of service delivery to the communities.

Area Development Committees (ADC)

At traditional authority level, there exists the Area Development Committee (ADC) which works just like the DDC at the district level. The Chairperson for the ADC is the Chief who is also a member of DDC. Membership is from all village headmen/women, members of parliament and religious leaders.

Area Executive Committee

This is a technical arm to the ADC. Membership is from field level extension workers from various government ministries and department as well as NGOs. The AEC is meant to recommend projects from the community level to the DEC through the ADC. The chairperson is elected among the extension workers.

Village Development Committee (VDC)

Membership to the VDC includes the Group Village Headman/woman (GVH) who is the Chairperson, all Village Heads and religious leaders. It is at this level that community projects are formulated, implemented and managed.

Water Point Committee (WPC)

The WPC is expected to be responsible for management of the water point. This is done by mobilizing the community to make contributions to finance the operations of the water facility. The WPC decides in consultations with the community how much each member of the community should pay as contributions towards repairs and maintenance. It also decides on the time schedules for drawing water. Membership is through village level elections. The community elects the people to be in the committee.

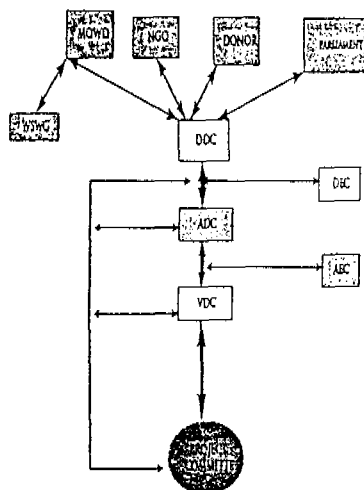
Effectiveness of the structures in managing water and sanitation services

The structures described above existed in the three districts of study especially in Thyolo and Phalombe. However, it is only lower level structures that exist in Karonga. The rest of the structures are yet to be established. It was difficult to assess their effectiveness in managing water and sanitation programmes. There has been minimal role of these institutions in issues of water and sanitation. Instead, government, donors and NGOs have dealt directly with the VDC and the WPC.

And as stated earlier, the water management committees have not been effective in most of the communities surveyed. In particular, issues of poverty and demand responsiveness and gender have not been effectively addressed. For instance, there has been less representation by women in these committees, even in water management committees where they should be expected to influence issues of effective use and sustainability of the water services.

Implications for future programmes

In the planning and management of future water and sanitation programmes, the existing structures should be effectively used. Issues of gender, poverty and demand responsiveness and participation to promote stakeholder participation. In the area of water and sanitation, there is proposal to strengthen the utilization of the existing district and community structures, thereby promoting decentralized development and responsiveness. The framework also places strong emphasis on joint participation and responsibility with communities, government, private sector, NGOs and donors in order to



promote sustainability. The following participation framework is proposed.

Chapter Six: Major conclusions and recommendations

The assessment has revealed the extent to which participation, gender and demand responsiveness have been linked to issues affecting sustainability of community water and sanitation programmes. The assessment also provides lessons and challenges for future programmes. This section is therefore a summary of major findings and recommendations towards improving the planning and management of the programmes.

6.1 Major Conclusions

Community Participation in the programmes

It can be concluded that people at community level are not involved in the planning processes of development projects/programs. Planning process is largely still top-down despite the efforts to promote bottom-up approach. The powers and authority to plan is still concentrated at the central level. Communities as a result still lack spirit to own and manage their projects effectively thereby affecting the sustainability of the projects.

Sustenance and use of services

All the communities lack abilities to manage their WSS facilities effectively because community based structures which facilitate performance of these functions are weak. Poverty also militates against them in managing an effective and efficient maintenance fund. Due to these reasons, most of the water facilities are not functioning. The backup services from Ministry of Water Development are also not adequate. These factors are threatening the sustenance of these facilities.

Poverty and Demand responsiveness

Poverty is widespread and gender based. The majority who are poor in these communities are women whose participation in decision making is very minimal at all levels. It is still uncommon to see women entrusted with big responsibility of decision making yet women are main users of WSS facilities. Further, it is evident from the communities that WSS Programs existing in their communities were not established through demand responsive approach. They lack basic skills to organize themselves and put forward requests for WSS facilities from donors.

Gender and division of labour

It is very clear from this study that the sharing of roles and responsibilities in the implementation and management of WSS projects is gender based with women performing more arduous tasks such as collection of water for household use and management of water points.

Institutional Framework

Although decentralized institutional framework exists to promote participation, gender and demand responsiveness, there is lack of coordination and collaboration to holistically advance these issues effectively. These institutions also lack capacity in terms of financial and human resources. It is urgent that institutional capacity building should take precedence.

Support policy environment

The policy environment exist to support the promotion of gender, demand responsiveness, water and sanitation issues. However these policies have short falls. For instance, the water and sanitation policy has not mainstreamed gender issues while the gender policy does not adequately engender water and sanitation issues.

6.2 Recommendations

1. The programme should retrofit the health education and sanitation (HESP) component to the water programme. The component should intensify information, education and communication for the beneficiaries. Adequate care should be given to traditional sources of water like rivers and unprotected shallow wells because people still use them even if they have protected sources. The community should be given civic education regarding project ownership and their roles and responsibility.
2. In view of inadequate supervision by the Ministry of Water Development as a lead Ministry in the water sector, capacity be strengthened at all levels to provide adequate supervision to all WSS programs. In addition, the Ministry should strengthen its monitoring system to provide relevant. Supervisory visits to monitor the implementation of the programme be regular and the extension workers responsible for the areas should be given support to enable them to be more mobile and innovative in their work.
3. In line with the observation that most of WSS projects were not conceived by the communities and thus sustainability has been affected since people view such projects as just hand outs and do not in most cases want to dispense their stake in these project, community members should be involved in all stages of the project to ensure ownership and sustainability. The Village Development Committee should be the entry point to the community.
4. Community training is crucial to management of the facilities. This is so especially for community based committees charged with responsibilities of implementation. These committees need to be equipped with relevant skills. Thus, the main water committees should be trained. Some of the issues that could be covered in the training should be :-
 - ▶ maintenance and repairs
 - ▶ management of the water and sanitation programme
 - ▶ leadership skills
 - ▶ gender and development
 - ▶ committee procedures.
5. The analysis on the community contribution shows that cash generating opportunities are dwindling with harsh economic environment the country is facing at the moment. To make effective cash contributions to community projects, there is need to link up with income generating activities. This would provide an incentive to people to be contributing to community projects.
6. It is also recommended that the programming process should mainstream issues of gender, participation and demand responsiveness. A special assessment should be conducted to identify how best this could be done. The output should include development of guidelines and indicators for mainstreaming gender, participation and demand responsiveness in the water and sanitation programmes in Malawi.

7. Finally, not much success should be expected in the area of mainstreaming gender, participation, demand and poverty responsiveness in the programmes unless appropriate conducive policy environment exists. The Ministry of Water Development should re-look at its policies and strategies in these issues.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Key socio economic indicators for selected Sub Saharan African Countries, 1998

Indicator	Malawi	Zambia	Mozambique	Tanzania	Zimbabwe
Estimated population (millions), 1995	9.7	8.1	17.3	30.0	11.2
Annual Population Growth (%), 1970-95	3.1	2.7	2.5	3.2	3.1
Real GDP per capita (PPP\$), 1995	773	986	959	636	2,135
Life expectancy at birth (Years), 1995	41.0	42.7	46.3	50.6	48.9
Adult literacy rate (%), 1995	56.4	78.2	40.1	67.8	85.1
Human Development Index (HDI) value, 1995	0.334	0.378	0.281	0.358	0.507
Gender Development Index (GDI) value, 1995	0.325	0.372	0.264	0.354	0.497
Gender Empowerment value, 1995	0.256	0.304	0.430	n.a	0.428
Human Poverty Index Value (%), 1995	47.7	36.9	48.5	39.8	25.2
% Population below income poverty line of \$1 a day, 1980-94	42.1	84.6	N.a	16.4	41.0
% Population without access to health services, 1990-95	65	25	61	58	15
% Population without access to safe water, 1990-96	63	73	37	62	21
% Population without access to sanitation, 1990-96	94	36	46	14	48

Source: Human Development Report 1998

Appendix 2: District Comparisons of definition and attributes of poverty

Comparative District Indicators	Definition and attributes of poverty		
	Rich	Intermediate	Poor
Thyolo District			
Quality and type of house	Burnt bricks with iron roof	Unburnt bricks with grass thatched roof	Wattle or mud walled with grass thatched roof
Main Assets owned	Car; Ox wagon; Double deck hi-fi system	Motorcycle; Bicycle; Single deck hi-fi system	No tangible assets
Livestock owned	Cattle; goats poultry	Fewer goats and poultry	No livestock owned
Food security and type of food	Enough food throughout the year; Always takes tea with milk; Usually have meat/fish/vegs in the diet	Enough food to last up to February; Usually takes tea without milk. Occasionally have meat/fish/eggs in the diet	Food last around August every year; Rarely take tea and meat/fish/eggs
Business	Run viable business throughout the year	Run seasonal business	Do not run any business; No capital and cannot access credit
Phalombe District			
Quality and type of house	Burnt brick walled, iron roofed	Unburnt brick wall, thatched	Grass/mud wall and thatched
Main Assets owned	Car; Motorcycle; Bicycle	Bicycle; Some small furniture	None
Livestock owned	Cattle; Goats; Poultry	Fewer goats; Poultry	None
Food security (availability of maize)	Adequate maize for food throughout the year; Can sell some	Maize to last up to August or September	Maize consumed while in the garden and does not harvest. Survive on hired labour; Near landlessness
Business or income generating capacity	Viable throughout the year. Has a grocery	Seasonal business	Cannot afford credit; No collateral; Depend on casual labour
Use of fertilizer	Able to buy adequate and use it in the field	Able to buy some fertilizer	Cannot afford fertilizer.
Participation in development activities	Low	Medium, attends community meetings	High, Attends community meetings.
Access to water and sanitation facilities	Boreholes; Unprotected shallow wells; streams, toilet bathroom, drying rack and rubbish pit	Boreholes, springs, streams, toilet, bathroom, drying rack and rubbish pit	Borehole, springs, streams.
Karonga District			
Type of house	Iron sheet with cement floor burnt brick.	Burnt or unburnt bricks with no thatch and doors	Bamboo reeds or grass built with grass thatch
Livestock	Cattle (including oxen, pigs)	Some poultry, pigs	Some poultry
Food security and type of food	Enough food to reach next season	Enough food to last up to November; Relies on ganyu/barter	Food last up to July/ August; Survives on ganyu/barter
Household assets	Plough, oxen, radio, bicycle viable business	Bicycle, small radio	negligible
Major water sources	River; Taps; Unprotected shallow wells	River; Taps; Unprotected shallow wells	River; Taps; Unprotected shallow wells
Sanitation	No permanent toilets	No permanent toilets	No permanent toilets

Appendix 3: Distribution of poverty groups by sex (%)

Communities assessed	Poverty Classification by sex (%)					
	Rich		Intermediate		Poor	
	MEN	WOMEN	MEN	WOMEN	MEN	WOMEN
According to Community Classification:						
Thyolo District						
Bvumbwe	20	0	20	10	20	30
Sandama	0	3	5	5	45	42
Mphuka	10		0		90	
Phalombe District						
Yuwa	0		20		80	
Kaledzera	15		30		55	
Phodogoma	5	0	7	3	35	50
Karonga District						
Mwamtawali	20	5	22	28	12	12
Mwambuli 2	10	0	10	10		
Mwenengolongo	3	0	7	3	60	27
Distribution of the respondents interviewed**						
Thyolo District						
Bvumbwe	7	3	24	31	21	14
Sandama	3	3	24	10	45	14
Mphuka	0	0	16	4	64	16
Phalombe District						
Yuwa	7	0	46	7	32	7
Kaledzera	3	3	41	7	21	24
Phodogoma	0	4	18	4	61	14
Karonga District						
Mwamtawali	11	0	25	21	18	25
Mwambuli 2	3	7	72	3	14	0
Mwenengolongo	9	0	53	6	19	13

** This classification is according to the sample of households interviewed and does not represent community classification. More men than women were interviewed.

Appendix 4: Marital status of the heads of households surveyed.

Communities Assessed	Marital status of the respondents surveyed (%)							
	Married		Widowed		Divorced/Separated		Never married before	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Thyolo District								
Bvumbwe	56	15	0	19	4	17	0	0
Sandama	70	3	0	10	3	13	0	0
Mphuka	75	0	4	7	0	11	4	0
Phalombe District								
Yuwa	83	3	0	3	0	10	0	0
Kaledzera	75	4	4	11	0	7	0	0
Phodogoma	67	0	0	20	0	13	0	0
Karonga District								
Mwamtawali	50	7	4	36	0	4	0	0
Mwambuli 2	80	3	0	3	0	3	7	3
Mwenengolongo	77	3	6	6	3	3	0	0

Note : Figure (%) may not add up to 100 due to rounding up.

Appendix 5 : Categorization of the households surveyed according to major occupation (%)

Communities Assessed	Classification of households according to major occupation (%)					
	Farming		Formal Employment		Business	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Thyolo District						
Bvumbwe	63	77	13	8	6	3
Sandama	86	37	0	0	9	38
Mphuka	70	80	4	4	26	20
Phalombe District						
Yuwa	88	100	4	0	8	0
Kaledzera	86	83	4	0	0	17
Phodogoma	74	56	5	0	5	33
Karonga District						
Mwamtawali	43	25	14	0	43	68
Mwambuli 2	60	0	5	25	35	75
Mwenengolongo	89	75	0	0	12	25

Note on table interpretation

Out of the men interviewed in Bvumbwe, 63% depended on farming, 13% depended on formal employment and 6% depended on business. The corresponding figures for the women interviewed are 77%, 8% and 3% respectively.

Appendix 6: Highest education attained by the heads of the households surveyed.

Communities Assessed	Level of education attained (%)									
	None		Adult literacy classes		Up to standard 5		Up to standard 8		Secondary level	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Thyolo District										
Bvumbwe	6	14	6	0	69	36	19	43	0	7
Sandama	18	37	5	13	46	38	27	13	5	0
Mphuka	43	60	39	0	13	0	0	0	0	0
Phalombe District										
Yuwa	17	60	13	0	50	20	21	20	0	0
Kaledzera	41	50	0	17	36	17	23	0	16	4
Phodogoma	11	60	53	20	37	20	0	0	0	0
Karonga District										
Mwamtawali	0	0	0	0	7	23	60	62	33	15
Mwambuli 2	4	0	0	0	27	9	46	75	23	25
Mwenengolongo	26	25	7	0	11	0	30	75	22	0

Appendix 7: Waiting at a water point by households

Indicator of accessibility and adequacy of water supply	Thyolo			Phalombe			Karonga		
	Bvumbwe	Mphuka	Sandama	Yuwa	Phodogoma	Kaledzera	Mwamtawali	Mwambuli 2	Mwenengolongo
Households according to waiting time at water point (%)									
No waiting	70	64	80	7	77	57	30	17	48
Less than 30 minutes	20	18	20	10	20	25	26	43	16
About an hour	7	19	0	27	3	18	30	37	19
More than one hour	3	0	0	57	0	0	15	3	16
Average number of pails drawn per day (Number)	4.9	3.9	4.0	3.1	4.2	3.3	6.8	4.5	4.6
Households that felt the water drawn per day was adequate (%)	90	93	97	67	87	96	89	76	77

Appendix 8: Average household size by age groups

Community	Average household size	Male Adults	Female Adults	Male Youth	Female Youth	Male Children	Female Children
THYOLO							
Bvumbwe	8	1.35	1.37	2.0	1.85	1.6	1.94
Mphuka	7	1.0	1.16	2.0	1.25	1.13	1.30
Sandama	8	1.05	1.04	1.85	1.71	1.55	2.0
PHALOMBE							
Yuwa	7	1.2	1.09	1.75	1.4	1.95	1.64
Phodogoma	9	1.0	1.17	1.83	2.0	2.5	2.25
Kaledzera	8	1.0	1.0	1.6	3.0	1.73	1.58
KARONGA							
Mwamtawali	7	1.4	1.68	1.37	1.33	1.69	1.69
Mwambuli	6	1.24	1.05	1.33	1.54	1.17	1.4
Mwenengolongongo	8	1.04	1.28	2.25	1.18	1.94	1.94

Appendix 9a: Distribution of Households by sources of water in the communities, numbers

Major sources of water	Thyolo			Phalombe			Karonga		
	Bvumbwe	Mphuka	Sandama	Yuwa	Phodogoma	Kaledzera	Mwamtawali	Mwambuli 2	Mwenengolongo
Borehole only	8	0	0	9	4	0	13	30	0
Unprotected shallow well	0	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Borehole and unprotected shallow well	6	0	5	1	13	0	0	0	0
Borehole and protected shallow well	0	0	0	9	0	0	0	0	0
Unprotected shallow well and taps	0	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	10
River	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Borehole and river	5	0	16	6	9	0	0	0	0
Borehole and taps	0	0	0	0	0	24	8	0	0
Unprotected shallow well and river	1	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Unprotected shallow well, river, borehole	7	0	9	4	2	0	0	0	0
Taps, Unprotected shallow well, river	1	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	8
Unprotected shallow well, river	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
River, taps	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4

Appendix 9a: Distribution of Households by major source of drinking, numbers

Major sources of water	Thyolo			Phalombe			Karonga		
	Bvumbwe	Mphuka	Sandama	Yuwa	Phodogoma	Kaledzera	Mwamtawali	Mwambuli 2	Mwenengolongo
Borehole	27	0	24	30	25	11	21	30	0
Unprotected shallow well	2	25	2	0	4	1	0	0	19
Protected shallow well	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Tap	0	3	0	0	0	5	7	0	5
River	1	0	3	0	1	11	0	0	5

Appendix 10: Households' contributions towards construction

Contribution towards construction	Thyolo			Phalombe			Karonga		
	Bvumbwe	Mphuka	Sandama	Yuwa	Phodogoma	Kaledzera	Mwamtawali	Mwambuli 2	Mwenengolongo
Households that contributed towards construction (%)	82	86	70	86	85	81	88	79	78
Type of contribution									
Unskilled labour	73	95	74	76	54	76	81	88	79
Money	5	0	0	16	0	0	0	4	0
Households that felt the contributions were voluntary	88	87	90	96	71	100	87	100	83
Households willing to contribute towards construction of future facilities	100	50	89	100	100	100	100	100	100
Nature of contribution households willing to make									
Money	0	100	13	0	14	50	25	50	0
Materials	0	0	13	25	6	0	0	0	0
Labour	0	0	25		0	33	0	0	13
Money and labour	63	0	0	0	14	0	0	0	25
Money, labour, materials	37	0	49	75	72	12	75	50	62

Appendix 11: Willingness of households to contribute towards maintenance and repairs

Extent and willingness to contribute towards	Thyolo	Phalombe	Karonga
% of Households that reported to be contributing	61	81	91
Male headed households	62	79	89
Female headed households	58	88	100
Rich	60	60	75
Intermediate	70	82	95
Poor	51	81	83
Nature of contribution by households (%)			
Those that provided Labour	47	11	4
Those that contributed Money	47	88	89
% Households willing to contribute in repairs and maintenance in future	93	100	90
Rich households	100	100	0
Intermediate households	100	100	100
Poor households	88	100	100
Male headed households	88	79	90
Female headed households	100	88	0

Appendix 12: Assessment Team

The team that conducted the assessment was composed of key personnel in addition to twelve research assistants that were recruited to assist with data collection and three Clerks who assisted with data entry.

Dyton Maliro is an Economist and Gender Expert. He is a Lecturer in Rural development at Bunda College of Agriculture of the University of Malawi.

Robson Chakwana is a Social Economist. He is a Senior Planning Officer in the Ministry of Women, Youth and community Services.

Novice Bamusi is an Economist. He works as a Development Planner in the Ministry of Women, Youth and community Services.

Alice Naphiyo is a Gender Expert who works as a Community Development Specialist in the Ministry of Women, Youth and community Services.

Bright Sibale is a Gender Coordinator in the Ministry of Women, Youth and community Services.