

GEMSA AWARENESS RAISING WORKSHOP



Funded by the Royal Netherlands Embassy.



Workshop Programme

Session 1: The concept of Gender and Gender Mainstreaming

Session 2: Gender and sustainability of projects.

Session 3: How to implement Gender approaches and Gender Mainstreaming in your own work

All sessions should start with a discussion on experiences of - or on what – participants know about the topic.

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday
08:30	<p>Participants and facilitators introduce themselves and talk about their experiences with gender in the family and in their work.</p> <p>Method: can be a poster presentation where they will draw both: experiences with gender in the family and in the work. When the posters are ready, they present theirs to the others, and this is the moment when discussions will arise. Give time for each presentation.</p>	<p>Gender and the sustainability of projects programmes</p> <p>Facilitator introduces cases where gender was taken into consideration and the project was a success or vice-versa. See handouts</p> <p>As a conclusion: the link between taking the needs of men and women, their participation in decision making, etc into consideration in projects should be made clear. Think in the case of South Africa WATER sector</p>	<p>Applying tools in the field – communities and organisations</p> <p>Action Plan to mainstream gender in your own work.</p>
Break			
11:00	<p>Concept of gender: the gender quiz</p> <p>Discussions on the gender and equity</p>	<p>Gender mainstreaming and the effectiveness of organisations:</p> <p>Discuss a bit also on the progress that</p>	

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	<p>issues raised during the gender quiz. This is when the facilitator will write the main issues which came out of the gender quiz. Participants raise the issues and facilitator writes them on flip-chart.</p> <p>They the concept of gender is constructed with the participants: Gender refers to men and women, It is a social concept (it refers to men and women role in society – relate it to the water sector)</p> <p>Because of their different roles, men and women have different needs which can be practical and strategic needs. A gender approach takes both into consideration Gender relations change in time Gender involves also other main differences between men and women: social position, economic situation, ethnic groups, age groups, disabled – no/disabled, etc.</p>	<p>may occur when gender is taken into consideration at organisation level. There is one case in Nepal where a woman engineer, co-ordinating a project, was not taken serious by the male technicians who worked under her supervision. When she complained to her boss, he also did not take her seriously! The project almost</p> <p>Failed. She had to struggle a lot, much more than a male engineer would. This is not good for men or for women. Men should see the benefit in having an equitable division of work and burden between men and women. See handouts for this session</p>	
Lunch			
14:00	Concept of gender mainstreaming:	Tools – to be applied at community	

	<p>Facilitator Deirdre? Here go to what gender mainstreaming means. Also the evolution of 'gender' in project focus: only men, then only women, now gender. Refer to the article: setting the stage by Christine and Jennifer. Present the evolution in overhead sheets.</p>	<p>and organisation level. This would be an introduction to the tools This could be a presentation on why we use tools? A learning process for all which can lead to immediate action to overcome difficulties. Tools can be used in all phases of the project cycle and also in the organisation. After the introduction and some discussion, present some tools. Even if the participants are not going to use the tools themselves, raise their awareness for the importance of the use of tools will reflect positively on budgeting for the use of tools as this means more time and dedication of staff at local levels to implement projects. PHAST: men's and women's roles and responsibilities You could choose other tools you find appropriate to this group of participants</p>	
Break			
16:00	Film: Participants could be shown a	Continuation?	Individual points for action –

	<p>video on gender awareness: GARSA promotional material</p>		<p>each participant will write down points for action, meaning they will write what actions (5 or 6 points) they will take up in order to introduce what they 'learned' during this workshop. They should write down actions that have to do with their work, gender mainstreaming and which they can really implement.</p>
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Introductory Note

The concept of gender and how it is shaped¹.

Women are managers of water in their homes. They decide how to obtain water, carry it, use and distribute it. They pay for water. Water vendors in the periphery of the urban areas target them. While men need water for agriculture purposes, for a business or a restaurant or a bar, domestic water is commonly considered a woman's domain. In the homes, men's responsibility vis-à-vis water falls more in the construction of facilities, although construction work by women is not uncommon, especially among female heads of household. Even when women are not directly involved in construction work, their decision in design, planning and operation of water and sanitation facilities is recognised as a factor of durability of the systems in the communities.

A *gender* approach takes both interests and needs into consideration: women's and men's. Experience has shown that when only women's or only men's perspectives are considered in project planning, implementation and evaluation, levels of systems' effectiveness are lower. A gender approach identifies the social or cultural relationships between women and men and takes them into account when planning interventions. Gender, therefore, refers not to women or men alone, but to the relationship between them, and how that relationship affects the division of work and resources and the benefits they receive. Gender refers to the socio-culturally defined roles of men and women in their particular society, to the ways they interact in these roles and to the changes occurring in these roles and interactions. Gender also recognises that not all men or all women are the same. Age, religion and socio-economic class also influence men's and women's place, work and potentials. Since gender is socially determined, it is acquired and can be changed. Gender is a dynamic concept: it changes as a result of modernisation, education, and political and economic development. (Kurup et al., 1996; Botswana Ministry of Education, 1994a; World Bank 1995; Moser, 1989; Moser, 1993; Bruyn, 1995).

Gender relationships are shaped mainly in the homes, the schools, by the media and in the labour market (Botswana Ministry of Education, 1994a; Bruyn, 1995), creating gender stereotypes which often determines a disadvantageous position for the women. Education and training are present at all these levels, in one way or another.

Gender differences and attitudes begin in the home where girls are naturally guided to perform domestic roles, like their mothers. Here boys and girls acquire their first ideas of men's and women's roles, tasks and responsibilities. In rural areas girls are more inclined to fetch water and firewood, cook, wash, clean while boys work in the fields or take care of the cattle. Boys will only perform 'girls'-tasks' when they do not have other productive

¹ Text based on: *Gender in Education and Training for Water Supply and Sanitation: a Literature Review* by Maria Lucia Borba, IRC report, 1997

tasks (van Wijk, 1985). In some societies, it is not appropriate for girls to leave their homes to attend school (Bakhteari and Wegelin-Schuringa, 1992). However, this traditional structure begins to change with the increasing number of women dedicated to paid work outside their homes and of female headed household (Botswana Ministry of Education, 1994a).

Schools also play a major role in shaping or changing gender attitudes. Boys are encouraged by their teachers to undertake more scientific subjects and girls to dedicate themselves to the more 'feminine' social issues. Due to teachers' encouragement, roles played in schools, gender-biased school books and material and the expectations of boys and girls themselves, boys generally perform better in science issues than girls, who will not try harder (Botswana Ministry of Education, 1994a). Gender stereotyping contributes to the lower performance of both boys and girls in subjects which are considered appropriate for the other sex (Duncan, 1989). It also accounts for their lack of stimulation to go on to secondary and higher levels of education (Mazingira Institute, 1995). Teachers in schools can have an important role in influencing, strengthening or changing the attitudes held by students and their parents towards gender issues (Botswana Ministry of Education, 1994a; Duncan, 1989; Skonick et al., 1982).

In the labour market, gender refers to the relationship of inequality between women and men in their different opportunities and performance.

These inequalities are reinforced by traditional stereotyped attitudes, expected roles of women and men in society, discriminatory legislation and development policies. A prominent example is the gender imbalance between women and men in scientific and technical fields or sectors, such as the water sector (Botswana Ministry of Education, 1994a:4).

Women generally combine productive activities inside the house with community activities and income-generating activities in the labour market. But because the income earning activities outside the house are the ones most valued in a male dominant society, the reproductive and the community roles of women are not recognised as *work* and therefore the value of women's contribution is ignored (Moser, 1989). The unpaid work by women does not count as part of the GNP of a country and its value is underestimated (Blades, quoted in van Wijk, 1985:17). If water collection and waste recycling, tasks generally carried out by women, were to be replaced by paid work, they would be considered activities of high labour cost (MacPherson and Jackson, quoted in van Wijk, 1985:17). Often, micro-economic studies find that women work longer hours than men, especially when they combine reproductive with labour market activities (World Bank, 1995).

Due to their different roles, tasks and responsibilities, men and women have different needs, and because of their different positions in the household and in society in general, men and women have different access to and control over resources. A 'gender approach' takes into account these differences. It reveals where the position of women is lower than

that of men, in the sense that, although women are doing most of the work inside the household and also participate in productive work in the field, they hold a disadvantageous position vis-à-vis the men in decision-making, workload and participation in benefits. This reflects a lack of gender equity (Moser, 1993).

A gender approach implies that projects help ameliorate the position of those who are subjugated to the other sex, and that the needs and opinions of both men and women are taken into account. The aim is to contribute to the efficiency of the projects as well as to broader development, where both men and women have a more equal place.

Although in the current literature the 'word' gender is used many times, quite often the 'concept' of gender is being neglected. In fact, many programmes focus on 'women', their contribution, their work, their training, their participation at the various levels, their access to services, to resources, and not on *women in relationship to men*. A true 'gender approach' takes men *and* women in consideration to ensure that both can take part equally in project work and decisions and share equally in project benefits.

In the water supply and sanitation sector, the differences in needs, tasks and responsibilities of men and women appear quite clearly. Regarding hygiene and sanitation, women value privacy and security, they take care of cleaning, teach youngsters how to use the facilities and use the facilities themselves. Men value status, privacy and security for their wives and daughters, the rise in property value; they take financing decisions and carry out certain construction tasks and maintenance. This is confirmed by recent research in Kerala, India, where the demand for improvement of latrines was found to be highest among women, for several gender-specific reasons: men can 'go out' at any time whereas women have to wait for darkness and therefore have to control their diet; when women are ill, they cannot go far away; men are more worried about the privacy of their wives; men are basically concerned with the technological aspect of the facilities; women worry about diseases in the homes (Kurup et al., 1996)

Several other studies also report differences in demand for improved sanitary facilities among women and men. A gender approach in sanitation and hygiene recognises that men have different tasks and motivations and need different channels to reach them (van Wijk, 1993). The same applies to water supply: effective projects involve both women and men and do not exclude nor disadvantage either party (van Wijk, 1998).

There is also some evidence that new roles played by men and women in the sector are breaking through gender stereotypes. With the increasing participation of women in income generating activities, men are called upon to play new domestic roles. From being the only provider of income, men start to be faced with a situation where taking care of children is becoming also part of their role as fathers and, although much less than women, they also become more involved in hygiene and caring activities, waste disposal and collection, and cleaning of the environment. This is happening mainly in urban areas and in societies which have attained a higher level of education (Moser, 1996).

At community level increasingly both women and men participate in water management committees, one of the reasons being the need to get support from and represent the interests of all users groups (Niger - Ministère de l'Hydraulique et de l'Environnement, 1991). Special participatory techniques and training programmes enhance that those selected can really influence service level and management set up. Women have been trained in leadership skills, financial matters, confidence building and communication with those they represent. A gender approach can also be discerned in the setting-up of the committees: while men tend to be chairperson, women are the treasurers. Reasons appear to be women's greater reliability and cultural acceptance of home visits when husbands are away. In Niger, the government adopted a strategy of appointing female treasurers due to problems in the financial management by male water committees and the satisfactory way in which female treasurers managed funds.

In technical tasks breakthroughs also occur, both at household and neighbourhood level. Traditionally, projects have made men responsible for the construction and maintenance of household water and sanitation facilities, receiving training accordingly, while women were involved in hygiene education and other social training. An increasing number of projects now also train women for construction of wells and latrines and as mechanics and caretakers for the maintenance of hand-pump wells. The ideal is that both men and women share tasks in what their physical constitution permits and that the weaker in physical strength are not overburdened with heavy physical tasks. In a project in Guinea-Bissau, women were overburdened with the heavy physical task of salt production without any direct income for them. They would have preferred to dedicate themselves only to administrating the hostel where salt traders would stay during their visit to the community for buying salt, and leave the heavy task of salt production to men.

Mainstreaming gender at all levels: community, organisations and policy-making

Gender approaches should not be the subject of projects planning, implementation and evaluation only. Integrating gender approaches at community level will greatly benefit from the integration of gender considerations at organisations and the policy making levels.

Policies should be designed and existing policies should be examined from a gender perspective. Policies should be examined in their effect for the lives of men and women, the rich and the poor. When policies will have an adverse effect on poor women's or poor men's access to natural resources, knowledge, social status, for example, these should be rectified to ensure joint ownership of these benefits. Gender mainstreaming in the water supply and sanitation sector also ensures a positive discrimination in favour of those who have been marginalised or discriminated in laws and regulations, in making themselves heard and having a voice in decision making at all levels.

References for further reading:

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Bruyn, Maria de (1995) 'A gender-based approach to advancing women's social status and position'. In: The Royal Tropical Institute (1995). *Advancing women's status : Gender, society & development, women and men together?* Amsterdam, The Netherlands, KIT. Pp. 11-20

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GEMSA

Gender Mainstreaming in South Africa

The concept of gender and gender mainstreaming

Subject title : The concept of gender and gender mainstreaming

Type of session : Interactive presentations, question/answer and discussion in plenary

Outcomes – on completion of this Unit, participants will have

- known each other and facilitators and understood about GEMSA and GARSA
- Demonstrated an understanding of the concept of gender, especially related to water supply, sanitation and hygiene
- Demonstrated an understanding of differences in perception among participants and among men and women
- Demonstrated an understanding of the evolution of the concept of gender
- Demonstrated understanding of gender mainstreaming in their organisations
- Demonstrated an understanding of the concept of gender mainstreaming

Assessment criteria:

- the concept of gender is explained
- equity issues are integrated in the definition of gender
- the difference between WID and GAD is explained
- Gender mainstreaming is explained

After a short welcome speech by the course facilitators and participants will introduce themselves using cards. Facilitators will give a brief presentation on GEMSA and GARSA, allowing questions and discussions

In order to come to a common understanding and agreement on the concept of gender and equity, its terminology will be discussed; working definitions of a number of terms will be identified. Experiences of participants about gender in the family and in the working environment will be discussed.

Hand-outs: Overhead sheets for the gender quiz
 Gender and Gender Mainstreaming Concepts, by Christine van
 Wijk, IRC, 3 April 2001
 Overhead sheet on gender mainstreaming definition
 Text on Gender mainstreaming indicators at
 Organisational and policy level

HAND-OUT: SESSION 1**In a rural community / village**

Who usually take formal decisions in the community?	F	M	F&M
Who has most contacts outside village?	F	M	F&M
In the household who earns more money?	F	M	F&M
In the household who makes decisions on big expenses?	F	M	F&M
Who owns means of transport?	F	M	F&M
Who fetches water for domestic use?	F	M	F&M
Who does most work in the household (cleaning, cooking)	F	M	F&M
Who educates children?	F	M	F&M

When planning and implementing water and sanitation projects in the village

Who has initial contact with outside field worker?	F	M	F&M
In the household who attends most meetings	F	M	F&M
In village committee's (PSC) who usually speak most	F	M	F&M
In village committee's (PSC) who has the important roles	F	M	F&M
Who receives more training?	F	M	F&M
Who attends hygiene education sessions?	F	M	F&M
Who takes care (cleaning, maintenance) of toilets?	F	M	F&M

In organisations providing support to communities on water and sanitation

The director of my organization is	F	M	F&M
Most senior positions are held by ?	F	M	F&M
In my organization most engineers (hardware) are	F	M	F&M
In my organization most ISD officers (software) are	F	M	F&M
In my organization most secretaries are	F	M	F&M
In my organization the ones with highest salaries are	F	M	F&M

Political decision making

The minister responsible for water and sanitation services is	F	M	F&M
Most provincial parliament members are	F	M	F&M
Most of the councillors in my district are	F	M	F&M
The village council consists mainly of	F	M	F&M

HAND-OUT SESSION 1

Gender and Gender Mainstreaming Concepts

Christine van Wijk, IRC

3 April 2001

'**Gender**' is a term coined in the 1990's to refer to *those differences between women and men, which are socially constructed*, in contrast to the physical and biological distinctions between them.

Gender relations are the 'socially, culturally and economically determined relations between men and women that vary according to phenomena such as age, kinship affiliation, ethnic group, religion, cast and social class' (Howard-Borjas, Patricia L., 2001. Gender relations in local plant genetic resource management and conservation. in Encyclopedia of life support systems (EOLSS). Paris, UNESCO, forthcoming, p. 1).

Gender Mainstreaming is the process of accessing the implications *for women and men* of any planned action, including *legislation, policies and programmes* in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an *integral dimension* of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of *policies and programmes* in all political, economic and societal spheres, so that women and men *benefit equally* and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve *gender equality* (ECOSOC, 1997, emphasis added).

Gender equality: women and men having the *same rights or status* (Hannan, Carolyn, 2000. Promoting equality between women and men in bilateral development cooperation. Concepts, goals, rationales and institutional arrangements. Part One. Theory, practice and priorities for change. Lund, Sweden, Lund University, Dept. of Social and Economic Geography, emphasis added).

Gender equity. Equity is the "the quality of being fair and reasonable in a way that gives *equal treatment to everyone*" (Collins Cobuild English Dictionary, pp. 558. HarperCollins Publishers, 1995). Gender equity is the process of being fair to women and men. To ensure fairness, measures must often be available to compensate for historical and social disadvantages that prevent women and men from otherwise operating at the same level. *Equity leads to equality.* (Gender-Based Analysis: A guide for policy-making, Status of Women Canada, 1996, emphasis added).

In the *water sector*, a gender and equity approach *at field level* strives for a more balanced division between women and men in the following areas, with equity achieved irrespective of age, wealth, ethnicity, caste and religion:



- ◆ the access to information
- ◆ the amount of physical work
- ◆ the division of contributions in time and cash
- ◆ the degree of decision making
- ◆ the access to resources and benefits
- ◆ the control over these resources and benefits

Within *implementation and sector support organisations*, a gender and equity approach strives for a balanced mix of women and men in implementation and support functions and greater equity in working conditions, opportunities and organisational influence and control. (IRC, 2000, Gender and equity policy paper)

Women's development programmes, integration and mainstreaming. When development policy makers and workers first 'discovered' the developmental roles of women, they viewed them exclusively in their roles as *mothers and housekeepers*. The resulting '*welfare projects*' for women aimed at making them

better housekeepers and mothers through classes in home economics, nutrition and hygiene and by improving mother and childcare. Because the economic value of the projects was considered low, they had a low priority and were underresourced.

The *welfare* approach evolved into the *efficiency* and *anti-poverty* approach under the forces of neo-liberalism. Neoliberalism wanted to recover Third World debts from loans that the first world had so freely provided (Kabeer, Naila, 1994. *Reversed Realities: Gender Hierarchies in Development Thought*, London/New York, Verso). The free market economy was seen as the most efficient route to economic and social development for all. At that time, women had just been discovered to be underutilized producers (Boserup, Ester, 1970. *Women's role in economic development*. London, Allen and Unwin). After education and training, these women might earn an income and help pay the debts through their contribution to national productivity.

At the time of the Women in Development approach, a hot debate emerged on what was best: *separate* development projects for women to meet women's special needs and interests, or *integrate* women into planning and decision making of general development projects, so that these projects would meet women's needs better and become more cost-effective by utilizing women's resources as well as men's. **Integration** meant that women took part in all project activities: planning, design, implementation, maintenance, management, and evaluation. Gradually it became clear that **integrating women** often meant that women bore as great or a *greater burden* than men, yet men benefited as much or more from the projects, and that integrating women in field projects did not change subordinate position of women in law, politics and institutions. E.g. in the water sector, women would spend more time in planning and maintenance/management, yet their position and work in the household would remain the same (triple burden: home, field, community). While they did the voluntary work in water supply, their legal and political position remained the same and in implementing agencies, male engineers and economists were in charge of identification, planning and design and women came in when main plans were made, for community-level promotion and hygiene education. Hence the current shift from **women's integration** to **gender mainstreaming** (see definitions above)

Gender inequality and institutions. Institutions are long established customs, practices, and rules. Gender institutions are widely accepted patterns of (usually unequal and for women disadvantageous) relations between women and men, which are so common that both women and men accept them without questioning as 'belonging to our culture' or 'God-given, belonging to our religion' and bring up daughters and sons in the same way.

No overt discrimination is needed to keep women in a subordinated position, when institutions in households and organizations already ensure that such discrimination takes place. In the household for example, women who would like to seek work outside, are unable to do so because of the custom and norm that women do most of the domestic and child care work and look after parents (also parents of husbands) and men will not or hardly share the work on a structural basis. According to Kabeer, men use such mechanisms to avoid change in the home, at work and in the community. They can hide between these institutions and do not have to give up established advantages, but the conflict of interests is there all the same.

Empowerment can be defined as "processes whereby individuals achieve increasing control of various aspects of their lives and participate in the community with dignity" (Mvula Trust, Synthesis report: role of women in community water and sanitation supply projects, 98/40) Empowerment implies that women, like men, have more power over their own situation, and can make improvements to their lives. Kabeer (op. cit.) distinguishes four conditions for people to be able to control their own lives:

- (i) the capacity to make one's own decisions on issues ('**power to**'),
- (ii) the capacity and freedom to put issues on the agenda ('**power over**'),
- (iii) the awareness that an issue is an issue ('**power within**') and
- (iv) the power that comes from uniting with others around the same interests and organizing for concerted action ('**power with**').

Empowerment of women will take place when all four above conditions are met. Development programmes can enhance women's empowerment and assist them to:

- *become aware* of their different workloads, positions and needs/interests (also men to become aware);
- *access resources and control* for meeting these needs;

- *act as the competent actors they are* , who only need to overcome certain constraints and are not pathetic, helpless, the weaker sex;
- build collective awareness and organization.

Gender Mainstreaming

A definition

- Gender Mainstreaming is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies and programmes, in all areas and at all levels

Gender mainstreaming is also

- A systematic effort to introduce gender considerations in all our activities:
 - ➔ policy-making
 - ➔ strategies
 - ➔ implementation
 - ➔ awareness raising
 - ➔ organisational procedures

How to practise gender mainstreaming?

- At policy level
- At organization level
- At project implementation level

Gender Mainstreaming at Policy level

- In Mission statements
- In policy and strategy documents
- Any other documents at national level (sector policy documents, Water Law, etc).
- Documents produced by donors which are meant for your organisation.
- Documents produced by other NGOs with whom you work.

Organisation level

- conceptual frameworks
- organizational procedures
- recruitment of staff according to their willingness to work in communities
- technical agencies train their engineers in social topics
- technical and social departments cooperate
- contract social staff of other departments
- contract local ngo to give support in social aspects
- engages social staff and make sure technical staff knows about social issues
- budgetary allocations
- research emphasis
- publications
- training topics
- public relation materials

At project implementation level

- In all phases of the project cycle
 - From the first steps of planning
 - To the final evaluation....

Reasons to practice gender mainstreaming at policy and organisation levels

- **As support to operationalisation of gender in the local levels (in the communities, in the district offices)**
- **To collect, have valuable information about vulnerable groups – poor, the aged women, the aged men, the ones in the worst position, those who are not served by the system.**
- **To have a positive impact on their lives and position in the communities**
- **To have a higher level of ownership**
- **To contribute to sustainable O&M**
- **To increase levels of health**
- **To have a positive impact on the access to, the hygiene and the use of systems**
- **To contribute to increased levels of development**

No top down approach....

- Mainstreaming gender at policy & organisation levels is based on what happens in the villages, in the communities, in the local levels. It should not be a top-down approach.
- Policy and programmes are based on sector analysis. They come as a response to developments at the local levels.
- Thus, mainstreaming gender at the policy & organisation levels should not be an imposition from outsiders. Should be in response to a felt need.

How can we mainstream gender at policy and institutional levels?

Analysis of documents produced

- The policy and strategy documents produced by the organization.
- Any other documents at national level (sector policy documents, Water Law, etc).
- Documents produced by donor organisations
- Documents produced by other NGOs with whom you work.

On the basis of such an assessment, examine if gender is being mainstreamed. In which sense, or how? Or are these documents gender blind? The following indicators are a suggestion. Others can be produced.

Topics to examine at policy level:

Mission statement and other statements; description of values and principles

Policy and business plan

The overall aim of the organization or of a programme in the organisation.

At the objectives the organisation wants to achieve.

Terms of reference for consultancies, evaluations, .. do they indicate the need for a gender balanced team? Indicate gender concerns to be looked into where appropriate?

Do strategies recommend that projects link technical issues with social issues or with mainstreaming gender?

Collection of desegregated statistics (time allocation and labour – productive, reproductive, and community)?

Gender analysis/needs assessments to subsidise policy and strategies?

For example, when strategies state that water will be paid, are there any information on the division of burden between the poor and rich, the male and female heads of households, the aged and the youth, the individuals and the institutions?

Are there any strategies for subsidising those who cannot pay?

Availability of a gender policy for the organisation?

Are initiatives being suggested mostly by nationals or foreigners?

Topics to examine at organizational, institutional level (at central or district level):

- Staff composition and distribution of positions. For example, expertise of personnel with social background in the higher and middle cadres
- Criteria for staff recruitment
- All new staff are rated also on gender and equity awareness and expertise in their subject fields
- A balance in staff recruitment and career development is strived for
- Availability of expertise on gender on water supply (and sanitation) and hygiene promotion
 - Check gender expertise at all levels x one gender staff (recommended: a combination of both)
 - Gender staff under-budget?

- Gender staff marginalised?
- When there is gender staff, are there frequent meetings among staff for debriefing/ sensitisation/
- Is gender only donor driven?
- Degree of awareness for gender in the organization: only the specialist(s)?
- Proportion of female staff in higher level decision making positions
- Engineers also sensitised and with skills on gender or social issues
- Experts with a social background also informed about technical issues and having affinity with them
- Technical and social background professionals work integrated in the project cycle. Integration between social and technical activities planned to be taken up at community levels.
- Resource for support for gender – budget, training, documentation, participation in events
- A favourable environment – support from management, open attitude from colleagues, balanced staff, informally giving importance, attention from management to gender staff, missions or other activities outside organisations
- Workshops where decisions are being taken have a gender and equity balance or is decision making still male, technical, or in hands of staff with a dominant position
- Participation in workshops at operational level have a gender, technical / social background balance
- Are data desegregated by gender and equity issues? Data on participation desegregated by gender is usually an eye-opener and may lead to immediate remedial actions.
- Reports are gender and equity sensitive, include gender strategies?
- Internal institutional arrangements are made to ensure that gender and equity expertise is applied and kept up in the respective activities, monitoring, reporting, work-plans, etc.
- Is the implementation of policies and strategies being monitored in the field
 - Male/female ration in meetings lower, middle and higher level committees'
 - Voting attendance of women vs. men in actual decision-making
 - Division of unpaid/paid jobs, skilled/unskilled labour between men and women, rich and poor
 - Participation of the men (as fathers and husbands) in hygiene promotion and financing of hygiene and sanitation improvements
 - Assessment of the effects of gender approaches on project results and on the male-female positions, relationships and work-load in the community and the household.

Training

- The whole management and all staff are trained on gender and equity and helped to develop/strengthen gender and equity expertise related to their specific professional subject areas
- Women and men, with a technical and a social background, share equally in all types of training?

- Training strategies for the village level take a gender approach? – training on O&M also for women and on hygiene promotion also for men? Training activities at village level designed to target also the poor, those not reached by the system?
- Number of trained villagers desegregated by sex, social position (female/male head of house hold, widow, husband/wife imigrated, the chief, etc.), economic position, age... on
 - Technical skills
 - Construction/ O&M/ Repairs
 - Management / leadership
 - Hygiene / health promotion

Research activities

Are researches investigating the different needs and roles men and women, rich and poor, play in water, sanitation, water resources management and

- The different uses of water by men and women, rich and poor
- Access and control over resources by men and women, rich and poor
- Water rights gender and equity specific
- The effects of water, sanitation, hygiene, water resource management projects and programmes in the lives of men and women
- The impact of a gender approach in the O&M and sustainability of the systems and the improvement of the position of men and women in the communities.
- Are cases documented where a gender (and equity) approach was taken
- Are statistics or research data concerning communities desegregated by sex, social groups, ethnic groups
- Are technical and social research given equal importance in terms of funding, volume, results publication
- Are researches on sustainability of projects linked to the use of a gender approach?
- Are there research on the various forms of participation and management by men and women, rich and poor, and its influence on services sustainability, hygienic use, sharing in costs, and overall relations between men and women

Among third parties: implementers, contractors

- Are there any strategies to sensitise contractors for taking a gender and equity sensitive participatory approaches
- Are any strategies to transfer skills to contractors for taking a gender and equity sensitive participatory approaches
- Are contractors' 'business plans' gender sensitive?
- Is sanitation/hygiene given the same importance as water?

....

At project level

- How are projects started? Do they start as a demand from men or women, rich and/or poor in communities? Is this documented?
- Are projects based on demand-responsive, gender and equity sensitive approaches?
- What is the gender and social/technical balance in project teams?
- Technical projects are mainstreaming gender and equity

- Is the access to water and sanitation and the sustainability of the programmes seen at the light of gender and equity approaches?
- Are gender and equity sensitive participatory approaches being used at communities levels
- Are training at communities levels to transfer skills for project negotiation, participation in assemblies, service supervision, works quality control, O&M, hygiene promotion,... for women and men, rich and poor.

HAND-OUT SESSION 1 Facilitator

GENDER QUIZ

<p>Purpose</p>	<p>It is a gender awareness raising tool It is a rapid gender analysis tool It offers a basis for discussion on gender issues It offers a basis for forming the concept of gender in training situation In training: it also serves to break the ice It serves also as an awareness raising and gender analysis in big audiences (a village assembly, for example).</p>
<p>Material needed</p>	<p>Beamer or overhead projector and overhead sheets Questions prepared in sheets Cards of two colours. Preferably Pink and Blue (for Women and Men)</p>
<p>Procedure</p>	<p>Facilitator explains purpose of quiz Explains that there are no wrong or right questions Invites participants to raise pink card when answer refers to women, blue when it refers to men and both cards when answer refers to both. Co-facilitator marks scores under corresponding columns: Women, Men, Both when audiences are not big. Discussion in plenary on gender issues which come out Alternative: discussion in groups on the issues which come out of the quiz and presentation in plenary Facilitator guides participants to form the concept of gender Next session is introduced: how to relate this to your working situation – reflect on posters already produced</p>
<p>Variations</p>	<p>Quiz questions to be adapted to new situation. Leave the WHO question though, as this is already an important element to gender analysis.</p>

GEMSA

Gender Mainstreaming in South Africa

Unit 1 Cases where gender and Gender Mainstreaming played an important role

Subject title : Gender and sustainability of projects

Type of session : Interactive presentations, question/answer and discussion in plenary

Outcomes – on completion of this Unit, participants will have

- Demonstrated an understanding of gender and sustainability of projects.
- Identified gaps in their work which might lead to failure of projects
- Demonstrated understanding of gender mainstreaming in their organisations
- Practised and understood use of tools to be applied at community and organisational level.

Assessment criteria:

- Presentations
- Questions
- Role play

Gender contribute to the sustainability of projects, history has proven that, projects that did not take gender issues into consideration failed to address the needs of the communities. Participants need to understand that a project that takes a gender approach will be sustainable and improve the living conditions of communities.

Hand-outs: Setting the stage case study: Global Trends in Gender and Demand Responsive Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene, by Christine van Wijk and Jennifer Francis, IRC
Case study of a female engineer in Nepal
Seokodibeng case study, Limpopo Province
Soshanguve case study
Gender, water and social development: DWAF
Examples from the field.

PHAST tools: Gender roles and responsibilities & family dynamics:

Mvula Trust: An independent approach to rural water supply and sanitation in South Africa: Water comes to Morapalala Village Limpopo Province.
Louisa Duncker, Gender and sustainability

Sources:

Joshi, Er Meera (1992). 'Women and rural water supply projects'. *In: Pickford, J. (ed). Proceedings of the 18th WEDC Conference Water, Environment and Management, Kathmandu, Nepa, 30 August-3 September 1992.* Loughborough, United Kingdom, Water Engineering and Development Centre, Loughborough University of Technology. Pp. 271-274.

Breaking the Rules Soul City, the Institute for Health and Development communication 7 Seventh Avenue, Lower Houghton.

HAND-OUT SESSION 2

Setting the stage: Global Trends in Gender and Demand Responsive Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene

**By Christine van Wijk and Jennifer Francis
IRC - International Water and Sanitation Centre¹**

UNESCO Regional Workshop on Women's Participation in Water Management
24-26 November 1997, Pretoria, South Africa

1. Introduction

The premise for this African workshop on gender in water supply and sanitation services is that "...sustainable development is only possible if an equitable gender-balanced approach is taken in all phases of decision-making, planning, development and management" (Workshop document, p. 1).

What is meant by sustainable development and a gender-balanced approach? What experiences already exist with such an approach and what lessons can be drawn from them, both globally and in the African continent? These are some of the questions which this workshop must set itself to answer.

In this presentation I like to go into the meaning of gender as a concept in relation to sustainable services and development and show you what happens in the sector when a gender approach is not followed.

2. Gender, Sustainability and Demand Responsive Services

2.1 Let us first look at the concept of gender. What is gender?

Gender refers to the roles and responsibilities of women and men that are socially determined. It is related to how we are perceived and expected to think and to act as women and men because of the way society is organised and not because of our biological differences. Roles and responsibilities refer to the different work that men and women do, their different needs, their different access to resources and the different areas in which they can make decisions and exercise control over resources and benefits. These roles and responsibilities are socially and culturally determined and may differ from country to country

2.2 What is a sustainable development programme?

A sustainable development programme is "a development project/programme which is able to deliver an appropriate level of benefits for an extended time period after major financial, managerial, (social), and technical assistance from an (external) donor is terminated." (source: OECD/DAC)

Basic water and sanitation and hygiene services that are developed as part of sustainable development are thus not dependent on continued external support for their ongoing service delivery and use. Rather, the services are developed and established in such a way that they meet **demands of the users** while addressing the five components of sustainability: (source: van Waegeningh, 1996)

Technical sustainability: refers to the technical side of the provisions including: appropriate and affordable technology, user involvement in the choice of technology, low-cost sanitation systems, sewerage and wastewater treatment, adequate quality and quantity of water and finally the operations and maintenance aspects.

Social sustainability: refers to the benefits of water supply and sanitation as perceived by the users (men and women). Users should be convinced that the water supply and sanitation provisions are a benefit worth making the organisational and managerial effort to sustain. Aspects here include community mobilisation, stake holder participation, gender sensitive approaches, hygiene education and practises as well as water committees.

Financial sustainability: refers to both the economic conditions under which the watsan programmes develop and its financial implications. Issues here include the economic cost per capita for water and sanitation, capital investments, recurrent costs, cost recovery, tariff setting, mobilisation of financial resources and finally the management of financial resources by the people as well as local and national governments.

Environmental sustainability: refers to issues such as water resources management, source protection, water disposal and how these available yet limited resources should be utilised in effective ways.

Institutional sustainability: refers to redefining the role of central governments which promotes partnership among stakeholders, devolved power, capacity building, organisational strengthening and autonomy vested in local institutions, with effective regulation backed by legislation and enforcement.

Both water and services as well as improved hygiene practices will only be sustained by the users when they meet the demands and are within financial, organisational and social capacities of the users.

Because of the differences in production, labour, responsibilities and resources, women and men have different interests and benefits from the availability, use and management

of water supply and sanitation programmes. As a result they often have different criteria as well to evaluate the adequacy, equity, timeliness and quality of various interventions.

2.3 The shift from supply-driven to demand-responsive services

History has taught us that a supply-driven strategy with free services managed by central government agencies seldom works. Users do not pay for water, but neither do they get a reliable supply of adequate drinking water. Service hours are irregular and unpredictable and women who go for water do not know whether they will get water from the tap and how long they will have to queue. Time and energy women and girls could spend on other development, such as education, is not available. Breakdowns are common and long-lasting, forcing women back to contaminated sources and thus reviving health hazards. In sanitation services also, free or heavily subsidised sanitation facilities given to all on a continued basis by national governments have failed.

As a result of these experiences most countries now favour demand-responsive approaches. The user communities and households no longer get free water supply and free or very heavily subsidised sanitation facilities. Rather, they participate in the installation of water supply services through physical and financial contributions. After the installation the communities fully manage the operations and maintenance as well as financing of the more simple services, such as hand pumps and small piped systems. In larger water supplies schemes, the user communities often manage and finance the service and cost of the local distribution systems, while the sector utilities or agencies manage the main parts of the service, such as intake and transmission works and treatment plants.

Also in sanitation, user households increasingly finance the direct costs themselves in cash, kind and labour, while the agencies provide the wider enabling environment of the programme: information, training, equipment, and overall management.

In more progressive demand-responsive water and sanitation programmes, user communities and households even get a choice of options in technology, administration and management systems, to match local differences in user needs and in capacities to finance, maintain and manage the systems.

3. History of participation

3.1 Focus on male participation in the mid-1970s

When community participation in water supply and sanitation started in the second half of the 1970s, it was synonymous with the participation of men. In project meetings and assemblies mainly men would participate. If women attended at all, their culturally prescribed role was to listen, not to speak and take part in planning and decision-making. Also in local planning and design, decisions would be taken by male leadership.

Maintenance, financing and management training, functions and decision-making were also male prerogatives. Women, if participating at all, got mainly involved in the physical work. They helped in digging the trenches or provided food and drinks to well-digging teams. After construction they would become mainly responsible for preserving hygiene around the new pumps and taps, doing preventive maintenance and site cleaning.

This biased gender approach has several negative impacts on the sustainability of the water supply and sanitation services and on sustainable development in general: (source: van Wijk, 1985)

- **Women's demands not met**

In water and land development programmes in West Africa, Ethiopia, Kenya and Sudan the demands of women for domestic water supply were overlooked. As a result, water points for domestic use were located far from the settlement areas and women had to walk long distances for water collection. This resulted in lower amounts of water collected for the family thus reducing hygiene and health. It also reduced their time and energy for other development activities. Because women had also not been allotted land either, they started breeding livestock for food and income. This further increased water demands and their burden of work.

In programmes in Guinea Bissau, Tanzania and Zimbabwe women were not consulted on the design and location of domestic water points. When the points did not meet women's requirements they were not used. Giving more health education did not make a difference, because the women had strong and valid reasons for disliking the imposed locations and design, which health education could not overcome. Taking women's requirements on water use and location into account resulted in popular water points which the women both used and supported in operation and maintenance.

Failure to consult women on latrine design and location have also resulted in inappropriateness of new facilities for local conditions and use.

- **Women's expertise, commitment and indigenous management functions unrecognised**

In Burkina Faso, Somalia, Tanzania and Ghana women have traditionally played key roles in decision-making on use and management of traditional water sources. Collection and recycling of waste is also partly a woman's job. Though men take the formal decisions on new construction and dig new wells, women have culturally accepted ways of initiating and mobilising male resources and often carefully manage indigenous domestic water supplies. Indigenous management systems of water and waste are seldom assessed and build upon when installing new water supply and sanitation services. As a result women's traditional public management roles have gone unrecognised and women have lost management functions, jobs and status when new water and waste systems come in. Existing systems are neglected and holistic water resources management traditions are overlooked.

Being directly affected by poor water supply and sanitation facilities, women are generally the most motivated to install improved water supply and sanitation facilities and keep them in running order. Yet initially all technical training for maintenance of water supply and installation of sanitation has gone exclusively to men. More recently it was discovered in Lesotho that women make highly effective private latrine masons. When they know what to look at, women will also keep a close check on contractors and mechanics to see that they use the right mixture in preparing concrete or repairing a pump. Water programmes in among others Lesotho, Ethiopia, Guinea Bissau, Kenya, Malawi, Sudan, Tanzania and Zimbabwe have started training also women on maintenance for their low mobility, frequent visits to waterpoints and high commitment to keep the systems operative. Such training has contributed to more efficient and effective services and recognised and enhanced women's share in knowledge and development.

3.2 Focus on participation of women in the mid-1980s

In the second half of the 1980s it was realised that the lack of participation of women in planning, maintenance and management had negative impacts on the quality of the services and on the overall position of women and their participation in development. As a result many projects began to take special measures to involve women in decision making and management of services. However, this greater focus on the participation of women is not without its risks either. (source: van Wijk, 1997)

- **Women getting more work without influence and compensation**

In Western Kenya male paid mechanics were found not to perform well. They were therefore replaced by women. The women got technical training, but other than the men no arrangements were made for community payment for their maintenance and repair services.

In Uganda, women who were engaged as voluntary water tariff collectors found they had to spend more time on tariff collection than formerly on the collection of water. Women in Zimbabwe, Niger, Tanzania and Malawi sat on water and sanitation committees but without any real say in decision making. In some cases all important decisions were made at higher levels, where no women were represented.

- **Men withdrawing from responsibilities**

In Western Kenya and Malawi water committees became all female committees and women became responsible for all work and even, in Kenya, for all payments for operation and maintenance.

In Zambia and Ghana, when only women were selected for training, husbands and fathers did not allow their wives and daughters to participate.

- **Men bypassed in hygiene improvements**

The focus on women's responsibilities in health and hygiene has increased their already heavy workload, failing to address the availability of work alleviating tools and the re-division of work within the households. In most countries in Africa for example, means of transport for water, such as donkeys, bicycles and ox carts are owned and used by men, not women. Part of the work –e.g. in constructing latrines- and investment decisions needed for better family sanitation and hygiene are traditionally the responsibility of men. Yet health and hygiene education projects do not address men on their responsibilities. This was for example pointed out by women in Tanzania and Burkina Faso.

Furthermore, in a number of cultures women cannot influence the behaviour of older males, be they husbands, fathers and fathers-in-law or adult sons. Egyptian women said they felt powerless in influencing male behaviour. Tanzanian girls were frustrated by getting hygiene education in schools but not being able to influence conditions and practices in either their paternal homes or in their own home after marriage.

Social control from males and older women in households in dry areas in Somalia and Tanzania prevented younger women to use sufficient water to wash the faces of young children and thus reduce eye infections and prevent blindness. Only when fathers were addressed in a face washing competition did they consent to children's more frequent face washing.

Husbands themselves have objected to hygiene and health education directed only at women. In Zimbabwe and Niger fathers pointed out that they also needed health education to train and educate their children.

3.3 A gender approach being adopted in the mid 1990s

From the above review of historical developments and cases it is evident that neither an exclusive focus on men nor on women will work. Both approaches have led to ineffective and unsustainable services and behaviour change and have had undesirable effects on wider socio-economic development.

If projects and programmes do not take the roles and responsibilities of both men and women into consideration, they may prevent men as well as women to participate in areas where they precisely have the capacity and influence.

There is clearly a need for a more balanced approach in service participation and management by both women and men. In this approach, the access to new information and knowledge, the division of work and the sharing in decision-making, resources and benefits is divided more equitably between men and women of different age groups, classes and ethnic and religious groups.

In more recent programmes several examples of '**promising practices**' in gender balanced approaches can be noted.

In a programme in Tanzania men decided that they would spend more hours than women on agriculture in the fields, so as to give women more time for domestic tasks, including health and hygiene. They did so after they had reviewed the time expenditures of both women and men with the help of a male facilitator.

Following a review of experiences with male and female treasurers in water committees, the government of Niger has included in its national guide on rural water supply the advice to select and train female treasurers. Reasons were the greater trustworthiness and better performance of women treasurers which the men themselves admitted and encouraged.

The government of Niger has also stipulated that women pay only one third of the household contribution for maintenance of the rural water supply whereby adult men pay the full contribution. This reflects the higher financial capacity of men in the households.

The peri-urban water supplies in Malawi first had all-male management of communal water points. When this did not work because the men were absent all day, not service-oriented and poor at financial management, management was made *all female*. This had better results for both water and sanitation management, but put the burden solely on women. Hence the programme now follows a gender strategy with mixed management by women and men with equity in work and influence.

In Lesotho the government pursues a more sustainable sanitation programme by strengthening the role of the private sector. Households which want an improved latrine directly contract their local mason. The government provides the enabling environment: training, a starting fund and general programme management. Both men and women get the opportunity to train and work as latrine mason. As a result, 25% of the masons in the programme are women. Many of them are also trained as health workers. The work provides them with income and has raised their status and self-confidence. The female masons are also more ready to build for lower income households at a lower profit.

4. Conclusion

The cases mentioned indicate that the awareness of the importance of a gender approach in water supply, sanitation and hygiene is gradually increasing.

Programme and project planners have come to realize that equitable gender participation is an essential element throughout the project cycle. Data separated by sex on roles and responsibilities between men and women have shown that men, women, boys and girls

are all involved in, and have their specific knowledge of, tasks and requirements for the management of water resources and water supply and environmental sanitation in the house, the community and the surrounding area.

The facts and new insights gained from a gender approach are also an eye opener for the people themselves - to look at their roles and responsibilities from a new perspective. They come to see that roles and responsibilities although socially and culturally determined are dynamic and human processes, which are subject to change.

Equitable gender participation throughout the project cycle permit men and women to consider a range of options and their consequences. It also assists them to choose technologies, designs, maintenance, management and financing systems that best fit their needs and potential. Such a gender balance is needed since neither the services themselves nor wider development associated with them can be sustainable when one half of the population is either passed by or overburdened. Only when both men and women can participate in an equitable manner and services respond to their differential demands and capacities can we hope for an effective and sustained water and sanitation sector which is both **a condition** for and a **part of** wider socio-economic development.

References:

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2. Wijk, C. van (1985). *Participation of Women in Water Supply and Sanitation: Roles and Realities*. The Hague, The Netherlands, IRC and UNDP/PROWWESS.
3. Wijk, C. van (1997). *Gender in Water Resources Management, Water Supply and Sanitation: Roles and Realities Revisited*. The Hague, The Netherlands. IRC and UNDP/World Bank Water and Sanitation Program

HAND-OUT SESSION 2

4.1 Improving gender balance among staff

Staff trained on gender will link the agency's policy on gender to practice in the field. In other words, it will make agencies' gender policies operational (Wakeman et al., 1996). For that purpose, it is also important that staff are trained both on gender issues and on participatory techniques so as to involve men and women in a balanced way.

On the other hand, the absence of a gender approach in trained staff may well have negative consequences. In Nepal, a woman engineer supervising a water supply project suffered from lack of proper co-operation from administrative staff due, to their lack of awareness of the importance of the roles of women as well as those of men in the project. She also suffered from junior technical staff who disobeyed her and harassed her work. This behaviour meant a set-back to the project. An investigation by higher authorities and the villagers revealed that the woman engineer's work was being well done (Joshi, 1992). This specific case is further mentioned in the section on 'Higher level education and training curricula'.

The IRC International Water and Sanitation Centre in the Netherlands offers gender training for staff going to work in the water and sanitation or related fields. However, if only female staff are sent for gender training, 'gender' turns out to be 'women's' business. Involving male staff in gender training contributes to improving the gender balance in projects and the future training of community members. In the last three years, approximately 60 percent of the participants who attended IRC's gender briefing programmes were men.

Agencies emphasise the need for technical skills in recruiting staff, instead of valuing social and managerial skills and the ability to communicate with community members (van Wijk, 1985). However, the increase in decentralised services and the need for users -- men and women -- to participate in the operation and management of community-based projects has led to a shift in the recruitment of staff by water supply and sanitation sector agencies. This is occurring in Brasilia, Brazil, where the Condominial Sewerage Programme of the municipal water company is giving more attention to the recruitment and training of staff interested and motivated in working with communities, rather than to technical skills (Borba, 1996). As many of these staff are women, the balance between women and men in the water sector has undergone a shift.

At present, the Department of Animation and Sanitation of the Directorate General of Natural Resources in Guinea Bissau, has 43 extension workers, of which 60 percent are women. This is considered the minimum percentage of female extension workers, who do most contacts with women in communities. The extension workers are also active in low-income urban areas; in giving follow-up and in the improvement of the decentralised O&M system, which includes hygienic use of water and water points; and in giving follow-up to projects after the installation of pumps. The extension workers receive training in technical aspects, in hygiene education and social mobilisation through communication (Silva, 1996).

When gender imbalances are recognised, agencies may make an effort to achieve more equity. In Sri Lanka, (CWSSP, c. 1997), for example, the male: female ratio in the head office and regional offices of the Community Water Supply and Sanitation Programme (CWSSP) is 80:20. In the technical section the ratio is 77:23. At a managerial position the CWSSP has one female for each three male regional directors. The staff of CWSSP partner organisations, generally local NGOs, are 65 percent male and 35 percent female. In these organisations, 44 percent of community facilitators are women. However, in the whole of CWSSP, women engaged in social activities (as opposed to technical activities) represent only 19 percent of the staff.. The CWSSP will further investigate what special constraints exist for female field staff to operate in CWSSP projects and how they perceive the advantages and disadvantages of female field staff vis-à-vis male field staff operating in the villages.

4.2 Less stereotyped staff roles

Besides a better balance in staff roles - men gradually taking up social roles and women taking up technical roles - one can also note a shift away from gender-stereotyped training. Technical training for water supply and sanitation is being given to both male and female community development workers or promoters as show the cases below.

In Guinea Bissau, in 1993, 177 pump mechanics had been trained, of which 98 (55 percent) were women. All village level pump mechanics are trained to maintain the pumps in their own villages. Villagers prefer to have female pump mechanics because they have a direct interest in the well functioning of pumps and, as opposed to men, do not emigrate. Although village pump mechanics are not paid for their work, they are performing in a satisfactory way. Pump mechanics who are supposed to work at regional level are chosen first in a meeting in their own villages and then in a regional meeting the final selection is made of regional level pump mechanics. Regional level mechanics are men, who are paid for their work, receive a bicycle, tools and an initial set of spare parts. The reasons for choosing male and not female regional pump mechanics are that they have to travel by bicycle and carry heavy loads (Werff and Visscher, 1995).

In the Ramgoti Intensive Sanitation and Hygiene Promotion Programme in Bangladesh, much attention was given to the training of the village sanitation motivators, the VSMs, who form the backbone of the programme. The selection criteria included literacy, status in the community, communication skills and enthusiastic commitment to improved sanitation and hygiene practices. More female than male VSMs were recruited. They received pre-service training on the promotion of safe water, sanitation and hygiene, interpersonal communication and community mobilisation. The training was repeated after some months of field work. The field sanitation supervisors, FSSs, one woman and six men, received basic training, covering programme orientation, promotion and use of safe water, sanitation and hygiene practices, techniques of interpersonal communication, community mobilisation, planning supervision and monitoring (Boot, 1995).

Earlier experiences already showed the need for a less stereotyped role for field workers and staff. In Malawi, in the 1980s, male and female technical assistants were getting on-the-job training in community motivation and organisation. In Malaysia, rural health supervisors were trained for nine months in health education, minor water supplies and various types of waste disposal. They were then assigned to 10-12 villages, to organise water supply action committees and design simple systems.(van Wijk, 1989).

From the literature reviewed, it seems that these examples of a less stereotyped role in the water supply and sanitation sector occur at community and project level, and in agencies among staff at intermediate levels. The question is now how are men and women being prepared for level positions, for higher level decision making.

In Nepal, there are only three or four number female engineers working in the water subsectors such as rural water supply, irrigation, and hydropower. The cultural belief in Nepal is that a woman cannot do an engineering job, physically or socially, so families are reluctant to send their female members for study and work in engineering (Joshi, 1992).

HAND-OUT SESSION2

CASE STUDY

Seokodibeng, Northern Province.

Six women from Seokodibeng were asked to talk about the issue of payment for water. They were given silhouette figures and asked to use these to represent family structures that were common in the village. The silhouette figures there were given included men, women, grandmothers, grandfathers, boys, girls and babies.

The women were asked to say who was responsible for water management and who was responsible for water collection in the household. They were asked to show what would happen if the family had to spend about R15 a month on water.

Other questions that were put to the women were:

- What would change in the household after the water tariff was introduced?
- If the household could not pay the water tariff, where would people obtain their water?
- If the household had to collect water from other sources, what impact would this have on household members responsible for collecting water?
- How would the R15 water tariff affect other spending in the home?
- Who would be the most affected by the reduction of R15 in the household income?

Each of the women introduced the family she had put together. The women told stories about how each family earned money and how they spend it. In all the families, the mother the mother of the older women was the person responsible for making sure that there was enough water and that the water was stored adequately. Children were primarily responsible for water collection.

Some of the issues raised by the women's stories were as follows:

- The men's drinking and smoking budget could not be used for expenses such as the water tariff. Some women suggested they would be beaten if they tried to reduce this budget.
- Fights about money were common in homes.
- Household already contributed to a burial society and paid a construction fee to the school.
- Older people were either not receiving their pensions, or were having to share them with other family members which reduced the income for the home.
- Households had to support children who were the results of teenage pregnancies.

The women decided that the money for the water tariff would have to be taken from the food budget. Each family would have to reduce its food intake, especially what was eaten

at breakfast. Household who could not afford to pay for water would have to collect water from the river, or else from the springs at the foot of the mountains that surround Seokodibeng.

All six women agreed that women and children would be the people most affected by the introduction of water tariffs.

Gender, water and social development

A concern of development initiatives is that in undertaking rural development, one should not replace indigenous, female oriented survival and economic practices with “imported” male focused practices. In South Africa, a number of examples have shown that the role of women in the management of water is particularly crucial to sustainability and sound management.

In the Arabie/Olifants irrigation scheme, an estimated 90% of the farmers (as decision makers and main cultivators) are women. Partly this is as a result of traditional cultural practices in which women were responsible for cultivation, while men focused on cattle rearing, land clearing and plowing. A second reason is the greater tendency of men to migrate towards urban areas in search of jobs¹.

While a number of plots of land are, unusually, registered in the names of the women working the land, some of the land is registered in the (often absent) husband’s name. The latter has given rise to a number of problems, including cheques made out in the man’s name which cannot be cashed by the female farmer. The local chief has approved of the registration of the land in the women’s names.

When a new legal entity was to be formed in the area, to manage the irrigation scheme, the mainly male extension officers and committee members decided to that membership should be according to the “permission to occupy” lists. This would, in a number of cases, give membership to men who are not present on the land, and who are not the active farmers, rather than the female farmers. However, van Koppen notes that most respondents to whom she spoke on the matter recognised that there were a number of advantages to official membership for women farmers.

Internationally, experience has shown that women tend to have good repayment records on loans, and this is a further reason why the predominance of women farmers on any institutional structure is important. The experience of the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry in the field of domestic water supply has shown that the substantial presence of women on water committees is more likely to result in a well managed and sustainable project. The reasons for this are various, and some self-evident.

¹ This practice is showing some reversal as a result of high unemployment rates in urban areas, and in some areas men are beginning to return to the rural areas. [van Koppen, 1999]

As the carriers of water, and the custodians of family health, women are more likely to benefit directly from a closely located tap than their male counterparts, and therefore more likely to play an active role in maintaining the service

Examples from the field

Lesotho: rural women take on latrine construction Women have proven to be a very viable resource in designing, implementing, operating and maintaining water and sanitation systems in their communities. The Lesotho rural sanitation programme, initiated in 1983 by the United Nations Development Programme, World Bank and various other donors, is an excellent example of women's technical capabilities.

- The project was designed so that women and men would be trained to build latrines: one in four of the builders was a woman.
- Massive educational campaigns on health and hygiene resulted in latrine maintenance becoming a high priority so that community members were willing to pay for the service, allowing the construction workers to earn an income and generating substantial cost recovery for the project.
- Many village women were also trained as health workers; their responsibilities included administering first aid, weighing babies, and giving health counselling to the members of the community, as well as helping to build latrines and protect the water against contamination. This solidified the integration of the women and the community into all facets of this self-generating programme.
- With women as a target group for the health education services, the programme also instituted the position of women's liaison adviser to reach other women's groups, to oversee their progress, and respond to their needs and problems.

This project demonstrated the trickle-down effect created when women learn a trade. Preferring to work in pairs, women would often teach other women to build latrines. They were also more likely than men to offer their services for less to accommodate those who couldn't normally afford the latrines, offering the community an affordable and sustainable water and sanitation system. These women were each other's counsellors and even financial advisers. Some groups created revolving credit systems to build household latrines, and others sought information on setting up and managing credit systems for the construction of latrines and water systems.

SOURCE Monica S. Fong, Wendy Wakeman, and Anjana Bhushan,
Toolkit on Gender and Sanitation, Series No. 2, USA, 1996

HAND-OUT SESSION 3



PHAST TOOL: GENDER ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

The PHAST tool Gender Roles and Responsibilities can be used to help communities discuss gender issues. The tool can help community members to talk about

- the different roles of men and women
- the amount of time different tasks take to perform each day
- the different time constraints facing men and women
- how men and women can share roles and responsibilities

WHAT MATERIALS DO I NEED?

To do this exercise you need two sets of the following:

- three pictures: one of a man, the second of a woman and the third of a man and a woman

Hello, I work for a woman's organisation in Soul City. It can be hard work, but we are committed to make sure that women's voices are heard in development. This PHAST tool – Gender roles and responsibilities- is wonderful. It can be used to help men and women understand their roles and their responsibilities in relation to water and sanitation

- between 25 and 40 pictures of women involved in various tasks (such as cleaning, fetching water, cooking, shopping, fixing a water point, fixing a house, cleaning a toilet etc)
- a bag of beans or small stones
- Small, coloured slips of paper.

HOW DO I START THE EXERCISE

Separate your group into one group of men and one group of women. Give each group one set of pictures. Ask each group to identify the task shown in each picture. Then ask them to say whether

this is a task normally done by women, men and women, or men. Ask them to make three separate piles using the pictures of the woman, the man, or the woman and man to mark them appropriately.

Once they have completed this, tell the participants that each bean represents 30 minutes. Ask them to decide how long each task would take, and to place enough beans next to each task to represent the total time taken to complete the task.

After these ask the participants to place a small coloured slip of paper next to the tasks that they believe have to be done every day.

Ask each group to look at the other group's work. Discuss the findings of each group.

WHAT OTHER INFORMATION CAN I DISCUSS WITH THE COMMUNITY?

Ask each group to identify the task that they feel men and women can share and why. Ask your group to discuss what prevents men and women sharing more tasks.

Discuss with your group the tasks that need to be performed to maintain the water and/or sanitation system. If necessary draw extra pictures to show the tasks. Discuss who will do these tasks and how men and women can share these tasks.

HOW LONG WILL THIS EXERCISE TAKE?

Gender Roles and Responsibilities takes forty-five minutes to facilitate.

WHAT OTHER PHAST TOOLS CAN I USE?

The PHAST tool Family Dynamics can also be used to look at gender issues in the home

SUMMARY OF MAIN POINTS

1. Health workers are well placed to raise the water and sanitation needs of vulnerable groups in a community.
2. Historically, the water and sanitation sector has been approached in a very technical way and is dominated by men.
3. Women are usually the chief managers of water in their homes.
4. Women are ideally placed to manage community water supplies because they know how important it is to keep the water supply well maintained and in working order.
5. Women's special needs with regard to sanitation are concerned with where toilets are situated, the maintenance and cleaning requirements of toilets and women's needs during menstruation.
6. Children are often the water collectors for their families. If the water supply is close to the home, children benefit because they are less tired and better able to participate at school.
7. A pit toilet can be made more child-friendly by having the toilet seat designed like a bench with steps up to it.
8. The following need careful attention when considering pit latrines for the disabled and the elderly:
 - the siting of the pit latrine
 - the type of superstructure needed
 - Requirements for wheelchair access.

9. The PHAST tool Gender roles and Responsibilities can be used with a community to discuss the roles and responsibilities and women



PHAST TOOL: FAMILY DYNAMICS

The PHAST tool Family Dynamics can be used to investigate the impact of water tariffs on family dynamics and relations. The tool can help community members suggest:

- how the family budget is spent
- Who takes responsibility for paying the water tariff?

WHAT MATERIALS DO I NEED?

To do this exercise you need silhouette figures showing different family members. These should include the elderly, women, men, youth and children. Have enough of these figures for each member of your group to make up a family structure.

HOW DO I START THE EXERCISE?

Start the exercise by asking the participants in your group to make up the different kinds of families that are found in their community. Ask each participant to describe his/her made-up family. Ask each participant to say what each member of the family does and how he/she relates to other members of the family.

Ask each participant to discuss what will happen in the family when a new water tariff is introduced. Ask each participant to identify who will pay the new water tariff and who will be most affected by this additional expense.

WHAT OTHER INFORMATION CAN I DISCUSS WITH THE COMMUNITY?

This exercise can easily be adapted to discuss a wide range of issues and how they impact on a family. For example, you could also use this exercise to discuss the introduction of a new toilet or to assess the impact of a water-and sanitation-related disease on a family. You could, for example, discuss the impact of scabies or diarrhoea. It could also be used to discuss other illnesses such as TB, HIV/AIDS or alcoholism.

HOW LONG WILL THIS EXERCISE TAKE?

Family Dynamics takes forty-five minutes to facilitate.

WHAT OTHER PHAST TOOLS CAN I USE?

The PHAST tool Unspecialised Posters can be used to discuss local problems such as payment for water.

SUMMARY OF MAIN POINTS

1. The level of cost recovery in many water supply projects is too low to sustain the project in the long term.
2. The main reasons for poor cost recovery in water supply projects are:
 - problems with the level of service in a community
 - problems with maintaining the service
 - the water tariffs themselves
3. There are four interventions that can help promote cost recovery in water supply projects:
 - Better communication between the service provider and the community.
 - Maintaining high service standards.
 - Establishing a workable system of payment collection and cost recovery.
 - Using water supply projects to create jobs and generate income.
4. Community-based approaches to cost recovery that make use of local approaches and practices are often the most successful
5. Limited government subsidies are available for water and sanitation at the household level.
6. The PHAST tool Family Dynamics can be used to discuss paying for water and sanitation services at the household level.

HAND-OUT SESSION 2: FACILITATOR

Sustainable water supply and sanitation services and development Why a gender balanced approach?

Introduction

After having discussed some basic concepts on gender and gender mainstreaming, we are going to explore more in detail how mainstreaming gender balanced approaches contribute to more sustainability in the provision and management of water supply and sanitation services.

In this session we will look at the development and provision of improved services, usually initiated through specific projects and programmes. In the next session we will look into institutional implications and the necessary conducive environment for mainstreaming gender balanced approaches.

Premise

Sustainable development is enhanced if equitable gender balanced approaches are followed in all phases of decision making, planning, development and management of projects and programmes, involving relevant stakeholders at all levels (e.g. policy, decision-making, implementation and management levels).

[Add: project life cycle graph, matrix with levels]

Sustainable development and sustainability in services provision

We can speak of sustainable development if programmes and projects deliver appropriate levels of benefits for an extended period of time after programme/project completion [see project life cycle graph], to a large degree without requiring on-going external support.

At least 5 elements of sustainability can be distinguished:

[Question participants where the gender element can play a role]

Technical	Appropriate and affordable technology, involving users in making informed choices, aware of and accepting implications for management of provided water and sanitation services
Social	Men and women convinced that benefits are worth making management and organisational effort to sustain service beyond project life [see graph]: this requires mobilisation, participation, gender approaches, education, organisation (committees)
Financial	Economic framework conditions and financial implications:

	Economic cost/capital, capital investment, recurrent costs, cost recovery and sharing mechanisms, tariffs, mobilisation of finances, financial management
Environmental	(I)WRM looking at all sources, different uses and users, protection, disposal, and no irreversible depletion
Institutional	Roles of various actors, partnerships of government, local government, non-government, private, CBO's: appropriate management levels and responsibilities, capacity building, providing access to resources, OD, regulation, legislation, enforcement, but also transparency, accountability, good governance, democracy

All the above taking into account different roles, interests, needs, benefits and thus criteria for decision making of men and women, rich/poor, young/old.

Shift from central supply driven to decentralised demand responsive services

Central supply driven system did not deliver. Better services require decentralisation, responsibilities nearer to consumers, demand based, involvement, offering choices: to address different preferences regarding level of service.

Looking for new sharing of responsibilities between various actors: government, private, NGO, CBO, user groups.

[Look at tools: mention a few]

[Ask participants experiences]

Historic overview of experiences with this shift

I mid 70's male participation

Men in leadership roles with limited participation [refer to project graph]

Women at most only listening, if at all and doing physical work

[Example BF coton vs. yams, sowing seeds]

Negative consequences of approach:

1. Women demands not met

1. Location of wells far
 - long walks > low quantity use > poor hygiene > diseases
 - less time for education for female child
 - less time for income generating activities
 - effects affect also men
2. Well not used > hygiene education wasted > project investment wasted
3. Design of water points and latrines not meeting demands > not used > etc...

2. Women expertise and capacities not recognised and used

1. Women's traditional roles in decision making not acknowledged: management of water resources, collection and recycling of water, local knowledge seldom identified and used > women lost influence [see BF agric example], status, jobs and income.
2. Women often not motivated to participate:
 - Information and training given to men: even if traditionally the issue was a women's responsibility.
 - Management given to men: but women are good managers, treasurers, overseers of contractors, they know what they need.
 - Training women often more effective: they are less mobile, visit water points and use latrines frequently, have a vested interest and committed (including female children)
 - Investment in women often more effective > benefits are in the interest of all household members, including men!

II Mid 80's focus on women (WID: women in development)

To address some of the negative issues mentioned above, projects were designed to specifically address women.

Risks:

1. Women work and burden increased without necessarily giving them more influence or compensation
 1. Women as pump mechanics: but on a voluntary basis, no payment arrangements > more work
 2. Women as members of committees, often given the roles with less responsibilities: e.g. collection of tariffs [typical 50-50 rule without looking at sharing decision making]
2. Men withdraw from responsibilities:
 - All women committees > more work
 - Only women committees: men do not give approval to their women and daughters (men not involved in planning, design and implementation)
3. Hygiene education and sanitation projects not addressing men:
 - Focus on women increases their burden
 - Not enough focus on work alleviating design, tools and methods
 - No attention to equitable sharing of domestic work loads (e.g. means of transport for water often in the hands of men, but they cannot be bothered and are not involved in solution finding)
 - Women cannot influence behaviour of (older) men
 - Changes in behaviour (with financial implications) can only take place if men understand, need and allow

- Men themselves have frequently asked not to be excluded (also men educate children)

III Mid 90's gender approach

Conclusion: neither men nor women exclusive approaches are ideal. These approaches have undesirable effects on wider socio-economic development and thus affect both women and men! This lead to wasted project investments and underutilisation of potential knowledge and capacities among women and men.

A gender approach is based on understanding women and men's knowledge, experiences, roles and needs and builds upon these throughout the project cycle [refer to project graph].

Promising experiences: [also ask participants]

1. Tanzania: men agreed to spend more time in fields to give time to women for water and sanitation tasks [tool: gender disaggregated analysis of work schedule, calendars]
2. Niger: female treasurers, approved by men [tool/method : targeted training]
3. Niger: women less income than men: women have to contribute less in cash [tool/method: gender disaggregated data collection and analysis; gender sensitive planning and design; gender balanced community decision making]
4. Malawi: mixed management m/f with responsibilities shared depending on availability (time) and capacities
5. Lesotho: trained masons jobs open to women and men

Conclusion

Awareness of the importance of gender sensitive approaches and their advantages is growing as number of good experiences are documented and shared.

[One of the objectives of GEMSA project]

Gender equitable involvement of women and men throughout the project cycle and beyond [refer to project graph]

Needed: gender disaggregated knowledge/ data to understand roles and needs, plan, implement, monitor and adjust programmes and projects and contributing to more sustainable water and sanitation services.

Gender analysis is often an EYE-OPENER to all involved at all levels [refer to gender quiz and examples given]

Roles and responsibilities of women and men are socially and culturally determined, but these are dynamic processes which can change over time, and even quicker if both women and men can be convinced that following a gender sensitive approach leads to better and more sustained services which benefit all.

To make this all happen we have to look at **the institutional context** which should provide the **conducive environment** to allow for gender sensitive approaches at all levels. In the next session we look at these.

Mvula Trust: An Independent Approach to Rural Water Supply and Sanitation in South Africa

Ian Palmer, Consultant, South Africa

Executive Summary

Mvula Trust's demand-driven rural water supply and sanitation program is oversubscribed, although it must compete and coexist with a free parallel program that demands little of communities—in a country where most politicians believe water should be given [emphasize with italics] to communities. Aimed at poor, disadvantaged rural and peri-urban communities with populations below 5,000, the Mvula Trust reports 126 water supply projects completed (out of 267 initiated), providing water to about 400,000 people, and 94 sanitation projects under way.

Mvula Trust finds that delegated control with central support and monitoring is important but that for community decision-making to be effective, control of the project, including project finances, must be delegated to the community as much as possible. When the community plays the primary role in initiating a project and making key decisions about it, the probability that the system will be sustainable dramatically improves.

Relationships between the community, private contractors, and other support organizations must be strong and properly structured, *with the community as the client and with appropriate incentives for all parties*. Up-front contributions from the community and ceilings on per capita grant allocations creative incentives for cost-efficiency and build sustainability. Meanwhile, private agencies and nongovernmental organizations require strong support in the major task of social intermediation—providing extensive training and advice to the community, to strengthen its ability to run its own system.

Social and political skills are sometimes more important than engineering skills, where water committees may be viewed as stealing power from the local chief, or induna—or from new local government structures. When newly elected council members want to be seen as delivering services to their constituencies—especially with increasing emphasis on the need for local government to deliver services in rural areas—Mvula Trust must constantly re-evaluate the relationships between its projects and local government.

Main Messages from this Case Study

This case study of Mvula Trust's rural water supply and sanitation (RWS) program suggests the importance to the rural water supply of community involvement in a demand-driven system, delegated control with central support and monitoring, management by financial rules, and the use of NGOs and the private sector for social intermediation.

- A demand-driven approach makes rural water and sanitation projects more sustainable. When the community plays the primary role in initiating a project and making key decisions, the probability that the system will be sustainable dramatically improves.
- Delegated control with central support and monitoring are equally important. But for decisionmaking by the community to be effective, control of the project, including project finances, must be delegated to them as much as possible.
- Relationships between the community, private contractors, and other support organizations must be strong and properly structured, with the community as client and with appropriate incentives for everyone.
- Up-front contributions from the community and ceilings on per capita grant allocations create incentives for cost-efficiency and build sustainability.
- Using the private sector and NGOs for extensive social intermediation—supporting the community with training and advice—is essential for success. Private agencies and NGOs must be supported in this major role of social intermediation because of the scale of the task.

Country and policy environment

Water Comes to Morapalala

Morapalala is a dry, remote village in the Northern Province of South Africa. Before 1994 the people who live there had to draw water from a riverbed 10 km from the village, scraping depressions in the river sand and returning with only a few liters of water. Or they had to stand in queues, sometimes overnight, at the one hand pump in the area. The struggle to get water was made worse by the drought that came to southern Africa in the mid-1980s. But this struggle also created a resolute attitude in the community. Under strong leadership they formed a vision—partly stirred by the establishment of a new South Africa—that water would come to Morapalala.

In 1994, after the failure of one project, the community heard of the assistance Mvula Trust could provide in improving water supply and sanitation. A

Mvula representative visited and the community came to understand that it would be primarily up to them to improve their water supply. They would have to organize themselves to form a water committee and find an engineer to help them.

A consulting engineer already working in the area was recommended to the community. This engineer started work on the feasibility study needed for the funding application to Mvula but he was unwilling to work closely with the water committee, which became dissatisfied. Under Mvula policy the community employs the engineer so the community terminated his appointment and selected another engineer with whom it developed a strong relationship. The second engineer continued to plan and implement the project with the community after the Mvula decided to provide funding for the project, after its positive assessment of the feasibility study. Morapalala is one of 360 water supply and sanitation projects supported by Mvula Trust.

Based on their financial rules, Mvula allocated a fixed sum of money to the project and then detailed planning could begin. This required hard decisions from the water committee, working with the engineer and keeping the community informed. For example, the original design provided for only 20 public standpipes, which the community felt was not enough. No further funding would be allocated so the committee decided to save money in other areas, which eventually made it possible to provide 30 standpipes.

Morapalala was one of the first Mvula Trust projects to become operational, bringing the community's vision to fruition. But planning and constructing the system was only part of the process. Mvula and the Morapalala community recognized that keeping the system running would be the difficult part, for which good management and financial arrangements would be essential. Before construction was complete, the community had to raise a contribution of 8 percent of the capital cost of the project. This was a difficult issue for the community to face, but its importance was demonstrated by what the chairman of the water committee said when asked what he thought was most important about setting up a water project:

The 8 percent contribution, because when we make this contribution then we know the system is ours. For example, in [a neighboring community] they received a system for free from the government. When it broke, they waited a year for the government to come and fix it. In our community if something breaks, we will repair it ourselves in 2–3 days because it is ours.

Indeed, when the community discovered that one of the boreholes was not providing as much water as expected, it contracted with an engineer to relocate a submersible pump to a different borehole on the opposite side of the village. The community selected, contracted with, and financed the engineer without consulting any outside organization, including Mvula.

Project Description and Rules

The mission of the Mvula Trust is to improve the health and welfare of poor, disadvantaged South Africans in rural and peri-urban communities by increasing their access to safe, sustainable water and sanitation services. The Trust's objectives are effectiveness, efficiency, and

- Ensuring the participation and empowerment of the beneficiaries, communities, and local authorities it serves to sustain the initiatives launched.
- Using demand-responsive approaches to enhance sustainability, build local capacity, promote cost-efficiency, and ensure sound public financing.

The Mvula Trust is an independent organization, accountable to a board of trustees drawn from its major stakeholders, funded from a variety of sources, and operated in a transparent, publicly accountable manner.

The Mvula Trust recognizes the strategic policy framework of the government and cooperates closely and in partnership with other major development agencies. The Trust promotes efficient partnerships between public, private, and nongovernmental bodies to improve service nationally, regionally, and locally. (The diagram on the following page illustrates these relationships.)

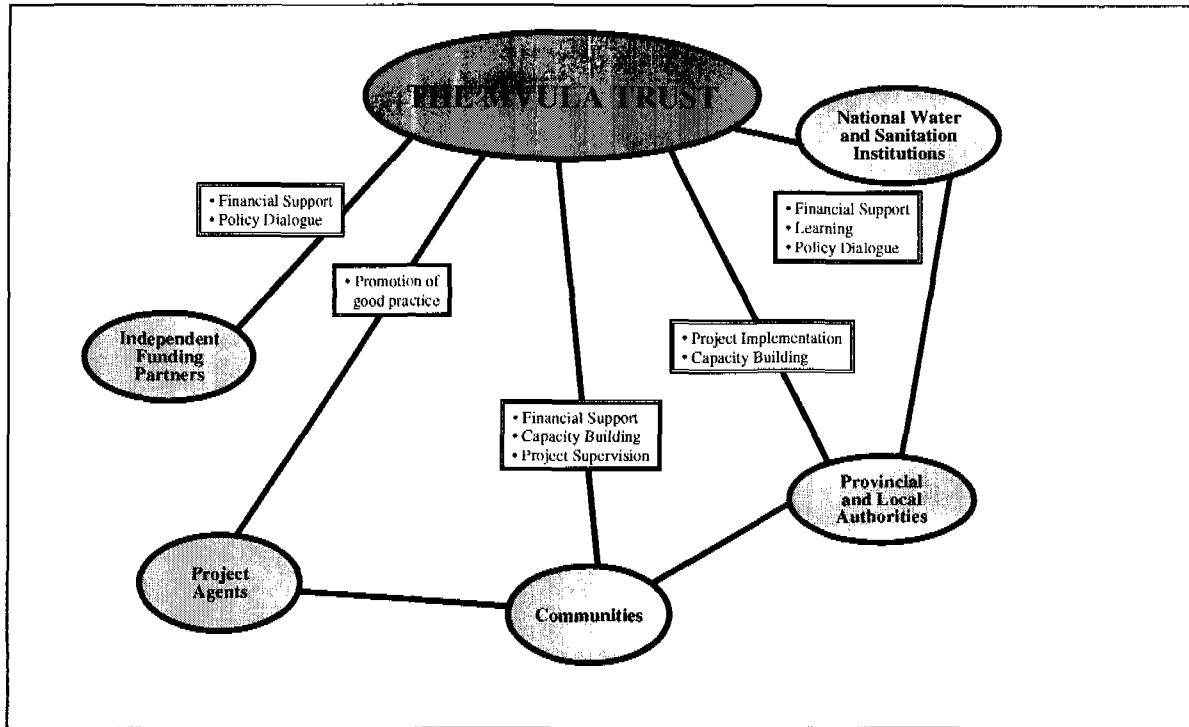
Key Functions of the Mvula Trust

- Facilitates and finances a portfolio of community water supply and sanitation projects.
- Supports water and sanitation policy development affecting access to service for the poor.
- Builds capacity for local agencies.
- Promotes innovative approaches to sector development.
- Disseminates information about the sector and learns from practical applications.
- Facilitates loan finance for higher levels of service.

Mvula's Policy

The earlier description of the Morapalala project shows Mvula policies in practice. The principles are applied as follows:

- *Sound project selection criteria.* Projects are selected on the basis of cost-effectiveness, the community's ability to organize itself and manage a project, and its willingness to pay for the services provided.
- *Grant finance ceiling.* A fixed amount of up to US\$47¹ is allocated per capita, unless the settlement is smaller than 1,500 people, in which case the grant ceiling is increased. This promotes the equitable distribution of funding and an emphasis on cost efficiency.
- *Up-front contribution by community.* Until recently, Mvula required communities to contribute to the capital cost of the project, (8 percent of the project cost for water supply projects). This policy was changed recently because it was incompatible with government policy. Current policy is that communities must contribute to an "emergency fund" for major maintenance in the future. These contributions can be made progressively through the project planning and construction phases but must be received before commissioning. The amount to be paid is about 5 percent of the capital cost.



- *Management by the community.* The community plays a direct role in managing the project. Members of the community are required to set up a water committee, or an equivalent body, which appoints the project implementing agent and training agent (generally consultants), control the flow of finance (as sole signatories on their own bank account), and make key decisions during project implementation. This committee also has managerial and financial responsibility for ongoing service provision after the project is completed. New local government structures could play a role here but local governments currently do not have the capacity to assist in most rural areas.
- *Community ownership of assets.* The community owns infrastructure constructed under the project.
- *Use of private agents.* The community appoints project agents to plan the project and to support the community in managing the project. Training agents are also appointed to carry out training throughout the project cycle. These agents are generally private consultants but may be NGOs.
- *Service level selected by the community.* The community decides on service levels, taking funding constraints into account. Although Mvula does not specify the level of service on water projects, a public standpipe service has typically been provided. But this level of service has not been

popular and new emphasis is being placed on offering a mix of service levels, with loan funding applied to cover the additional costs of higher levels of service.

- *Emphasis on sanitation.* With sanitation, efforts are initially geared toward health awareness programs to stimulate demand.
- Once this phase is complete, the local choice is typically a ventilated improved pit (VIP) toilet. A fixed grant is provided per household, with the household required to make up the difference between the cost and the amount of the grant.
- *Community as service provider.* The community, operating through a water committee or equivalent body, must take responsibility for managing the water or sanitation system after the project is complete, with limited support from Mvula. The key here is raising funds from community members to cover the ongoing costs of providing service.

Mvula Trust plays the role of grant financier, facilitator, and monitor of the program. The Trust has regional offices staffed with engineers and project facilitators who initially appraise projects, facilitate implementation, control the flow of funds to the community, and monitor progress. The following table shows how far the Mvula water supply and sanitation program has progressed.

Progress on the Mvula Rural Water and Sanitation Program

Water supply	
Number of projects funded	267
Number completed	126
Number in progress	141
Average cost per capita ¹	\$40
Sanitation	
Number of projects funded	94
Number completed	1
Number in progress	93
Average cost per household ¹	\$240
<small>Note: Figures are for end of 1997; costs are expressed in U.S. dollars. 1. Cost covers project planning, awareness promotion, and facilitation.</small>	

The Mvula Project Cycle

Details of the project cycle are shown in tables appended to this report. The basic elements of the project cycle are discussed below.

Planning phase. By the time a project enters the planning phase, Mvula has normally committed to providing the capital funds, based on the feasibility study. At this time there has typically been little social intermediation, and detailed design work has not started.

Progress in this phase and later depends on the community's appointment of a project agent and a training agent. Typically the project agent is an engineer and the training agent is a "social" consultant in private practice or an NGO. Mvula Trust has clear guidelines for the work these agents must do. The project agent is expected to coordinate planning and design, support the establishment of proper community management arrangements, and generally advise the community about how the project should work. The training agent trains the water committee in basic business management skills and trains the community in health and hygiene awareness.

This phase is important to project success because at this stage the community's long-term ability to manage the project is assessed and strengthened if need be. The community's commitment to paying for the service is also gauged at this stage, as their willingness to pay up-front amounts to a yardstick for commitment to the project. Mvula has a key, albeit small, role to play in this phase

in monitoring both social intermediation and technical progress.

Construction (implementation) phase. With the stage set during the planning phase, project construction is relatively straightforward, using now well-accepted labor-intensive methods. Difficult issues to deal with include the selection of people to work on the project and the practical difficulties of maintaining funding flows. Social intermediation continues during this phase, with an emphasis on skills required for the ongoing provision of services.

Post-project phase (providing services). The Mvula approach places full reliance for management of the water supply or sanitation system on the community, represented by the water committee (or equivalent), which has been involved since the planning phase. Mvula does provide for limited ongoing support to the water committee, but only limited support from local government, so the water committee is largely on its own. Some are able to retain some support from the agents who advised them earlier.

South Africa's Water Sector

Within government, the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry has taken primary responsibility for rural water supply and sanitation. In 1994, after the election of the new government, the department set up its Community Water Supply and Sanitation Program (CWSSP) as one of the main components of the government's Reconstruction and Development Program. The intention of this program is to expand coverage of adequate water supply and sanitation to all rural South Africans over a 10-year period. This would require an estimated

annual disbursement of R1.2 billion (US\$240 million), but the current rate of disbursement is about R400 million (\$80m) a year. The government spends roughly one-tenth of a percent of GDP on rural water and sanitation. (See figures on the South African economy and the RWS sector.

The CWSSP is not founded on demand-driven principles. Projects are selected based on a nationally coordinated planning process. No ceilings are applied on per capita subsidies and no capital contribution is required from recipient communities, although in principle communities are required to pay for the systems' operating and maintenance cost. (Whether and to what extent they do is unclear.)

Currently, the Mvula program runs parallel with the government's CWSSP. In terms of financial commitments, it is about one-tenth the size of the CWSSP. The two programs have separate policies so there are difficulties about what policy variations mean in practice, but the programs have been run together with reasonable success. Partly this success is attributable to the good relationship maintained between Mvula Trust and the Department of Water Affairs, but this means Mvula has had to make compromises in its policies, particularly about up-front payments by the community. Also, Mvula has had to shift from solely running only its own program toward being an implementing agent under the CWSSP.

The South African Economy	
Population	38 million
Rural population	17 million (45%)
Gross domestic product, 1997	US\$135 billion
Average government commitment to RWS, past 3 years.	US\$141 million per year
RWS spending as share of GDP	0.10 percent

Rural Water And Sanitation In South Africa: Current Status	
Population without "adequate" water supply	45 percent
Population without "adequate" sanitation (But about 60 percent of rural South Africans have built their own pit latrines, of some sort). Note: "Adequate" water supply here means 25 liters per capita within 200 meters of dwelling. "Adequate sanitation" means ventilated improved pit latrine or equivalent.	90 percent

Project Results

There is considerable variation in the settlement conditions and social institutional relationships in South Africa. This affects the way projects are run by different communities, as the examples below (reflecting different stages in the project cycle) suggest.

Initiating a Project

Ruben Phutsone lives in Tsita, in the northeast corner of the Eastern Cape province. Since childhood he has dreamed of bringing water to Tsita and, partly through his efforts, a water committee was established in the early 1990s for villages in the area. Representatives of the committee attended water-related meetings in the

region and at one of these they met a representative of Mvula Trust. This gave them the opportunity to put in an application for funding for a water project, which brought them together with a consulting engineer who could help them with a feasibility study.

Other villages may follow other routes to project initiation. Sometimes a consulting engineer plays a leading role in making the first contact, sometimes the local authority puts the community in touch with Mvula Trust.

Setting up a Water Committee

In Tsita the water committee was established well before the project commenced and had the support of the

community from the start. In other projects the committee is set up later in the project cycle, but always before

planning starts. Having a committee that represents the interests of the community is central to project success, but success also often depends on a key individual who drives the project.

There are practical reasons for keeping a balance between strong leadership and the democratic process. With the Fairview project, in KwaZulu/Natal province, for example, a water committee was established but the chairman, Mr. Mbhele, made most of the decisions about the project, so others knew very little about what was happening. The situation ended tragically. Mr. Mbhele's death brought a loss of drive and understanding of what the project was about. Further complicating the situation in Fairview, traditional tribal leadership is still relatively strong and sometimes conflicts with new democratic structures.

Interactive Planning

Morapalala, where the village decided to increase the number of standpipes and cut down on other project components, is a good example of how a community can be involved in planning a system that suits its needs. The community in Tsita also played a central role in planning. It was the community that showed the engineer the springs high in the mountains that finally served as the source of water. Also, residents were consulted about where to put the reservoir and (in detail) about where standpipes should be positioned.

It is essential to train the water committee during the planning process. At Tsita the training consultant organized regular training workshops aimed primarily at committee members. The workshops often used role-playing or group discussions, and members were also given manuals developed by the agent. A clear

distinction was made between meetings to make project decisions and training-related activity.

Managing Project Finances

Training related to the management of project finances, where the level of responsibility and skills required are greatest, is particularly important. The committee typically identifies a bookkeeper, often a young person with good schooling who can manage a cash book, fill out bank registrations, and so on. For a project as large as the one at Tsita, getting this job done properly is difficult, and the training agent has to play a substantive role.

Getting community-based financial management running properly has presented difficulties, but Mvula remains convinced that community management of finances is essential to building sustainable projects. At Leokaneng, in the Northern Province, for example, there had been some concern about the extent to which the community felt ownership of the project. But, according to community representatives, "The day the chequebook arrived with the words 'Leokaneng Development Forum' printed on the top—then we knew it was our project, and not [the engineer's]."

Providing Ongoing Post Project Services

After the project is complete and the project agent (engineer) and training agents have completed most of their work, the community is left largely to its own devices. Then the long-term benefits of effort put into establishing a strong, representative, well-trained water committee can be measured.

Again, Morapalala serves as a good example. The community's original visions has had to be translated into practical management arrangements. The community now meets quarterly to discuss issues related to the system, and the water committee produces annual financial statements for the community detailing how much money has been collected over the past year and how the money has been used. Standposts are managed by "tap committees," which collect payment and oversee their standpost. If there are payment problems, the tap committees are expected to resolve them, or have their water cut off.

Nonpayment for water is inevitably the most difficult problem the water committees have to face. For example, at Leokaneng the community began to object to paying, feeling they had already paid the up-front 8 percent. Meetings were held to discuss the matter, but with little effect. Finally, the committee took the money that had been saved for operations and maintenance and purchased locks for all the taps in the village. A stand-off ensued but the community finally realized the

value to them of the water supply and agreed to pay. The taps were unlocked and there have been no problems since.

In Fairview, on the other hand, the loss of the committee chairman combined with the water committee's lack of authority has meant that little was done to persuade consumers to pay, even though they received individual yard connections as part of the project and have been required to pay only a flat rate. This has jeopardized the viability of the system. Not only has there been a leadership problem, but it is evident that this problem originated early on when the community was given funds from the local government, in addition to the Mvula grant, creating the feeling that people did not have to pay for the services.

Evaluation of the Mvula Trust

In 1996 the Mvula Trust carried out a full evaluation of its activities, using a team of consultants headed by international experts. The evaluation's generally positive findings—used in this case study—affirmed Mvula's policy position but identified areas where improvements need to be made. At the time of the evaluation, not many projects were reported to be completed or providing services. More recent evidence suggests that, of the 126 water supply projects completed to date, 70 percent are functioning satisfactorily.

Lessons and Recommendations

Demand-Driven Approach

In practice, applying demand-driven approaches has been a major challenge for Mvula Trust at the following points:

- The initial application, when the community must demonstrate if it is organized enough to find out about the program and apply for it.
- When the community must engage an engineer to put together a feasibility study, before Mvula commits to funding the project.
- When the community chooses a level of service, when demand is translated into how each person will experience the service—for example, by hand pump, public standpipe, or yard tap. When the community demonstrates its willingness to make up-front payments:

General demand for a water supply system has been fairly easily demonstrated because the amounts paid by the community are relatively small. In the early years of the program many civil engineering firms were looking for work, and the application process is relatively easy.

But now there are many more applications with completed feasibility studies than Mvula can handle, so consultants are wary of doing further work ("at risk") on feasibility studies, especially because there is a current flood of easier work available to them on other rural programs (chief among them, the national CWSSP).

On most projects the grant funds available are used to give everyone in the community an equal level of service, typically a public standpipe service. But this service level is proving unpopular. Many people want yard connections and Mvula is having to develop new approaches to deal with this higher level of demand. Constraints are primarily financial: generally the grant is not sufficient for higher service levels, so loan funding mechanisms are needed. The difficulty of getting such mechanisms in place is limiting the extent to which the higher service levels can be offered. Until this funding constraint can be dealt with, and people face the real cost of higher service levels, the demand for such service levels remains theoretical.

The extent to which demand-driven approaches can be used is also seriously compromised by the coexisting CWSSP and Mvula's need to work cooperatively with that program. Communities and consultants will clearly prefer the CWSSP as it requires no up-front contributions, typically places less emphasis on community management responsibilities, and offers more generous arrangements for consultants' fees. All things considered, it is extraordinary that the Mvula program remains oversubscribed.

Balance Between Delegated and Central Control

There is perhaps only a thin line between the principles of a demand-driven approach and those of delegated control. If grant funding is made available to all in accordance with a set of rules, and if communities are free to set up their own arrangements for using these funds and can do so properly, delegated control can be seen as integral with a demand-driven approach. The Mvula program has gone a long way toward becoming such a situation. The policy that communities must contract with project and training agents and manage the finances of the project—delegating management responsibilities to them as far as possible—has promoted the empowerment of these communities, which is essential to project sustainability.

Delegating management responsibility to community-based organizations has entailed risks and there have been failures. In two or three cases, for example, money has been stolen from the project bank account. That this has not happened on the other 360-odd projects represents an admirable record.

But in the social and institutional environment in rural South Africa in the 1990s, delegated control on its own could not work as there has not been the experience and management capacity needed. The complementary “centralized” control system that Mvula has put in place has been necessary for the success of the program. Mvula retains responsibility for laying down procedures, advising the project and training agents, directly engaging with communities where necessary, ensuring that finances are properly managed, and monitoring progress through regular visits to the projects.

Community Relationships: Creating the Right Incentives

Delegated control promotes relationships useful to a project, the most important of which has been the relationship between private businesses and community-based water communities. That this relationship has usually worked has been critical to success.

What is important about involving the private sector as project and training agents is that these consultants have an incentive to support the water committees, as they are the client. This incentive applies from the time of project conceptions, when the consultant helps initiate the project in hope of being appointed project agent. It still applies during project implementation, when normal client-consultant responsibilities promote good practice. It is important that consultants and other contractors are paid by the community instead of being appointed and paid by the government of an implementing agent, as happens under the CWSSP. In principle the consultant is expected to relate to the community, even under the CWSSP, but in practice, the consultant’s relationships with their central government clients are more important—and easier to maintain—so community organizations are often bypassed when decisions are made.

Materials suppliers also develop an important relationship with community-based organizations. For example, when pipe suppliers contract with water committees they offer not only to supply and deliver the pipes to the project but to help train the pipe layers.

Community relationships with NGOs have also been important to project success, beginning with Mvula Trust itself, which serves as the overall facilitator of the program. Mvula not only supports the community directly, but through project and training agents supports it with guidelines, information, and advice. In this way Mvula has rapidly expanded its program.

Finally, some NGOs have had a fairly long track record of working on rural water supply and sanitation

projects—sometimes as training agents, sometimes as project agents—and have brought a lot of experience and commitment to the communities’ participation in the Mvula program.

Management by Financial Rules

Mvula’s financial rules have been critical to the success of their rural water and sanitation program. The most important rules are:

- A per capita ceiling on capital grants.
- An up-front contribution from the community.

The per capita ceiling on grants has been applied for a number of reasons:

- Under a demand-driven approach, communities and those who advise them must understand that a given amount of funding will be available if they can show that they can use the funds effectively. This creates an incentive for them to set up projects autonomously.
- The ceiling promotes cost efficiency: Engineers and communities have reason to keep costs low, so they can afford the highest level of service for a given budget.
- Equity is promoted when equal resources are made available to each individual.

Mvula has not been as strict with this rule as it would like. Funding of cost overruns is considered and often approved, but Mvula recognizes that it needs to tighten up in this area.

Up-front contributions are seen as critically important to project sustainability. In South Africa the up-front contribution is no longer a capital contribution, but is placed in an emergency fund to be used for future maintenance. Still, paying 5 to 8 percent of the capital cost has been shown to strengthen people’s commitment to the project and to promote a sense of ownership. Where Mvula has relaxed this requirement, it has found project sustainability seriously compromised.

In the early years of the program, contributing labor instead of cash was permitted. The labor was not generally provided for free, but at a below-market rate. This policy did not work as those working on the project were often viewed as benefiting twice, first by not having to pay cash and second, by getting a job with at least some payment. For this reason labor can no longer be substituted for cash.

Some communities still resist up-front payments, arguing that people are too poor to pay and that government-funded projects to not require such payments. But Mvula

recognizes the need to be firm, based on evidence about the long-term benefits.

Social Intermediation

Social intermediation in Mvula projects is driven by project and training agents, who are typically consultants in private practice or NGOs, whom Mvula gives guidelines and supports with advice. The social intermediation function is divided along the following lines:

- *The project agent* facilitates the day-to-day running of the project during planning and implementation. The agent helps the water committee set up meetings, decide on levels of service, contract with other parties involved in construction, control project finances, and provide the information Mvula requires. The project agent is typically a consulting engineering practice, the engineer who takes responsibility for the project is a key person on it.
- *The training agent* has a more specific role: to provide fairly well-defined training to the water committee for all phases of the project cycle. The training agent also helps create community awareness about the project and about good health and hygiene practices.

Considering the difficulty of doing this work in often fairly remote rural locations, this arrangement has functioned reasonably well. Success often boils down to personal relationships: If the engineer and the chairman of the water committee get along, things tend to work well. But the engineer must have social and management skills. All too often engineers lack these skills, which often leads to a breakdown in social intermediation, putting the project at risk as community understanding of the project and the water committee's ability to manage the project are neglected. As a result, Mvula is considering the option of having a social consultant act as project agent. One option for the future is to have the engineer do only the project feasibility and design work, leaving project management to more socially skilled professionals.

Training agents can significantly affect project success. Early in the Mvula program training was often poorly directed and executed. Training is improving but Mvula realizes that training agents greatly need to be better trained themselves.

Project failure because of inadequate social intermediation is not only the fault of agents supporting the community. Often community dynamics are so complex that it has not been possible to set up a sufficiently representative water committee that is competent to run a project well. Mvula has learned that in larger communities (typically greater than 5,000

people) an informal committee structure does not work well. It is too difficult for informally elected bodies to represent all interests in large communities.

Other social and institutional factors have created other problems. Conflict may occur between traditional leaders and water committees, for example, where the committee is seen as taking power away from the chief, or induna. There have been similar conflicts of interest between water committees and new local government structures. Power is generally the issue. Newly elected council members want to demonstrate that they are delivering services to their constituencies, especially with increasing emphasis being placed on the need for local government in rural areas to get involved in delivering services. Mvula is having to carefully reevaluate the relationship between projects and local government.

Mvula in National Context

Finally, Mvula Trust has to put a lot of work into its relationship with the Department of Water Affairs and other national and provincial government departments. The Department of Water Affairs has been consistently supportive of Mvula over the past few years and, since 1996, has been allocating funds to the Trust to implement projects, giving Mvula reasonable, though not complete, flexibility about how these projects are implemented. But one of the basic difficulties Mvula faces in implementing a demand-driven program is the strong view among politicians that clean water and sanitation should be given to communities. Most government departments provide grant funding for the full capital cost and often the operating cost of water and sanitation systems in rural areas. Mvula has found it difficult to promote a demand-driven approach in this environment.

Still, Mvula sees itself as a learning organization and remains determined to apply sound policy, evaluate its programs, and work with government to bring about improvements. This approach has brought considerable benefits to South Africa's water sector in the past five years, but much remains to be done.

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ANNEX 1: BASIC PROJECT FACTS

Project objectives	To improve the health and welfare of poor, disadvantaged South Africans in rural and peri-urban communities by improving access to safe, sustainable water and sanitation services.
Project components	Capital funding, subproject facilitation, monitoring, and training.
Duration: start and end dates	Started end 1993; still running; overall life dependent on funding.
Total funding; average annual expenditures U.S. dollars	Total: \$20 million; annual: \$7 million.
Sources of funding	Core funds from IDT and Kagiso Trust; EU; other international funders; South African government.
Number of regions covered:	National but major thrust in four of nine provinces (those with the largest rural populations).
Number of communities targeted	360 communities at present.
Number of facilities to be constructed	Typically one project per community.
Physical achievements to date (communities, facilities, and so forth):	Of 267 water supply projects, 126 have been completed, providing water to about 400,000 people. All 94 sanitation projects are still under way.
Range of community size	Community size ranges from 500 to 20,000 people, but Mvula activities now focus on communities of under 5,000 people.
Average project cost per capita:	Per capita capital cost: approximately \$40.
Average water system cost per capita:	Funding up to R235 (\$47) per capita for communities with more than 1,500 people. Average per capita cost to date: \$40.
Average sanitation facility cost per capita:	Funding allocated at R600 (\$120) per household for construction and R600 (\$120) for training, health awareness, and overhead.
Average software cost for full project cycle, as percentage of per capita investment:	Mvula facilitation: 15 percent Consultant facilitation: 15 percent Training: 5 percent
Cost of administration, overhead, learning, and the like, as percentage of project cost.	Mvula overhead: 15 percent

ANNEX 2: PROJECT RULES

<i>Project rules</i>	
<i>Eligibility criteria</i>	
Who is eligible to receive services?	Any rural community that meets Mvula funding criteria.
Are more communities and geographic regions eligible than can be served?	Yes. In relation to demand, Mvula has limited funds. R1,200 million is needed annually to satisfy projected national demand in 10 years. Mvula disburses R30 million annually.
What criteria are used to select communities or regions from those that are eligible?	Four major criteria are: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Availability of funds. • Extent to which community is organized. • Cost efficiency. • Willingness of community to make up-front payment. Mvula has developed a "niche" for dealing with smaller, more remote communities.
<i>Project initiation and information flow</i>	
Are there mechanisms for flow of information to all eligible communities?	Yes. Information disseminated through Mvula regional offices, consultants, NGOs, and provincial government.
Who makes the initial request for a subproject?	The community.
Are procedures in place to verify community demand?	The community application is the first indicator of demand, then the community hires a consultant to prepare a feasibility study. Beyond that, demand is assessed as part of project appraisal.
<i>Financial policy</i>	
What are cost-sharing and cost-recovery arrangements for investment costs?	Currently subprojects are predominantly grant-funded by Mvula. The community must pay about 5% of capital costs up front, but this goes toward an emergency repair/replacement fund.
Is there a ceiling on subsidies/credits?	Yes, for water supply, \$47 per capita for larger projects and up to \$90 for smaller projects (fewer than 1,500 people). For sanitation, \$120 per household for construction costs.
What are the terms of credit?	Mvula does not provide loans but facilitates the involvement of lenders.
Is the amount the community contributes linked to the level of service requested? (Do they pay more for a higher level of service?)	New arrangements are now being put in place to deal with mixed levels of service. In general, higher service levels must be funded through loans and community contributions rather than grants. Individuals must pay more if they want higher service levels.
What are the financial policies for O&M and replacement?	The community must finance O&M costs using income raised through tariffs paid by users of the service. But provisions are being made for grant funding to provide for support and mentorship to communities acting as service providers. Mvula initially also paid an incentive of 5 percent of project cost to the community after two years, if the system was still running satisfactorily. This has been discontinued.
How does financial policy create incentives to minimize costs?	There is a ceiling on the amount of grant funding provided per capita. The more cost-efficient the subproject, the higher the level of service that can be provided.
<i>Options for technology and service level</i>	
Is there flexibility in technical designs and standards to respond to a wide range of demands?	Design standards are laid down but there is flexibility as there is a wide variety of circumstances. If higher levels of service are provided, the extent to which design standards can be improved depends on the amount of funding that can be raised in addition to the grant.
Are service levels linked to costs presented to communities? Does price influence community choice?	At present Mvula plays a major role in influencing technology choice and the cost of different levels of service is not emphasized. But in the future, Mvula intends to link service levels to price.

<i>Informed choice</i>	
Who decides what service level the community will receive?	In the past this was laid down by Mvula and government policy. In the future, it is to be based on community choice, with different prices for different levels of service.
How are decisions made (meetings, vote, representatives)?	The community elects a representative committee, generally referred to as a water committee. The committee makes most of the day-to-day decisions, but often mass meetings are held to make more important decisions.
Are community O&M responsibilities clear before community makes an informed choice?	There is considerable variety but generally water committees are sufficiently informed. However, although they are aware of their responsibilities, they are not always prepared to take them on.
Does the project provide qualified assistance to facilitate choice?	The project agent and the training agent are paid from subproject funds to support the community in the decisionmaking process.
Does the community make an informed choice to participate and sign the request?	Yes.
<i>Delivering and sustaining services (highlight community role)</i>	
What is the community's role in managing funds?	Subproject funds are paid into a bank account controlled by the water committee, which pays agents and for construction costs. Mvula has a system for monitoring and checking the way the account is managed.
Can the community choose who delivers the software?	Yes. The community selects the project agent and the training agent.
Does the community participate in selecting and supervising construction? In procuring materials?	Except for specialized work, construction is carried out by members of the community. Materials are procured by the community based on the project agent's recommendation.
Who owns the facilities? Who is responsible for sustaining them?	In early subprojects the facilities were owned by the community. New procedures require that they be owned by the local government and operated by the community under contract to the local government. But in most cases it will take years for this to take practical effect.

ANNEX 3: PROJECT CYCLE

<i>Activity</i>	<i>Detailed steps</i>
Selection of broad areas of intervention	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Established as part of Mvula policy. Focus is on former homelands.
Dissemination of project rules	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mvula has set of rules. Consultants, NGOs, civic associations, and Mvula itself disseminate information.
Initial community selection and subproject identification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Based on application submitted by community. Community required to commission engineer of its choice to prepare a feasibility study. For projects funded by DWAF, Mvula and DWAF decide whether subproject has merit before feasibility study is carried out. In KwaZulu/Natal (and increasingly in the Eastern Cape), local government decides which projects are to be supported.
"Pre-investment" / preparation work: social intermediation, community organization, village action plan, and so forth.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Consulting engineer appointed by the community essentially becomes the project agent pending project funding. Consulting engineer does feasibility report "at risk." At this stage, little community organization is required.
"Pre-investment" technical work: engineering design, selection of level of service	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Design done only to 'feasibility level' at pre-investment stage. Mvula provides guidelines. Level-of-service decisions are made at this stage. Policy to date allows little choice other than public standpipes, but some projects allow other levels of service.
Appraisal and approval of subproject (to release funds)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mvula staff visits the community to assess the project: focus on technological feasibility and community capacity and demand. Mvula staff prepares appraisal report. Report submitted to Mvula operations committee and then to board of trustees for larger projects. DWAF involved in approving projects; they also need to fit within provincial business plans.
Planning phase	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Training agent appointed by and contracted to the community. (Project agent appointed pre-investment). Mvula provides guidelines for these agents. Training of the water committee undertaken to build capacity to manage the subproject, improve health and hygiene awareness, and so forth. Detailed design prepared. Mvula pays the community for feasibility and planning phase work. The community pays the project agent and the training agent. The community contribution (minimum 5 percent of capital costs) to be collected before end of planning phase, to be paid into the emergency fund.
Implementation (construction):	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Community-based (labor-intensive) construction methods used. The community decides on the basis for selecting workers. The project agent facilitates the process of managing construction, ordering materials, and so forth. Should progressively hand responsibility over to the water committee. Mvula makes progressive payments to the community. The community pays agents, workers, suppliers, and the like.
Implementation (social intermediation):	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ongoing training of the community, with focus on construction, financial management, tariff collection, and communication with consumers.

Operating and maintaining facilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The water committee is expected to raise enough revenues from users of service to cover O&M costs. • The community is expected to run the service, with some support (neither material nor financial) from others, including Mvula. • On earlier projects Mvula provided an incentive amount to be paid out if the project was running satisfactorily after two years, (now discontinued).
Follow-up	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mvula undertakes limited follow-up, typically quarterly visits for first year. If the committee requires help, Mvula can appoint a social consultant.
Monitoring, evaluation. Learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Mvula monitoring process includes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reporting with each payment tranche. • Monthly site meetings. • Audit of books at third tranche. • Occasional targeted research on selected projects. • Post-project evaluation visits at 6 months and 2 years. • An evaluation of the program was carried out after two years, and results are being incorporated into new policy.

Notes:

¹ South Africa's currency is the rand. An exchange rate of R5.00 to the U.S. dollar is used throughout this paper.

GENDER AND SUSTAINABILITY

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INTRODUCTION

Throughout the last two decades, as ideas about the most effective ways to deliver and sustain development projects (housing, water, etc) changed worldwide, women's roles as the main water and sanitation users became progressively apparent. This led to increased examination over the last three decades of the issues concerning women and their part (or not) in the development process. People became "gender aware", looking with new eyes at development and development processes. These new eyes revealed what is now well documented in countless examples from all over the developing world: that women's needs, as distinct from men's, have been invisible in most project planning and implementation. The absence of women in the process, and in decision-making regarding development projects, resulted in the failure of many these projects. Furthermore, development projects have sometimes not benefited women, but have further disadvantaged them, adding to their workload and failing to recognise their roles in the community.

GENDER

The key to understanding how development work affects men, women, girls and boys, is grasping the concept of gender. The distinction between "gender" and "sex" is made to emphasise that everything women and men do, and everything expected of them, with the exception of their sexually distinct functions, can and does change over time according to changing and varied social and cultural factors (Oxfam Gender Training Manual : 1994).

A working definition of gender is the following:

People are born female or male, but learn to be boys and girls who grow into men and women. They are taught what the appropriate behaviour and attitudes, roles and activities are for them, and how they should relate to other people. This learned behaviour is what makes up gender identity, and determines gender roles. (Oxfam Gender Training Manual : 1994).

However, in the development world gender issues are usually seen as women's issues, but gender means men and women, and crystallises in the social differences between men and women. Gender roles are dynamic, with relationships always subject to change. The community concept of who performs what roles becomes clear as development projects progress. The development projects that were committed to gender sensitivity and did not come with preconceived ideas of roles and responsibilities of women and men, had better results in terms of sustainability (WSP-ESA 2000:4).

The need for rapid response and specialist inputs during the last decade has often meant that development projects were conceived and implemented in a top-down manner. Complex logistics requiring co-ordination with a wide range of governmental organisations, political sensitivities, and the very large numbers of people to be served and housed were factors which affected the implementation of especially water supply and housing projects. The approach whereby speed of delivery is a priority, had often precluded proper discussion with the affected people, overlooked gender considerations, and resulted in inappropriate and therefore ineffective and non-sustainable projects and facilities (WEDC 2000 : 19).

ROLE OF WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

For many years development projects have been technical projects, focussing mainly on the construction work of the water supply and houses. Villagers and communities, especially women, were seen as just users and beneficiaries. However, since the 1970's, possibilities to participate in planning, management and maintenance of development projects were broadened for these villagers and communities. But when the project managers said they worked with "villagers", "leaders" and "committees", they almost always dealt only with the male population. Women were usually only a target group for health education.

In the 1980's, a more gender-sensitive approach has shown that women have several roles to play in matters of development, by tradition and by necessity. Women have very specific ideas about what they want and what they need. Additionally, their participation often enhanced efficiency and effectiveness of, for example, the use and operation of water installations and sanitation facilities.

Currently, there are many theories explaining the role women have played in the past, and now should play, in development projects. These theories are based on research done in the rest of Africa (Kenya, Malawi, Botswana, Burkina Faso, etc) and the Middle Eastern countries (Nepal, India, Bangladesh, etc), and put forward that women are marginalised in decision-making processes in development projects (see Adepoju et al, 1994 and Gianotten et al, 1994). The impact of this holds a particular significance for the lives of women.

WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

In South Africa, more than half the population are women. The majority of the women live in the rural areas where they suffer from water shortages and lack of sanitation facilities. The status women are afforded in the rural areas is closely linked to the patriarchal society and culture they live in. In most rural communities in South Africa the men are seen as the key players in decision-making processes, while the women toil away in the fields and in the households. This implies that men apparently have more power than women do in general decision-making processes in the communities.

The traditional structures in the rural communities still remain, despite "westernisation" and inevitable cultural change. The people remain socially and culturally attached to their traditional customs and values. For centuries women have been minors under the guardianship of their fathers, brothers or husbands. A complex system of customs, taboo's, relationships and regulations controlled the daily lives of the women. In the same instance, men are seen as the heads of the households, the community's representative to the outside world and the decision maker. This led to the rural women being portrayed as beneficiaries and spectators only, contributing nothing to the development of the community, incapable of making decisions and managing development projects, even though those projects impacted directly and heavily on their daily lives.

However, the decision-making powers of women are entrenched in the way they care for and look after the family and the interests of their husbands. The failure of so many water supply projects, where the decisions were made by the men only, is the proof of the impact of the power of the women. According to estimates, one in four water supply systems in South Africa does not function at any one time and the number of those being abandoned is nearly equal to the number of new ones being commissioned. Even functional systems often remain in disuse. One factor contributing to this situation is the lack of participation and involvement of women in the planning and decision-making processes of providing these services. If the women are not consulted by the developer, and are not part of the decision-making process, albeit behind the scenes, any intervention is doomed to fail. Research and experiences in countries such as Kenya, Ghana, Malawi, Botswana (see Adepoju et al, 1994 and Gianotten et al, 1994) and Indonesia (see Narayan-Parker, 1988) demonstrated that properly trained and supported women can make excellent health promoters, community workers and motivators, water committee members, water supply caretakers, fund raisers, tariff collectors, treasurers and construction workers.

Current policies and strategies in South Africa in development is emphasising the need for planners and developers to focus on the participation and training of women, almost to the exclusion of the men. Gender is a dynamic concept, and roles for women and men vary greatly from one culture to another, even from one social group to another within the same culture. A person can never be completely separated from the culture in which he or she grew up. Understanding the gender differentiation and the needs of the genders will refine the ability to fine-tune policies and interventions by being aware of the complex ways in which society slots people into different categories and roles, and of the ways these roles can be the basis of both cooperation and conflict.

Research funded by the Water Research Commission (WRC) on gender issues and constraints in rural water supply and sanitation projects in the Northern Province and the Eastern Cape (Duncker 1997 and Duncker 1999), revealed interesting facts. The focus of the research has been mainly on women but was not intended to diminish in any way the importance of community/public participation, i.e. the organised involvement of a wide spectrum of men and women in development projects. The overriding goal of development is to place people, their behaviour and their interaction with and within the environment at the centre of all development activities. The research revealed that it seems that rural women are not as oppressed as they were thought to be. The rural women interviewed during the research responded that they were satisfied with their roles and responsibilities in their communities, and that they felt happy about their roles in water supply and development projects. This implies that the women felt that the decisions that were made suited them and that they exerted enough influence in the decision making process to be satisfied with the outcome (see transparencies). It also means that the women do not exercise their decision-making power in the

communities openly, for various reasons such as:

- The accepted patriarchal culture in the communities is such that women are seen as minors and therefore not supposed to be making decisions affecting the whole community.
- Most of the older rural women in the communities are illiterate and prefer to have educated men on the structures and committees that deal with outsiders. The women are normally shy in the presence of outsiders.
- The workload of the rural women is already too heavy to have time to attend project meetings. This workload is closely linked to their accepted cultural roles of supporting and caring for the family and household.
- Many of the younger women have small babies to attend to, but raise their views during general conversations to the women who are able to attend the meetings.

During the research it was observed that the women on the committees were not free to express their views or to participate in decision-making. The women were mostly illiterate and only sat on the committee to fulfill the required quota of 30% expected by the policy on water supply and sanitation and the funding agencies. This strengthens the impression of the researchers that women made the decisions before the issues were tabled at meetings, and that the issues were discussed at meetings so that it was seen to be the men making the decisions.

The predominant roles played by women in the water supply and sanitation projects included preparing food for committee members at general and site meetings and preparing the venue for these meetings. When water supply and sanitation projects were initiated, the developers and consultants usually worked through the local structures in the villages, which were male dominated. These structures and committees were male dominated because the villagers preferred educated men to represent the village to outsiders. The developers were also predominantly male and according to the cultural belief, women were not supposed to act forward in speaking with men from outside the village. The men in the villages were regarded as the decision makers and therefore the representers of the members of the villages.

The men also undertook the community liaison tasks such as informing the villagers about the development projects, but also obtaining the villagers' opinions regarding the functioning and effectiveness of the water/sanitation committees. Reasons provided by the spokespersons (men and women) for men undertaking the community liaison tasks, were the following:

- it is a male's duty to liaise with the villagers;
- men have more authority and respect; and
- men have the required public speaking skills.

During the construction phase of water supply and sanitation projects, the women played a more substantive role in the sense that women were employed as team supervisors over the construction teams consisting of women. However, the responsibility of labour payments and overall supervision of construction remained functions of the male committee members. When labourers from the villages were employed on the water supply and sanitation projects, more women than men were involved as labourers. After completion of the construction of the water supply and/or sanitation facilities, women were not given the opportunity to take on the responsibility for either the operation or the maintenance of the water supply systems in the villages, but were wholly responsible for the operation and maintenance of the sanitation services in their yards. This can be attributed to the fact that the health and hygiene of the household were the responsibility of the women since traditional times.

However, the research showed that decision-making within the household was very much a shared responsibility. Men and women indicated that they took decisions together, especially regarding matters of the family. Water supply and sanitation projects were issues that were covered in the village by all, but the research showed that the decisions were made by the men in both cases during the meetings, but that the issues were discussed before the meetings and the women made known what they wanted from the water supply and sanitation projects.

THE FUTURE

The breakdown of a big number of water supply and sanitation facilities and the unsustainability of projects has been to a great extent attributed to the insufficient involvement of women. If development is to be effective, it must be a cooperative enterprise between men and women in all sectors and sections of society

(Water and Sanitation News, Sept 1995). Gender balance in community/public participation and decision making leads to shared responsibilities between women and men in the family and the community as a whole. Improved access to resources (e.g. land, water, information, training) for women results in the increased ability to make decisions about their own lives, their family life, and the development of the community.

Developers and service providers should be made aware of the anomalies and the differences in the understanding of gender issues in South Africa. Strategies will have to be developed to address gender issues in South Africa in an innovative way, keeping in mind the experiences in the rest of Africa, but addressing the needs of the men **and** the women **within** their cultural milieu. Working within, and respecting the boundaries and limits of a specific culture, facilitating the men and women through the process of cultural change, will ensure the sustainability and return of investment of any intervention or any project.

Policy support should be aligned to the needs of the men and the women, working towards the ultimate of gender equality (within the cultural milieu) and gender balance in all projects. This implies the development of gender awareness packages, gender awareness workshops for women and men, and eventually empowerment workshops for women and men.

CONCLUSION

Traditionally the women's role was centred in giving birth to children and taking care of the home. Consequently, all matters regarding participation, decision making and development were the exclusive domain of the men. The old customs and values kept women "behind the screen", where they had to make their influence felt by subtle, and sometimes overt, influencing strategies. However, times and cultures have and are changing. For the last three decades more and more women were educated. Women are now becoming more and more knowledgeable on issues regarding development in their communities (Duncker 1999: 24).

A gender sensitive approach seeks to change existing situations into situations where more equality and justice (i.e. gender balance) prevail, but takes into account existing attitudes, roles and responsibilities of men and women. It provides opportunities and mechanisms for men and women to evaluate the existing patterns and to look for possible actions to improve the balance between women's and men's work, control and benefits. Gender issues are not separate or additional issues to be addressed; it is a way of seeing, a perspective, a set of insights, which informs our understanding of people and society. Gender is at the heart of human identity and all human attitudes, beliefs, customs and actions. Gender is one of the corner stones of sustainability.

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GEMSA

Gender Mainstreaming in South Africa

Subject title : Action plan
Type of session : Interactive presentations.

Outcomes – on completion of this Unit, participants will have

- Demonstrated clear actions that have to do with their work, gender mainstreaming and which they can really implement

Assessment criteria:

- Presentation of plans

Gender mainstreaming in South Africa needs support and commitment of decision – makers in the Water and Sanitation sector. To be able to achieve the objective of the project, commitment is needed from decision-makers, participants will put develop their own action plans indicating what they are going to implement in their work.

Hand-outs: Template on action plan
Text on examples for gender mainstreaming

Example of a template for an Action Plan

Action to be undertaken: Formulated as a positive action (E.g.: gender is introduced in the mission statement of my organization)						
Activities	Name of person who is responsible	Resources needed: Material	Resources needed: Human	Resources needed: Financial	Dead-line	Obstacles
Activity 1:						
Activity 2:						
Activity 3:						
Activity 4:						

You may like to add a detailed time schedule for all the activities

Activity 1	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	Ma	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
Sub-activity												

Checklist of strategy options for incorporating gender in water and sanitation.

- Introduce gender issues in sector reviews, policy workshops, and other activities that are part of policy development
- Put gender issues on the agenda of staff meetings
- Send staff members to gender workshops
- Budget for gender awareness activities
- Mobilise funding opportunities
- Lobby and advocate for gender mainstreaming
- Monitor gender issues regularly
- Employ gender analysis in designing projects