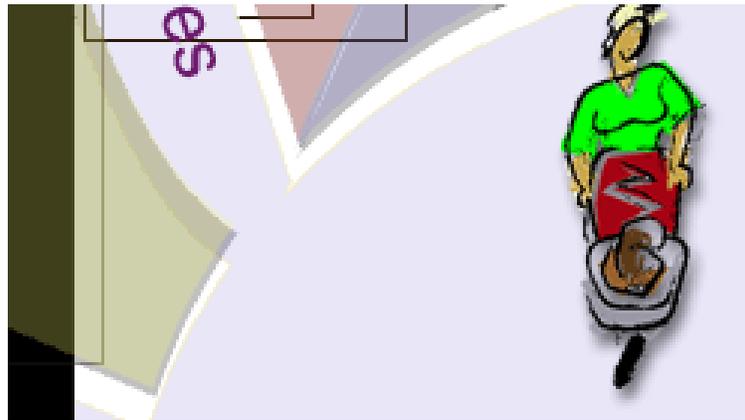


Facilitator's Guide

Awareness and Skills Training for Gender Mainstreaming in Rural Travel and Transport in Africa



Gender and Rural Travel and Transport Initiative
(GRTI)

*Prepared for the World Bank by
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DFID	United Kingdom Department for International Development
GNP	Gross National Product
GOZ	Government of Zimbabwe
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMT	Intermediate Means of Transport
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
RTTP	Rural Travel and Transport Programme
RTT	Rural Travel and Transport
Sida	Swedish International Development Agency
SLEF	Sara Longwe Empowerment Framework
SSA	Sub Saharan Africa
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNIFEM	United Nations Fund for Women

OVERVIEW OF GENDER, POVERTY AND RURAL TRANSPORT¹

Conceptualising Gender and Poverty

Gender is a key development issue for the World Bank. It has important implications on three aspects of the Bank development goals and strategies, namely equity, efficiency, and sustainability. Equity has important implications on development because the Bank's primary mission is *poverty reduction*. Several poverty assessment studies in Sub-Saharan Africa have demonstrated that women, particularly those that are heads of households, make up a disproportionate number of the poor.

Again efficiency has important implications on development because economic growth is key to development.

Lastly sustainability is critical because economic growth must be sustained over time. Since the early 1990s, poverty reduction has become a primary goal of many countries. Governments are also developing instruments and approaches to achieve the goal of poverty reduction.

World Bank poverty trends surveys show poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon that encompasses the following:

- inability to satisfy basic needs
- lack of control over resources
- lack of education and skill
- poor health, malnutrition, poor access to water and sanitation
- lack of shelter
- vulnerability to shocks, violence and crime, and
- lack of political freedom and voice (World Bank, 1999 in Booth et al: 2000: 5).

Gender, Poverty and the Household

To get a meaningful understanding of poverty, we must first begin with the household because this is where livelihoods are reproduced and sustained. Hence, strategies for poverty reduction should target the household, because decisions made in the household affect how people react in the market economy and in the wider society. Research by the World Bank, for example, has revealed that intra-household inequalities are a major cause of the incidence of poverty in developing countries (World Bank, 1999 in Booth et al, *ibid*).

Although economic theory has viewed the household as comprising a number of members who have differing points of view, income and consumption levels, the household, however, is still viewed as a unitary decision maker, and by implication, a 'harmonious' space. The assumption is that all household members seek the most

¹ This introductory paper is largely taken from 'Poverty and Transport', by Booth, Hanmer and Lovell; June, 2000. The paper could be given to the participants on the first day of the workshop as a method of establishing consensus among the participants that gender is a key component of successful RTT programs.

efficient and equitable approaches to household welfare. Twenty years ago, economists began to question this theory. Based on the research that had been carried out on households to date, the general consensus that has now emerged is that social interaction within the household has a profound effect on income distribution between women and men, adults and children, and even between boys and girls. In other words, gender and age play an influential role in income distribution. In addition, rigid gender roles occurring within the household, unequal gender relations of power which grant men more than women, greater access to household resources such as decision making within the household, information, freedom and property all act as barriers to poverty reduction and economic growth. As a result, any policy or strategy to address poverty must also interrogate the unequal relations stemming from intra-household resource allocation.

Gender, Poverty and Rural Travel and Transport (RTT)

Transport takes up a large amount of time and physical effort in the rural areas. It also wears heavily on women more than it does on men. As a result of women's involvement in domestic activities and contribution to agricultural tasks, women bear the greater part of the transport burden. Throughout the Sub-Saharan sub-region, women spend more time and energy than men in transporting goods and people. The actual time and energy spent varies from region to region and will depend on the geographical locations of the resources, cultural norms and the nature of the terrain.

According to findings from African Village-Level Travel and Transport Surveys and Related Studies (I. Barwell: 1996), women contribute at least 65 per cent of the household time spent on travel and transport. Another study by Malmberg-Calvo (1994) reports that 'rural travel and transport surveys carried out in Africa suggest that the time spent by an average household on domestic transport activities ranges from 1, 150 to 1, 490 hours per annum. These figures equate to a time input for an average adult female ranging from just under 1 hour to just over 2 hours 20 minutes every day. The transport effort for an average household ranges from about 46 to 82 ton per kilometre per annum. This equates to an average adult female carrying a load of 20kg over a distance of 2.5-6.8 km every day' (in Booth et al, *ibid*:52.). Most of the trips made are few but frequent and are made within and around the village to collect fuel and water and to cultivate fields for subsistence needs. Trips are also made to the nearest market place to market agricultural produce.

The majority of transporting undertaken by women concerning rural travel and transport is undertaken by head loading or physically carrying goods on the shoulders or by hand. In Africa, particularly, the vast majority of head loading and journeys to meet subsistence needs are undertaken by women and their transport is frequently constrained by lack of ownership or access to means of transport.

Gender Equity, Poverty Reduction and Rural Travel and Transport: Why Target Women in RTT Strategies

According to the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework ², an approach that can be used to mainstream gender in rural travel and transport, gender equity in access to and control of diverse ranges of assets are key for growth and poverty reduction in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) (World Bank: 1999). Assets can be natural, for example, land, water, wildlife, biodiversity and environmental resources. Social assets are those upon which people draw in pursuit of their livelihoods. Examples of social assets include networks, membership of groups and access to wider institutions of society. Human assets include the skills, knowledge, ability to labour and good health, which are important to the ability of a person to pursue different livelihood strategies. Physical assets are the basic infrastructure and production equipment which enable people to pursue their livelihoods, such as transport, shelter, energy and communications. Financial capital includes those financial resources, which are available to people and provide them with different livelihood options. Savings, credit or pensions comprise some of the most common financial assets.

An analysis of who has access, control and/or who owns these capital assets demonstrates that in most of rural Africa, men have more control over capital assets and hence they also have access to major resources, for example, land, water, forests and forest resources. Women, in contrast, usually have usufructuary rights to these resources by virtue of marriage or through their fathers. In some Southern African communities, a woman has no direct right to land and can only be apportioned land by her husband or father from his allotment. Historically, in the field of education, men have had greater access to education facilities and skills than women and hence to formal employment as well. This historical advantage of men over women in accessing education has marginalised women even further from economic and resource empowerment.

Intermediate Means of Transport (IMTs) for example, bicycles, wheelbarrows, hand-carts, pack donkeys, ox-drawn sledges and animal-drawn carts are key in reducing women's burden in rural travel and thus increasing their time to perform other more rewarding activities. Despite their burden, very few African women own or have access to IMTs. A combination of cultural, economic and social factors prevents women from owning IMTs. In most of the SSA sub-region, use of IMTs by women to alleviate their transport burden is rare as a result of strong cultural constraints to the use of IMTs by women. Malmberg-Calvo (1992) and Barwell, (1999) found few examples of women in Sub Saharan Africa, owning bicycles and donkey carts. Men, on the other hand, own a wide range of IMTs and they give women little access to these, even to perform their domestic chores.

If IMTs were made more available to women to enable them to perform other more rewarding activities, there is evidence from numerous case studies that labour resource released by reducing the transport burden of women would be reallocated to beneficial reproductive and productive activities and hence alleviate poverty

² A useful framework developed by the UK Department for International Development (DFID) for mainstreaming gender into rural travel and transport. For more information on the framework, refer to Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: What Contributions can we make? by DFID: 1998 and Implementing the Sustainable Rural Livelihoods Approach by Diana Carney, in DFID, op.cit: 4.

(Malmberg-Calvo: 1994). It was found, for example, that savings in time spent in water collection by rural women in Tanzania would enable them to spend the extra hours in other equally important reproductive tasks such as cultivation, firewood and wild vegetable collection, travel to the grinding mill and other household duties all of which would benefit the family (Hannan Andersson, 1985 in Booth, et al, op. cit.). In other cases, this time reduction will result in women spending more time in cooking and hence raising the nutritional levels of family meals due to the fact that a larger variety of foods or more meals are prepared.

One example in Lesotho shows that women with access to more land increased their time in the fields when the time they spend in water collection is reduced (Cairnscross, undated in Booth et. al, op. cit.) There is little evidence, however, to show that women spend the time they save in water and fuel wood collection in productive activities. Research conducted elsewhere, has however, shown that there are linkages between market and household economies (Hanmer, Pyatt and White, 1997 in Booth et al op. cit). Another study by Blackden (1996) notes that interactions between 'productive' and 'reproductive' sectors are revealed in time allocation data.

“Women operate in the productive sector only after or in conjunction with discharge of their responsibilities in the reproductive sector. Removing infrastructure constraints would increase women’s empowerment and enhance the return to their human capital by increasing their incomes. Women located in a village on a main road in Cameroon were able to spend more time producing food to sell, and as a result, made an average income of US\$570, more than twice the US\$225 earned by women in an isolated village located one and a half hours from the road (Kaur: 2000: Cameroon Poverty Assessment). Reducing the time burdens of women could increase household cash incomes for smallholder coffee and banana growers by 10 per cent, labour productivity by 15 per cent and capital productivity by 44 per cent” (Hanmer, Pyatt and White: 1997) in (Booth et. al. op. cit: 54).

In another case in Ghana, there is evidence that reliance on head loading (which is predominantly a female activity) is a significant constraint on small-farm output (Rogers: 1980 in Booth et. al. op. cit). According to an ILO Study (1998),

“African women are, in general, over worked in the rural areas and ... pressure on women’s time is an important constraint on raising agricultural production and rural living standards”.

There is also evidence in Lesotho that women spent most of their freed-time as a result of improved access to water, resting and participating in social activities (Feachem et al. 1978 in Booth et al. al. op.cit).

Reducing the time burden on women has been shown to have a positive impact on girls’ school attendance since girls are frequently pulled out of school in order to help with domestic chores. Gender relations in sub-Saharan Africa thus go a long way in explaining the constraints on economic growth especially in the agricultural sector (Hanmer, Pyatt and White: 1997).

UNIT ONE

INTRODUCTIONS

Time: 15 mins

Welcome each one of the participants when everyone is comfortably seated. Introduce yourself and the other trainer if there is one. Introductions are important as they help the participants to relax. Spend sufficient time on introductions and ask participants to tell to the rest of the group the following:

- Full name and what they would like to be called during the training
- Their designation
- Their organisation or place of work
- Their country of origin (if this is applicable)
- Their one negative and one positive experience in the area of rural travel and transport in their country.

At the end of the session, every participant should be asked to write on a piece of folded paper in capital letters the name they wish to be known by during the course. This folded paper should be placed in front of the participant so that all can read it.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

Time: 15 mins

Refresh the memories of the participants of the overall objectives of the course. It is important to have sent the objectives of the course in the letter of invitation a week or two before the workshop.

The goal of the course is

- To create a gender sensitive Rural Travel and Transport Programme in Africa.

By the end of this session, participants should be able to:

- understand the concepts used in gender analysis.
- identify gender issues in Rural Travel and Transport in Africa Programmes and Projects.
- carry out carry out gender analysis of their work.
- appreciate the importance of mainstreaming gender into Rural Travel and Transport in Africa.
- mainstream gender into all Rural Travel and Transport in Africa Policies, Programmes and Projects.

Write the objective of the training on an overhead transparency or any flip chart so that the objectives are clearly displayed for all to see. Explain the objectives of the course. Encourage participants to ask questions when ever they are not clear about anything, this will enable the sessions to be more participatory.

PARTICIPANTS EXPECTATIONS

Time: 20 mins

Ask participants to spend a few minutes thinking about:

- what their expectations of the course are, that is what they hope to get out of the course.
- When they have done this, each participant should speak out what their expectation is. As they speak them out, write each one down on a flipchart for all to see.
- When all the participants have exhausted their list of expectations, go through each of the responses one by one to see if there is general agreement on the relevance of each in relation to the course objectives.
- Together with the participants, go through the expectations and tick the ones that the workshop will meet.
- Revisit the expectations at the end of each day's training. This will enable you together with the participants, to assess whether or not the course is still within its goal and objectives. The daily assessment will enable the facilitator and the participants to take corrective measures if the expectations are not being met. This will also strengthen the approaches that are being used if the course expectations are being met. Course expectations are like a compass, they give direction to the course.
- Put the flip chart with expectations on a wall for all to see.

LEARNING CONTRACT/TRAINERS' EXPECTATIONS

Time: 15 mins

Some of the possible expectations of the trainer are:

- Sessions will be participatory as they involve adult learners.
- Participants should feel free to ask questions at any point throughout the course.

Where handouts are available, it should be explained that there is no need to make notes. It should also be explained that the Handouts will be distributed at the end of the session and not during the sessions to ensure participants' full attention.

PROGRAM

Time: 10 mins

This is the time that the participants can adopt or negotiate the programme presented.

Facilitator's Notes

It is important to have stated the objectives of the workshop in the letter of invitation.

UNIT TWO

ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Objectives:

At the end of this session, participants should be able to:

- define the concepts sex and gender
- make distinctions between a female sex role and male sex role, on one hand, and a female gender role and male gender role on the other.

Duration: Sixty (60) minutes

Materials: Flipchart, newsprint, cards, markers, handouts.

Activity 1

Step One: Explain the objectives of the unit/session to the participants.
Distribute a card to each participant
Ask each participant to answer the following questions and write their responses on the cards:

- What does the concept sex mean to me?
- What does the concept gender mean to me?
- What are the major differences between sex and gender?
- List participants' responses on a flipchart.

Step Two: In plenary,

- Bring out the major differences between the two concepts and their application in our lives.
- Distribute *Handout A* on `Sex' and `Gender'

Activity 2

Step Three: The facilitator distributes a card to each participant and asks each of them to identify a typical:

- Female sex role
- Male sex role
- Female gender role
- Male gender role.

Step Four: During plenary,

- Ask the participants to explain the major differences between the roles. Link this discussion to that held under Steps One and Two.

- Ask the participants to identify a typical female and a male gender role in the rural travel and transport sub sector.
- Distribute *Handout B on `Roles`*.

Facilitator's Notes

It is important to bring to the attention of the participants, the fact that traditionally, there was no distinction between sex roles and gender roles. As a result, this gave rise to the belief that the division of social roles between the genders is based and justified by sexual and biological differences.

As a result of this claim, it has always been argued that men have better brains and that is why they are more suited to studying such subjects as science and mathematics which enables them to be engineers, doctors and at times, political leaders or managers of corporate institutions.

Alternatively it has been claimed that looking after the home and children as well as teaching in the lower grades is work biologically suited for women because they are kind, patient and caring.

UNIT TWO

HANDOUT A

SEX AND GENDER

For a long time, sociologists, psychologists and other development theorists were of the belief that men's and women's characters, behaviour, thinking, aptitude and capabilities were natural and immutable, being God given. Hence what was considered masculine (strong, ambitious) and what was considered feminine (emotional, quiet) were seen as being determined by one's biological attributes (*Two Halves Make a Whole: Balancing Gender Relations in Development, Canadian Council for International Co-operation Match International Centre: August, 1991: 15*). However, research has now shown that a lot of the characteristics society felt were God given are in fact shaped and constructed by society hence the concepts, sex and gender.

Sex

According to Anne Oakley (cited in Suzanne Williams et al: The Oxfam Gender Training Manual; Oxfam United Kingdom; 1994: 94), sex refers to those characteristics between women and men that are

- biologically determined
- universal
- unchangeable

Common examples of men's and women's sexual characteristics include men's ability to impregnate and of women to bear and breastfeed children (*Two Halves Make a Whole: Balancing Gender Relations in Development, ibid: 15*).

Gender³

Gender is used to describe those differences between women and men that are **socially determined**. It is a set of socially constructed set of expectations that give social meaning to the male or female sex. This set of expectations are held as to the likely behaviour, characteristics, and attitudes men and women will have of each other. Each society constructs its attributes of what is 'maleness' and what is 'femaleness' so that different societies have different perceptions of what is 'man' and what is 'woman'. Thus to be 'unmanly' or 'unwomanly' is to think, act or behave in a manner that contradicts the expectations about 'men's' or 'women's' ways of thinking, acting and behaving. In brief, gender is about 'masculinity' and 'femininity', for example, men think rationally; men are strong and courageous; and men are ambitious, adventurous and are natural leaders. Women are supposed to be the opposite, irrational, weak, timid, unambitious, conservative and dependent. These constructions are not static but may vary from community to community or culture to culture. In other words, they are dynamic and change over time. For example, a

³ Extracted from S. Wilkinson; 1991: *What is Gender and Development*.

woman working on the road may be viewed with suspicion and scorn in some societies while this may not be so in another society.

Gender also defines what men do and what women do and the relations between them. The question of who makes decisions in the household, for example, about how the household income will be spent and the types of assets the household will buy, how and who will use them are culturally determined. In most societies, particularly in Africa, the social constructs about gender relations keep women subordinate to men so that women's identity and roles are looked down upon and they have less access to resources than men. Gender relations between men and women are therefore, *unequal*, hence the need for gender equity in poverty reduction strategies.

In summary, gender differences are:

- learned
- changeable over time
- have wide variations within and between cultures
- lead to inequality between women and men and boys and girls.

In addition, gender can also be seen as a socio-economic variable to analyse:

- roles
- responsibilities
- constraints
- opportunities and
- needs of men and women.

UNIT TWO

HANDOUT B

SEX AND GENDER ROLES

Roles

Sex roles are those that women or men perform as a result of their sex and cannot be performed by the other sex. Gender roles, on the other hand, are assigned by society to men (boys) and women (girls). They are learned behaviour in a given society/community that conditions which activities, tasks and responsibilities are perceived as male and female. Examples of some typical sex and gender roles, which cut across most African cultures are contained in the figures below⁴:

Table 1: Sex Roles

Women/Girls	Men/Boys
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Breastfeed• Child bearing/Pregnancy	<ul style="list-style-type: none">--

Sex division of roles has implications for women's participation in some types of work. For example, pregnancy has been used either directly or indirectly to prevent women from joining labour based road rehabilitation projects. In one project in Zimbabwe, women officers were in the habit of warning women against falling pregnant. Some were forced to drop out before the end of their contracts because they had fallen pregnant (Maramba: 1996).

Table 2: Gender Roles

Women/Girls	Men/Boys
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Fetch firewood• Fetch water• Cooking• Caring for babies and family• Weeding and harvesting• House care• Attending social functions such as weddings, funerals and also children's school functions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Pay bride-price (common in some Southern and Eastern African societies)• Heads of households• Breadwinner• Provide security in the families• Herd cattle• Decision makers• Ploughing• Weeding and harvesting• Land owners• Hunters• Leading

⁴ Adapted from a report by Neddy Matshalaga, of a *Gender Training Workshop* carried out for Save The Children Fund (UK) by the Zimbabwe Women Resource Centre and Network, 16-20 March, 1998.

Gender roles can be influenced by a person's marital status so that one may find many more single men cooking and cleaning up their houses than married men. Experiences of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Gender Focal Points⁵ illustrate that gender roles often change in conflict situations. Women and men may find themselves performing similar roles in a war situation. However, in many cases such changes are often not sustained after the war is over as the dominant culture, which perceives women as subordinate to men, reasserts itself in peacetime and the changes in gender roles are reversed.

Gender roles are also affected by:

- Age
- Class
- Race
- Ethnicity
- Religion and other ideologies
- Geographical, economic and political environment

Gender roles may be:

- Flexible
- Rigid
- Similar or different
- Complementary or conflicting

According to findings from African Village-Level Travel and Transport Surveys and Related Studies (Transport and the Village; Ian Barwell, World Bank Discussion Paper No. 344; African Region Series; October, 1996: p.25), the major part of the transport burden falls on women and girl children (See Table 3). Table 3 provide some of the typical male and female rural travel and transport related activities in.

Table 3: Some Typical Gender Roles in the Rural Travel and Transport Sub-sector

Women/Girls	Men/Boys
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fetching and head loading firewood. • Fetching and head loading water for domestic purposes. • Fetching and head loading water for construction purposes • Head loading fertilisers and other inputs to the field. • Head loading harvest from the field to the homestead. • Physically carrying or taking the sick to the hospital. • Physically taking the children to school. • Head loading produce to the market. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transporting firewood to the homestead. • Transporting water for domestic purposes. • Transporting water for construction purposes. • Transporting fertilisers and other inputs to the field. • Transporting harvest from the field to the homestead. • Transporting the sick to the clinic/hospital. • Transporting children to school. • Transporting produce to the market.

⁵ Excerpt from a UNDP and UNIFEM *Gender Mainstreaming Training/Consultation/Briefing Workshop*, Mazvikadei, Zimbabwe by Petronella Maramba and Alan Greig, 15-19 July, 1996.

UNIT THREE

GENDER ROLE STEREOTYPING

Objectives:

At the end of this session, participants should be able to:

- understand that peoples' perception of each sex's character, capabilities and attributes are influenced by how they are brought up and what their society says about men and women
- demonstrate understanding that the different types of work that men/boys and women/girls do is a direct result of how they are brought up/socialised.

Duration: 90 minutes

Materials: Flipchart, newsprint, markers and handouts

Activity 1

Step One

Explain the objectives of the unit/session to the participants.

- Ask the participants, in plenary, to answer the question: what is a stereotype?
- Record the key words on a flipchart.
- Together with participants, come to an agreed definition of stereotype.
- In pairs, ask participants to give examples of gender stereotypes and their implications on personal attributes of women and men.
- Ask participants to use *Chart 1* and give examples from their countries of Gender Role Stereotyping in the area of rural travel and transport. Examples are given of either the female or the male gender stereotypes. Ask participants to fill in the corresponding gender stereotype.
- Ask participants to discuss how stereotypes are passed from one generation to the next. Help participants to identify the various institutions through which sexual and gender stereotyping are reinforced.
- End session by showing some pictures of gender stereotyping in newspapers, advertising, school books etc.
- Distribute *Handout C.1* on 'Gender Role Stereotyping'.

Facilitator's Notes

- Using *Handout C.1*, explain what gender stereotyping .
- To take a concrete example, a sign on a highway or road might read: “men at work”. This sign might give the impression that the people on site are all men even though among them there might be women. On the contrary, signs might have been used to remind the reader that some workers are women. Instead the sign creates a wrong impression, and supports the gender role stereotype that all workers on the road are male because the work is rough and tough. In this way, that sign gives an implicit message to girls and women that they should not aspire to work on the road as this is purely a male domain.
- Also explain to the participants how children learn their identity and roles through a process of socialisation that is started in the family and reinforced through the education system, media and other public institutions (*See Handout C.2*).
- Pictures are good for sensitisation as images are bound to stick more in a person's mind than what is said. It is therefore, advisable to use *Handout C.1* as much as possible to reinforce your points.

UNIT THREE

CHART 1

Examples of Gender Role Stereotyping in Rural Travel and Transport

Female Gender Role	Male Gender Role
Passenger	-----
-----	doctor
-----	pilot
subsistence farmer	-----
-----	village cell chairman

UNIT THREE

HANDOUT C.1

GENDER STEREOTYPING

Gender Stereotyping has been defined as:

‘a common set of beliefs and attitudes that define society’s perception of the attributes and abilities of women/girls compared to men/boys’.

Origins of Stereotypes:

- Socialization
- Cultural environment
- Tradition
- Modern society
- Religious beliefs.

It is people who define certain characteristics as masculine or feminine. These social characteristics of masculinity and femininity are acquired through a complex set of processes, which start at birth. The family, being part of the wider society, and as the primary institution of socialisation, plays an important role in shaping a child’s perception of what is masculine and what is feminine. Such stereotypes are obtained from the wider society and passed on from generation to generation through the family institution.

Table 4: Gender Stereotyping/Personal Attributes

Males	Females
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Aggressive• Strong• Cruel• Leader/Decision Maker• Selfish• Stable• Rich• Assertive• Reliable• Hardworking• Organised	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Gentle• Weak• Kind• Follower• Selfless• Weepy• Poor• Dependent• Unreliable• Lazy• Disorganised

(a) Gender Role Stereotyping - means that women are portrayed in literature and various forms of media in their stereotyped roles as in stories, songs, newspapers, media, reports etc.

Gender role stereotyping occurs through various processes such as socialisation in the home where girl children are constantly being reminded to 'eat, talk and behave like a girl' and boys are told 'not to cry or behave like girls'. Gender role stereotyping developed in the home is reinforced through constant portrayals, such as in the formal education, media, literature, books, etc. of women and men occupying social roles according to the traditional gender role division models. For example, the portrayal of a father coming home from the office to a mother who has been looking after the home, and has his supper ready and waiting for him, works to support and reinforce the traditional gender division of labour by portraying it as 'normal' and 'natural'. As a result of this, girls and boys form ideas and values about who they are and what they can do according to these portrayals. Stereotyping usually lags behind reality and takes a lot for people to erase from their minds. Thus it is not unusual to find pictures that give the impression that engineers or doctors are mostly male though women have since broken into these fields and may in fact predominate.

Gender role stereotyping has been found to be one of the major reasons why women are not able to participate equally with men on labour based road rehabilitation programmes. Because men are defined as 'strong' and perceived as the breadwinners, they are more likely to find jobs on the programmes than women. Women's participation in a Sida funded labour based programme in Zimbabwe was found to be as low as 20% even though gender equality was stated as a principle for the project (Maramba: 1996).

Some negative impacts of stereotyping have been:

- Limits women's access to jobs that are not traditional women's work
- Limits women's access to decision-making in household and community
- Increased violence against women as they have become more aware of their situation and resist their position and condition. Such violence includes rape, wife beating, refusal by men to allow their wives to work etc. There is an example of an Arabic Proverb to support wife beating:
beat your woman every night, if you do not know why you are doing it, she knows.

Socialisation

Stereotyping is learnt through a process of socialisation. Socialisation starts and occurs primarily in the family where children are told how to be boys or girls. Children also learn gender stereotypes from observing adults such as fathers, mothers, uncles, aunts, brothers and sisters. Stereotypes learnt in the family are reinforced through the education system, the media, religious beliefs, songs, story-tales and public institutions such as the formal and informal employment sectors.

UNIT FOUR

POWER

Objectives

At the end of the session participants should be able to:

- Define Power.
- State the different types of power.

Duration: 1 hour

Resources: flipchart, newsprint, markers.

Activity 1

Step One

Ask the participants to do the following :

- Think of a moment in their life when you felt powerful.
- Share this incident with your neighbour. When you talk about the incident describe the incident vividly stating the people involved, state their distinct characteristics such as age, sex, racial classification, education, status if known and class.
- Identify what it is that gave you power over the other person (s) involved in the incident.

Activity 2

- Now ask your partner to think of a moment in their life when they felt powerless.
- Describe what you did when it happened?
- What was the reaction?
- What beliefs, values stereotypes and attitudes influenced such behaviour?
- What are the root causes of the beliefs?
- What else could you have done?
- What were the power bases in each of the occasions?
- **In brief** description, reflect on any new insights that you gained during both moments.

Activity 3

What is Power?

- Ask participants to define power and write the definitions on a Flip Chart.
- Let participants define **Authority**.
- Participants should bring out the difference between Power and Authority.
- As in Handout D, explain the different types of Power.
- Ask participants to describe the incidences that they have applied different kinds of Power and explain what necessitated such.

Facilitator's Notes

In bringing out the distinction between **power** and **authority**, point out to the participants that the latter is conferred power. Such power is usually conferred legally either by position such as a policeman or skill and/knowledge such as an expert in a particular field.

UNIT FOUR

HANDOUT D

POWER

Power is a tool used in gender analysis to analyse the unequal gender relations in the household and society. Power in most societies, is wielded predominantly by men, over other men, and over women, the latter being more prevalent and unequal than the former. Unequal gender relations of power manifest themselves through, for example, unequal access to education and employment facilities between boys and girls and men and women respectively and violence against women.

Traditionally, Power has been seen as:

'the ability to make someone do what you want, or the ability to make someone stop doing what they want to do without necessarily giving any reason or explanation'.

Such power could be described as zero-sum: the more power one person has, the less the other has. Hence, people who view Power in this way, view it as a 'resource', which when shared will get finished and therefore not to be shared. This perception often makes people who view power in this way turn into dictators.

According to the above analysis, Power is neutral and originates from any one or a combination of the following sources:

- political position
- financial position
- skills
- knowledge

Recently, gender theorists have begun locating the debate on power dynamics in racial, class, gender and other forms of oppression. Feminists have identified different forms of power.

Power Over

This is controlling power where people are either manipulated or coerced into supporting the person exercising the power. Such forms of power often leave feelings of inferiority in the person over whom power is being exercised. An example is when white people will lead black people to believe that they are incapable of leading national and international politics. Similarly, male dominated society may also use various institutional, ideological, cultural and religious mechanisms, to convince all women that they do not make good leaders in the public sphere. Eventually, black people and women will begin to believe what is said about them.

In Africa and many other societies, men as a group, control women through various forms of sexual, economic, emotional, psychological, religious, cultural and physical attributes. In most African societies, cultural beliefs and practices dictate that men control women and most wealth generating forms of property such as cattle, ploughs, cultivators, family income and various types of IMTs. Men thus make decisions about how and when for example, IMTs will be used even though women may need them more than men would.

The concept `Power Over' therefore means that power, is exercised by dominant social, political, economic and cultural individuals or groups, over the less powerful or the marginalised. The former have all the power while the latter have less or no power at all. Any attempt to increase women's power therefore, means that men's power must necessarily decrease.

Power To

This concept recognises that power does not only lie with the culturally, economically, politically and socially dominant individuals or groups. On the contrary, power is something that can be attained by those that are seemingly powerless.

According to this concept, **Power** is perceived as a process, which does not involve domination but one, which creates new possibilities and actions for people exercising the power. This type of power is not self-centred, but desires to see others fully realise and exploit their potential. In other words, it seeks to empower the oppressed so as to enable them to participate in their own development and that of their families and their nations.

Power With

This type of power is usually exercised in conjunction with others, such as an individual or a group. The power in such cases is derived from alliances and unity built around a common purpose or understanding.

Power From Within

This refers to a type of spiritual strength and uniqueness that resides in each of us and makes us truly human. Its basis is self-acceptance and self-respect, which extend, in turn, to respect for and acceptance of others as `equals'. Oppressed people have generally been known to possess this power and use it to persevere under difficult circumstances.

UNIT FIVE

MEN AND WOMEN'S NEEDS

Objectives:

At the end of this session, participants should be able to:

- appreciate that women and men have different needs.
- appreciate that needs arise from our roles, condition and position in society.
- identify the specific needs of women and men in the rural travel and transport sub sector.

Duration: 45 minutes

Resources: flipchart, newsprint and markers.

Activity 1

Step One

- Take a flipchart and divide into four columns and give them the following titles: *Male Roles; Need Arising; Female Role; Need Arising.*
- Using discussion from the Session on Roles, the facilitator asks participants to identify several typical male and female roles.
- Ask participants to identify the need arising from each identified role.
- Insert responses into the right column.
- Guide the discussion so that participants identify needs arising from men and women's sex and gender roles in the rural travel and transport sub-sector.

Step Two

- Participants discuss which of the women's needs and which of the men's needs are met most frequently and which are not met frequently.
- Allow participants to discuss why and link to the discussions that emerged on roles and our attitudes towards men and women's roles.

Facilitator's Notes

Our focus is on women's needs rather than on men's. This is so because it is generally women's needs that tend to be overlooked. Needs arise from firstly, the fact that we are humans and secondly, from our sex and gender roles. There are two categories of needs for both women and men.

Men's and Women's General Needs: Women and men have similar general needs. These are often referred to as basic needs. Examples of basic needs include food, shelter, medical care, water, sanitation and education. The general needs are those found in the area where sex differences and gender differences are not an issue.

Women's Special Needs: Women's special needs arise because of their different sex roles from men. This means that women have some needs that are peculiar to their sex.

Obvious examples of services that have been considered women's special needs are the need for:

- maternity clinics
- Post natal clinics
- Midwives
- Provision of reproductive health education.

These services are generally more utilised by the sex that conceives and bears the child. Men however, also need reproductive health education.

Gender Concerns: Gender roles determine gender needs. Gender concerns are those needs, which arise as a result of the ascribed gender division of roles as well as the division of labour.

Women have gender roles of housework. Their gender concern would be the constant supply of water, electricity, and adequate housing. Where women are more responsible for family health care, their main concern would be in the adequate provision of hospitals, clinics, effective and efficient public transport.

Table 5: Examples of Women's and Men's Special Needs

Women's Role	Special Need
Breastfeeding	Feeding bra, feeding bottle for use by working mothers in expressing milk
Giving birth	Gynaecologist, midwife, provision of reproductive health education, ante and postnatal care.

Table 6: Examples of Gender Roles and Needs

Roles	Needs
Child Minding	Baby food, ante-natal clinic, clothing, breastfeeding time, information on child minding
Breadwinner	Employment, skills, information on skills development or employment opportunities.
Farmer	Scotch cart, seed, plough, weeder etc.
Housewife	House, fuel, water, kitchen utensils, budgeting and time management skills

UNIT SIX

PRACTICAL AND STRATEGIC GENDER NEEDS

Objective:

At the end of this session, participants should be able to:

- list the differences between the practical and strategic gender needs of men and women in the rural travel and transport sub-sector.

Duration: 3 hours

Resources: Handout, pens, newsprint, flipcharts, markers,

Activity 1

Step One

- Take a flipchart and divide into two columns, namely 'Role' and 'Need Arising'.
- List on flipchart, some of the roles of men and women participants identified in Unit 3.
- Ask participants to identify the need/s arising from each listed role.
- Insert the answers accordingly.
- Using *Handout E on Women's and Men's Practical and Strategic Gender Needs*, define what practical and strategic gender needs means.
- Divide participants into groups of 5s.
- Provide each group with a short case study from rural travel and transport sub-sector, (See *Handout F*) from which each group will discuss the listed questions:
 - ✓ How and to what extent do the project activities address the practical gender needs of (a) women and of (b) men?
 - ✓ How and to what extent do the project activities address the strategic gender needs of the community in general, and women in particular?
 - ✓ How could the project be changed to better address women's strategic gender needs?
- Discuss group findings in plenary.

Facilitator's Notes

Use the handout given to show the difference between practical needs and strategic needs (See Oxfam Manual, p.91 for the handout or Two Halves Make a Whole p. 33).

UNIT SIX

HANDOUT E

PRACTICAL AND STRATEGIC GENDER NEEDS⁶

Needs arise out of the roles and responsibilities that society assigns to men/boys and women/girls. Because men/boys and women/girls perform different roles, it follows that they face different needs and constraints. Men's/boys' and women's/girls' needs are closely related to their condition and position in society, hence women may be responsible for transporting produce to the home and market but lack the ability to influence how income will be used and assets acquired at household level.

Policies, programmes and projects are used to address the needs of men and women. Such interventions may address either practical or strategic or both practical and strategic gender needs of men and women.

Practical Gender Needs

Practical gender needs can be easily identified and usually relate to unsatisfactory living conditions and lack of resources.

- They arise from women's/men's roles in and outside the home.
- They are to do with what men and women need to perform their current sexual and gender roles easily, effectively and efficiently.
- They are a response to an immediate perceived necessity.
- They are formulated from concrete conditions of men and women.
- They are derived from women's/men's position within the gender division of labour (i.e. men's and women's roles).
- In any given sector of development, they maintain the status quo of male and female roles and their superior and subordinate position respectively. In other words, they do not challenge the subordinate position of women although they arise out of it.

Some examples of strategies that meet the practical gender needs of women may include:

- Policy or law that grants paid maternity leave and breastfeeding time to women.
- Policy that recognises that African women are disadvantaged and there is need to address women's specific needs.
- Clean and near situated water facilities to ease women's burden of water collection.
- Improved and near situated health care facilities to facilitate women's role of nurturing and caring for the family members.
- Improved income-earning opportunities for women.
- Housing and basic services to meet family's need for shelter.

⁶ Adapted from *The Oxfam Gender Training Manual*, by Suzanne Williams et al; Oxfam UK and Ireland: 1994: 191.

- Family food provision
- Encouraging men to share their IMTs with their wives

Examples of interventions that meet the men's practical gender needs are:

- Legal or administrative policies that grant men more access to employment and land rights.
- Training in leadership and management skills earmarked specifically for men and women.
- Improving men's access to IMTs.

Practical gender needs may be shared by all household members yet can be identified specifically as practical gender needs of women, as it is women who assume responsibility for meeting these needs.

In the field of transport, the culturally constructed gender division of labour determines women's transport activities and needs. Urban women, for instance, are likely to use public transport during non-peak hours to do their shopping and other family related chores, yet these are the hours when transport facilities are difficult to access. Urban men, on the other hand, may have more need for transport during peak hours to enable them to reach their workplaces in time. Scheduling of buses must therefore, necessarily take into account men and women's practical gender needs in the field of transport.

In the rural areas, women use transport primarily to fulfil the 'reproductive'⁷ tasks of the household. Studies show that fetching water and firewood represent the greatest burden on rural women, closely followed by visiting the grinding mill. Agricultural activities also require travelling and transportation, although the amount of time needed to perform these will depend on the extent to which cultivation and marketing of food crops is women's responsibility. Travel time to and from fields comprises a significant proportion of time and women's fields are often those located furthest from the village (DFID: 1999). Women can also spend many hours walking to the market to buy inputs and sell outputs. However, some studies note that agricultural transportation takes up the least amount of household time and an insignificant proportion of its effort compared to other activities (I.T. Transport:1999). As caregivers, women are likely to accompany those in their care if they need to travel e.g. taking the sick to medical facilities. The problems of the disadvantaged groups e.g. the sick, elderly or very young, also impact disproportionately on women.

Travel within the village is much more frequent than that outside of the immediate village. Empirical studies suggest that as many as 90 per cent of all trips are internal and women have little choice in the form of transport they will use. Transportation within the village is usually done through head loading and physical carrying. People most frequently use buses for travel outside the vicinity of the village such as to health facilities and visiting relatives and friends. Women, however, may or may not use any form of public transport to access medical facilities or for social reasons or for social reasons.

⁷ See UNIT EIGHT, for more information on the reproductive tasks of women.

Women are also involved in productive tasks such as selling farm produce and this usually involves transporting crops to the market.

Rural women lack the necessary technologies to perform the above tasks. There are numerous IMTs that are available for transportation in the rural areas yet as a result of the unequal traditional gender relations of power which give men more decision making power in the home, few women are able to access these IMTs. Men are, however, more likely to give priority to those technologies that relate to their tasks and also that raise their status. There is evidence to show that bicycles in some parts of sub-Saharan Africa have been used more to raise men's social class than for transportation. Examples of projects to address both men's and women's practical needs in Africa have been:

- *For men and women:* Those that promote women's and men's ownership and/or use of IMTs such as scotch-carts, bicycles, sledges etc. to help them to perform their 'reproductive' and 'productive' activities more efficiently and in lesser time than before.
- *For women:* An infrastructure project to bring water sources, grinding mills, health and education facilities nearer to the homesteads.
- *For women and men:* A rural road rehabilitation project that specifically encourages the employment of women and men on such a project.

Strategic Gender Needs

These are formulated by an analysis of women's subordinate position in society and attempt to address the root cause of gender disparities based on roles.

- They aim to overcome women's subordination and establish true equity, efficiency and sustainability in development.
- When addressed, they should lead to the *transformation* of the gender division of labour/roles.
- They challenge the nature of the relationship between women and men, particularly within the household and create equitable decision-making processes between women and men.

Because women are in a more disadvantaged position than men, the former tend to have more strategic needs than the latter.

Interventions that address women's strategic gender needs may include:

- Introduction of projects that alleviate the burden of domestic labour and child-care such as nursery schools/day care centres.
- Laws that remove institutionalised forms of discrimination such as male monopoly in ownership and access to land rights.
- Increased access by women to credit, skills training in leadership, business management etc.
- Allowing women to have a say in the number of children a family should have
- Allowing women to have a say over how household income is spent and assets bought

- Measures against male violence and control over women.
- Increased participation of women in Parliament and other decision-making structures at local (village or cell), district, provincial and national levels.
- Measures to increase men's participation in household chores.

Strategies for men's strategic gender needs are:

- Policies that introduce paternity leave for men
- Training in child care
- Projects that increase men's role in household chores and childcare.

Some examples of how a project or policy can meet the strategic gender needs of women in the field of rural travel and transport include:

- Promoting women's participation in decision-making and leadership roles, for example, in infrastructure projects such as rural road rehabilitation projects. An example of a position a woman could be promoted to in a such a project is forepersonship. Strategies to increase women's say in village level development structures and to ensure women's participation in deciding rural roads that must be rehabilitated
- Increasing women's participation in RTT project design (as data collectors, project planners) and project implementation (as field officers). The use of female officers in data collection has been found to be effective for making female target beneficiaries participate actively in data collection for project design.
- Training women in leadership and project management roles
- Establishing a quota for women's participation in employment relating to RTT and leadership.
- Addressing the cultural, economic and social constraints inhibiting women from participating in road rehabilitation projects
- Promoting women's ownership of IMT businesses through addressing issues that prevent women from owning IMT businesses .
- Allocating resources (particularly financial) for training in rural travel and transport planners, implementers and policy makers in rural travel and transport planners, implementers and policy makers In reply to: gender sensitive planning, project design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.
- Doing away with gender division of labour in labour based projects.
- Designing gender sensitive IMTs for use by both men and women.

There are also some examples of how projects in the RTT sub-sector can address the strategic gender needs of men:

- Projects that carry out gender sensitisation of communities as a strategy for reducing the cultural factors that prevent women, particularly married women, from participating in rural road rehabilitation programmes.
- Gender sensitisation workshops to equip RTT staff with skills in gender sensitive planning, data collection, analysis, monitoring and evaluation and mainstreaming in general.

UNIT SIX

HANDOUT F

CASE STUDY TO IDENTIFY PRACTICAL AND STRATEGIC GENDER NEEDS OF MEN AND WOMEN

Alleviating the Transport Burden in Kodogo Village:

Kodogo village lies 160km from the main town of Bolaville in Greenland. Agriculture is the main source of livelihood for the people in Kodogo village. The village is connected to Bolaville by a feeder road. Various tracks and footpaths link Kodogo to surrounding villages. In 1998, PRI Consulting carried out needs assessment to find out how agricultural production can be enhanced in the area. PRI found out that the provision of transport and transport facilities was key in improving agricultural production in the area. The assessment found that both women and men were facing transport problems. Some of the problems they face include:

- Men and women have to travel long distances to transport their goods to the local markets
- Women head-load their husbands' and their own goods to the markets
- Women spend a lot of time fetching water as the water sources are situated far from their homesteads
- Women have to go to collect firewood at least four times a week due to lack of transport.

To address these problems, PRI in conjunction with an NGO introduced project to alleviate the transport burden in Kodogo village. The project introduced a revolving loan fund to enable men to purchase bicycles and women motor tricycles. The motor tricycles have a carrying capacity of 500 kilograms.

Using the questions below, analyse how the project meets the men's and women's practical and strategic gender needs.

Questions

1. How and to what extent do the project activities address the practical needs of women and men?
2. How and to what extent do program activities address the strategic gender needs of the community in general and women in particular?
3. How could the project be changed to better address women's strategic needs?

UNIT SEVEN

GENDER ISSUES AND GENDER GAPS

Objectives:

At the end of this session, participants should be able to:

- identify a Gender Issue in the rural travel and transport sub-sector;
- understand how these gender issues create gender gaps in the sub-sector; and
- recognize how gender gaps occur as a result of some discriminatory practice regarding women.

Duration: 2 hours 30 minutes

Resources: Flipchart, cards, newsprint, markers and handouts.

Activity 1

Step One:

- Using *Handout G* define the terms female gender issue, gender gap, gender discrimination and gender oppression and explain why it is important to identify a gender issue.
- State the 3 characteristics of a gender issue.
- Ask each participant to briefly outline a personal experience of a gender issue within rural travel and transport.
- Record participants' responses on flip chart.
- Select one of the given gender issues and analyse them in terms of the following three characteristics of a gender issue:
 - The gender gap which is revealed in the experience
 - The discriminatory practice which is revealed in the experience
 - The discriminatory practice should be related to the gender gap
 - The element of gender oppression, in terms of male privilege and status, which is served and or patriarchal belief, which is revealed in the experience, which is reported.

Step Two

Group Work

- Break participants into groups of five.
- Distribute four flip charts to each group
- Let each group make a report by writing not more than twenty words on each of the four flip charts given to the group. The title and description content for each of the cards is as follows:

Experience: describe the personal experience which reveals the gender issue in rural travel and transport (Examples should be drawn from the continent)

Gender Gap: describe the gender gap in rural travel and transport that reveals the existence of the gender issue

Gender Discrimination: Describe the differential treatment, which has caused the gender gap.

In plenary, explain why it is important to identify gender issues in RTT.

UNIT SEVEN

HANDOUT G

IDENTIFYING A GENDER GAPS

Analysing a woman's and a man's problem in terms of a gender issue provides a way of analysing a situation in terms of the underlying *causes* of the situation. A gender issue can be divided or 'unpacked' in terms of three basic components: gender gap, gender discrimination and gender oppression.

Gender Gap

A gender gap is a measure of gender inequality and inequity on any particular socio-economic indicator, which both men and women are aware of and can **easily observe and measure**. It may be defined as a difference in any aspect of the socio-economic status of women and men. It is not just a female-male gap because it does not arise from biological differences. On the other hand, it is a gap arising from different gender roles and the condition and position of men and women in a given society. It is often supported by statistical evidence. Examples of gender gaps in various sectors and sub-sectors include:

Economy:

- Men constitute the greater percentage in the formal sector
- More men than women are in managerial positions
- Women are concentrated in low paying businesses in the informal sector such as vegetable vending and crocheting etc. while men own better paying businesses.
- Men have greater access to loans and credit because they have more access to collateral than women.

Politics

- There are more male than female MPs in most African governments

Agriculture:

- Men have more access to land than women
- Women contribute more labour to subsistence agriculture than men
- There are more male agricultural extension workers than female ones
- More women participate in food for work programmes than men.

Health

- There are more female than male nurses
- There are more male than female doctors
- More women come for ante and post natal care than men
- More girl than boy children survive in the first five years of their lives.

Rural Travel and Transport

- More men own IMTs than women
- Women head load while men do not

- More men than women use IMTs to carry their agricultural produce from the field to their homesteads
- Many more women are involved in household chores such as fuel wood and water collection than men. Men are only involved when such activities are mechanised.

For each of the above gaps, there is always a discriminatory practice to explain it.

Gender Discrimination

Gender gaps do not arise by accident but are caused by the different treatment given to girls and women, as compared to the treatment given to boys and men.

A gender gap could be a single incident - as when an employer selects a man for employment even though the woman has better qualifications. But a national pattern of gender gaps reveals something much more than isolated instances of gender discrimination. Gender gaps at a national level are due to systematic gender discrimination that is part of the social system and runs through all aspects of national life.

Discrimination against women can be found at different levels of social organisation. Examples of the different levels at which such discrimination can exist are given below. The forms of discrimination also explain why the above gender gaps in the different sectors exist.

1. *Family and household* - Discrimination of girls at this level may have negative implications for their future particularly in development. For instance the decision to send a boy child for secondary or higher education, but keep a girl child at home to help with domestic work will result in gender gaps in the employment, education, human resources sectors where more men will have to formal employment than women. What we do at household level and the decisions we take at that level have grave implications at national level.

Within the family, children may also be socialised to believe that because certain roles are culturally assigned to men, it therefore, follows that certain vocations will only be open to men. Until recently, professions such as engineering and medicine were seen as typical male professions in most African societies.

2. *Customary practice/law* - for instance in the custom of bride price, when there is no groom price. In some countries such as Lesotho, women are minors under the guardianship of their husbands or fathers. This means that they cannot act on their own behalf in any business or other contract as they must first get the consent of their husbands or fathers (if they are unmarried). African customary law also requires that land is passed through the male line. This means that women have no control over how land is used and also its produce as well as proceeds from use of that land.
3. *Government administrative regulations and practices* - for example, in denying various services and benefits to women who do not have the written permission of their husbands whereas husbands do not require the permission of their wives.

4. *Government legislation* - which may require different treatment for women and men, or may fail to insist on equal treatment or equal opportunities at various social levels.

GENDER ISSUES IN RURAL TRAVEL AND TRANSPORT IN ZIMBABWE⁸

Pattern of Rural Travel and Transport

Between 1995 and 1997, a "Rural Transport Study in Three Districts in Zimbabwe", was commissioned by the Government of Zimbabwe (GOZ) and funded by Sida, with technical support from the ILO. The study revealed the following pattern of rural travel and transport (RTT), as summarised by Mbara (2 000) in GOZ and Sida.

- The use of public transport by rural households, usually to urban centres, is rather infrequent and confined to the occasional visits to hospitals, sourcing of farm inputs and crop marketing and shopping.
- The bulk (86%) of rural travel and transport trips takes place in and around the villages, on the footpaths and tracks, on foot.
- In terms of the time spent, the bulk of travel and transport activities is related to subsistence needs, e.g. fetching water, firewood and harvests, and going to the grinding mill and so on. Some trips relate to social obligations such as visiting friends, relatives and the sick, and helping out at weddings, funerals, and traditional ceremonies in the communal lands.
- Walking and head loading is the predominant mode of transport. Ownership of motorised transport is negligible at < 5%.
- The weekly travel burden for a household is approximately 70 hours, of which water collection alone accounts for 28 hours (40%).
- An average household (6 members) accounts for approximately 60 tonne km per year (by all modes). Of this 54 tonne (90%) is by head loading.

In another study, a Government of Zimbabwe/SIDA/ILO (1997) study revealed the following imbalances in the share of RTT burden between women and men.

- An average rural household (6 members) spends about 70 hours per week on travel and transport activities, with women accounting for 54 hours (77%).
- Women and girls are responsible for 95% of water transportation. On average, this means 4 trips on foot daily, carrying a 25-litre container for 2-3 hours.
- About 85% of the people taking maize to the grinding mill are women. On average one female member of the household spends 4-5 hours per week on this activity.
- Women collect 85-90% of firewood, mostly by head loading.

On the production and marketing front:

- Women and men grow different crops on different fields

⁸ Adapted from a report on "Gender in Rural Travel and Transport in Zimbabwe by Wilfred Tichagwa, Harare, Zimbabwe, 2000.

- Women and men sell different commodities to different markets. For example, men usually market cash crops such as cotton and tobacco to well defined formal markets at specified locations and at specific times of the year. Men usually hire transport operators to come to the homestead to transport produce to the marketing depot. The produce is transported relatively safely with a minimum of inconvenience to the farmer.
- Women market sweet potatoes, monkey nuts, fruits and vegetables, usually in the informal sector and over long periods of time. Women have to take their produce to the roadside, to board a bus or lorry. Girls and boys often assist women in these activities.

UNIT EIGHT

GENDER MAINSTREAMING

Aim:

- to illustrate the different ways of incorporating gender into rural travel and transport policies, programme and projects.
- To enable participants to appreciate the value of mainstreaming gender into development policies, programmes and projects.

Specific Objectives

At the end of this session, participants should be able to:

- define the concept “Gender Mainstreaming” and its various forms.
- define and bring out the differences between policies, programmes and projects
- state the three types of policies, programmes, and projects from a gender sensitive perspective

Duration: 4 hours 15 minutes

Resources flipcharts, newsprint, markers, handouts, case studies

Background Information:

Gender Mainstreaming

Mainstreaming is a process or strategy that seeks to work towards the goal of gender equity. During the process of gender mainstreaming, gender issues (that is gender gaps, forms of discrimination and oppression) are identified and strategies for narrowing or eradicating these are identified and implemented.

Mainstreaming women in development is about strengthening women’s capabilities in active involvement and contributions from the micro to macro economic issues. Mainstreaming women’s concerns into all aspects of development policies, programmes and projects requires deliberate consideration of the actual and potential role of women in all key sectors such as education, health, economy and transport.

Mainstreaming provides the rationale and relevant justification for drawing upon large-scale resources for development, which has not yet been considered for the development of women specific policies, programmes and projects.

Mainstreaming involves more than just having equal numbers of men and women in any situation and positions. It involves changing policies/programmes/projects and organisations or institutions so that they can actively promote gender equity.

Mainstreaming involves efforts to ensure that the authorities in a given sector of development, are equipped to develop and implement initiatives that support gender equality and equity. They are equipped with analytical skills and research base for appropriate development of gender sensitive policy and programme development.

Forms of Gender Mainstreaming

- Sectoral gender policies
- Gender awareness training
- Gender training focus on analysis and mainstreaming
- Gender disaggregated data
- National Gender Policies
- Institutional/organisational gender policies
- Gender Focal Points in institutions e.g. government, private Sector, parastatals, NGOs, international organisations
- National level gender analysis.

Activity 1

Step 1

- Using the background information explain to the participants what gender mainstreaming is.
- Together with the participants, identify the various forms of gender mainstreaming.

Activity 2

Step 2

- In pairs, ask participants to define the three concepts:
 - Policy
 - Programme
 - Project
- Ask participants to share their definitions of the three terms in plenary.
- Write down the definitions on flip chart.
- Ask the participants to pick out common words/key phrases from each definition.
- Comment on the common words/phrases
- Using *Handout O*, explain to the participants the definition of policies, programmes and projects.
- Ask for points of clarification, additions before proceeding to the next activity.

Step 2

- Using *Handout H*, explain to the participants that there are three types of policies, programmes and projects, namely, gender specific, blind/neutral and transformative/redistributive.
- Distribute Case Studies in *Handouts I, J, K, and L* on rural travel and transport projects to different groups.
- Divide participants into groups of fours or fives and ask them to identify under which category the case study falls.
- Ask each group to share their findings in plenary.

- Ask other participants to assess each other's findings
- Ask for points of clarification, additions before proceeding to the next activity.

Facilitator's Notes

If possible, the Facilitator should invite the Gender Focal Person in the country where the workshop is being held to explain the following:

- Roles and responsibilities at their work place
- How practice relates to the Gender Policy
- How the Gender Policy has been implemented, the constraints, achievements, monitoring and evaluation as well as the indicators.

If there is no Gender Focal Person, then the facilitator should explain the above.

UNIT EIGHT

HANDOUT H

MAINSTREAMING GENDER INTO POLICIES, PROJECTS AND PROGRAMMES: DEFINITION OF TERMS

Policy

A policy is a plan of action, a statement of ideas proposed or adopted by Government, NGO or any institution. A policy provides guidelines or direction, which should be followed in implementing programmes or projects that fall under the policy. A policy is like a compass. It gives direction. A policy gives a formal position in how problems in a given sector, should be identified and defined. A policy provides guidance for a sector, or at the national level.

Defining a policy involves asking questions such as for example, is it a problem that women have problems of transporting their wares to markets at certain times of the day or is it just a situation that should be accepted as natural and should not be considered as a problem? What implications on development does this problem have? Women's lesser access to means of transport in light of a guiding policy principle that states "all resources supplied by government, relevant authority should be equally available to women and men" means that the policy is not being implemented.

Programme

A programme is a course of action to pursue a goal or goals that are part of a policy or a guiding policy. A programme usually has a number of closely related projects or activities all seeking to satisfy a goal. For example, a programme for gender equity in Rural Travel and Transport in Africa may have separate projects such as literacy campaign, a project to encourage use and ownership of bicycle among women, a revolving loan fund from which women can borrow funds to purchase the bicycles, and income generating projects to enhance women's income and to raise funds to pay back their loans.

Project

A project is a course of action, which is more small-scale than a programme in terms of limited or short-term objectives, time-scale and budget. Several projects form the larger programme.

Types of Policies, Project and Programmes

Policies, projects and programmes can be:

- Gender specific
- Gender redistributive/transformational
- Gender blind/neutral

Gender Specific: Women Specific and Men's Specific Projects

These usually address specific gender gaps or forms of discrimination and oppression from the standpoint of women or men's gender needs and interests. Income generating activities can be examples of women and men specific projects. However, without some transformative potential built into these types of policies, programmes and projects they are likely to:-

- Leave existing division of resources and responsibilities intact
- Fail to conscientise the other half of the gender group i.e. men about existing gender gaps, discrimination and oppression in the sector being addressed. This means that while practical gender needs are met, the strategic issues that would transform the relationship between women and men in a given sector would be left unattended.

Gender specific policies and projects, however, are the quickest method of reducing practical gender gaps and forms of discrimination in a given sector.

Gender Blind/Neutral Projects/Policies

Gender-neutral policies and programmes are those that treat men and women as a homogenous and non-differentiated group who, although may have different roles and needs, but assumes that every intervention will necessarily benefit them equally.

Characteristics of Gender Blind/Neutral Policies

- No gender disaggregation of statistics
- No explicit identification of the woman or man's gender needs and interests.
- Strategies and project activities are designed for a homogenous group of people
- Addresses practical as opposed to the strategic gender needs of men and women.
- Leave existing division of resources and responsibilities intact.

Characteristics of Gender Redistributive/Transformative Policies, Programmes or Projects

- These seek to transform the traditional gender relations in a more democratic direction by redistributing more equally and evenly the division of resources, responsibilities and power between women and men.
- They are the most culturally and politically challenging option because not only does it seek to channel resources to women and men within the existing framework but requires that men and women have new attitudes, perception and give up certain privileges and take on certain responsibilities in order to achieve greater equality in social relationships

Advantages Of the Gender Redistributive/Transformative Strategies

- They empower both women and men
- They lead to improved relationships between women and men
- They address the social and infrastructural causes of gender gaps, disparities, forms of discrimination and oppression in all sectors of development.

- They address both the practical and strategic gender needs of women and men. This is done in a complementary manner.

Gender Redistributive/Transformative policies should be an ultimate goal of all policies but the reality may be difficult to achieve. Redistributive/transformative policies may/should be the ideal for a first and empowered society where women and men constantly negotiate their position and condition within their households, communities and public sphere.

UNIT EIGHT HANDOUT I

ENGENDERING TRANSPORT INTERVENTIONS SOME LESSONS FOR POLICY MAKERS, PROJECT PLANNERS AND IMPLEMENTORS⁹

Engendering Transport Interventions

Below are some positive examples of how countries have engendered transport interventions:

Lao-Swedish road sector project 1997-2000: a mid-term review found that the project had introduced new business and marketing possibilities for men and women. The review demonstrated that women have strengthened their position, and now contribute to family income. Women now take less time in going to the market because of the introduction of the improved road means increased opportunities for income-generating activities. Women's workload in this sense, has increased but women will gain in terms of increased decision-making at household and community levels. Improved road network has also led to improved health care and female school enrolment.

A Non-Formal Women's Education Project in Burkina Faso in the 1970s introduced a number of labour-saving technologies including grinding mills, water wells and donkey carts. The impact of these technologies in terms of timesaving was assessed using 'time budgets' of women. The time saving was significant, through the women's use of the cart and even for men who were prepared to use the cart to transport water, wood and harvested crops, which they would formerly not have done without such transport. Women tended to spend the time saved on household tasks but women in project villages participated in education and income-earning activities in significantly greater numbers than the women in villages not assisted (McSweeney, 1982; cited by Doran: 1996).

Some Negative examples of interventions

It is also necessary to consider whom the promotion of certain transport services will displace. Access and control of means of transport will have implications for the access and control of resources which require transporting, potentially affecting their source and consumption (Doran: 1996). For example, greater ease of access to forest supplies by men with carts may alter the balance of control in the management of forest resources to the detriment of poorer groups, notably women. Or if men relieve the women of the task of head loading produce by carting it to the market, then the women may lose control over the income which they earned before.

Women fuel wood carriers of Addis Ababa (Doran: 1996): Women earn a little money through portering activities e.g. by carrying firewood to towns but lose vital source of income if efforts taken to improve transport services to the benefit of traders, consumers and producers displace portering work.

⁹ Extract from 'Poverty and Transport', by Booth et. al. op.cit: 61-62.

Improving modes of transport could result in women losing control of income from the sale of products.

Non-transport solutions

The potential of non-transport interventions is often overlooked. According to Malmberg-Calvo (1994), evidence indicates that:

- Well designed water projects which provide reliable, all year round supply of potable water closer to home than the natural source, reduce the time and effort spent per household per day on water collection. This saving can be up to 2 hours per day, depending on the relative locations of the old and new sources and size of the household.
- Similarly, well-designed woodlot schemes can reduce the time and effort spent on firewood collection, although this is a long-term benefit since woodlots take several years to mature and produce cooking fuel.
- The introduction of improved wood-burning stoves can reduce firewood consumption by 30 per cent, with an equivalent reduction in the time and effort spent on collection.
- The provision of grinding mills closer to the home reduces the transport burden related to this activity when households are using a more distant mill. If households switch from traditional pounding to use of the mill, there is an increase in the transport task, but an overall reduction in the burden of the activity, particularly in terms of energy usage.

However, in many cases, projects have had limited success due to poor planning and inappropriate project and technology design.

Opiyo (1995) cites the example of a project to put in place hand pumps in order to locate water closer to communities. Wells save women considerable time which free up time for family, visiting, resting and to engage in income generating. The prevalence of water borne diseases was drastically reduced which is something that may not happen if infrastructure had been the solution. There was also increase in the amount and consumption of clean water. The vast majority of women preferred having the water close to their homesteads. There was an increase in children collecting water as the water was close enough for them to go. It is interesting to note that in the non-assisted areas, men help and use IMTs but in the assisted areas, women head load.

Tanzania government has set national target that all households should be within 400m, i.e. 6 minutes walk of a potable water source. Applying this target, the potential average annual timesavings per household would be 182 hours for Lusaka Rural, 125 hours for Kay and 664 hours for Mbale. Household in worst-case village would save 942 hours per year.

Woodlots introduced revealed potential annual savings are 610 hours for Kasama, 208 hours for Lusaka Rural, 241 for Mbale, 119 for Kaya and 248 for Dedougou. Households

in worst-case village would save 948 hours - equivalent to half a year's work for a person working 8 hours per day 5 days per week.

However, provision of these near to the house will not necessarily generate timesavings for household nor will full time saving necessarily accrue to female adults. Factors include:

- Improve water must be adequate and reliable
- May generate increase in consumption and more trips
- Burden on daughters lifted but not on adult women.

Enhancing Gender Sensitivity in Policy and Planning for Transport Projects

There is need for gender planning i.e. planning that takes into account the fact that men and women play different roles and therefore, have different needs. When identifying and implementing planning needs, it is important to disaggregate households on the basis of gender (Moser: 1989). Transport policy can be made gender sensitive in the following ways:

- Consultation with women and men about their transport needs in order to reveal: the intra-household division of labour; the multiple and various transport needs of the household; and cultural attitudes and norms.
- Implementation of targeted credit scheme that will allow women to buy IMTs (the problem with this is that women's work is largely unremunerated and does not generate an income, therefore, there are problems regarding how they would pay back a loan of this kind).
- Provision of affordable IMTs (frequently, men appropriate IMTs since they have capacity to pay for them, even if women are intended beneficiaries. May be more important to focus on affordable improvements to existing means of transport that women are using.
- Provision of appropriate IMTs (need for more economically, socially and technically appropriate transport facilities for women).
- Look to other sectors for solution. (There are non-transport solutions that may be more appropriate than transport solutions). These would be particularly useful if available at the household rather than community-based level).
- Information should be made available to women, which informs them of their rights to mobility and the options available for achieving greater mobility.
- Development and enforcement of regulations to ensure women's safety especially while walking and using public transport services.

UNIT EIGHT

HANDOUT J

IDENTIFYING TYPE OF PROJECT

The Cycle Trailer in Ghana: A Reasonable but Inappropriate Technology¹⁰

IMTs can relieve women's transport burden. The cycle trailer was introduced in Ghana with a view to providing an alternative to head loading. However, the project failed. This was partly to do with the cost of the trailer, which was more expensive than a bicycle, and well beyond the means of the intended beneficiaries-most of whom could not even afford the bicycle. Furthermore, the advantages of the trailer were only marginal as the use of the flat bicycle carrier was already prevalent. Essentially the trailer was also out of tune with the immediate economic, social and cultural environment of the rural Ghanaian woman. Notwithstanding the prevalence of bicycles in northern Ghana, women do not own any, nor do they ride. Moreover, only a 'man's bicycle' i.e. with a crossbar, was available. Considering the traditional dress code observed by Ghanaian women, a 'woman's' bicycle would have been a more appropriate choice. It was therefore, unrealistic to expect women to patronise the cycle trailer.

¹⁰ Source: Salifu (1994) in "Poverty and Transport", by Booth et. al. op. cit.

UNIT EIGHT

HANDOUT K

IDENTIFYING TYPE OF PROJECT

Impact of Bicycle/Motorcycle Taxi Services (Boda-boda) on Women's Travel Needs in Uganda: A Case Study of Mpigi District¹¹

Boda-boda bicycle and motorcycle taxi services in Mpigi District provide a link between rural areas and local towns. The research analyses boda-boda use and operation and its impact on women's travel needs. The aim of the study was to:

- Find out the gender composition of boda-boda taxi users and operators;
- Determine significant transportation activities carried out by boda-boda taxi services;
- Assess how boda-boda taxi services meet the needs of women
- Determine the constraints faced by women and men who use/operate boda-boda taxi services; and
- Find out the gender differences in demand for boda-boda taxi services.

Rural transport in Uganda is not well developed with most districts having remote areas, which are not easily accessible from district headquarters. The most common means of rural transport is by walking and head loading along road paths, tracks and trails. Culture and tradition tend to limit load-carrying activities to women, thereby making them shoulder most of the transport chores in the household.

Usage of intermediate means of transport is rather poor due to the high purchase prices of bicycles, draught animals and animal carts, making them too expensive for many rural households. There are some inefficient locally made wheelbarrows that are used to transport firewood, water and other household goods, but these are also limited to a few middle class families. In cases where IMTs are available, men and boys tend to take over the duties, which would otherwise have been a preserve of women.

Ownership of personal means of transport is very low and limited to well to do households. Some households own bicycles, which are the most common means of transport in rural areas where terrain permits. Bicycles are popular especially in Eastern and Northern Uganda, where they are used as bicycle taxis (boda-boda taxis). However, it is mainly in these areas that women pedal bicycles, unlike in the Central region, where Mpigi is located, where bicycles are owned and controlled by men and women are dependent passengers who ride sideways on the rear luggage rack.

Mpigi district covers an extensive area, which lies within the central part of Uganda and is the gateway to Kampala, the capital city. It has a population of 913 867 people according to the 1991 population census with a projected population of 1 066 400 for 1996. The major economic activities carried out by the people include agriculture, fishing, forestry/lumbering and trade.

¹¹ By Harriet Iga in '*Balancing the Load*', *ibid*: 44.

Women carry out most of the productive tasks. They carry out most agricultural activities, from land clearing, ploughing, planting, weeding, and harvesting and also perform the supporting role of health care, child bearing, cooking, fetching water and firewood for the family. Most of these activities require some form of transport.

The district has a total road network of 851 kilometres of roads, and of these, 110km are tarmac roads, 267km are all weather mural or gravel; and 474km are dirt roads. Footpaths mainly serve most of the urban roads as they are not surfaced and are poorly maintained. This, coupled with poor drainage leads to very fast deterioration.

Motorcycles and bicycles are a common and versatile means of transport in Uganda. They are used for personal travel and movement of goods or passengers. Unlike bicycles, which are extensively used in Eastern and Northern Uganda, motorcycles in the form of boda-boda taxi services have become more common, especially in the urban and peri-urban areas of the central region. Where the two modes of transport are in operation, motorcycles charge higher fees compared to bicycles.

Boda-boda operators, perform a type of taxi service from road stands in towns, trading centres and along main roads.

People of different social classes use the boda-boda services although findings show that it is mainly the working class (those who leave their home to go and work elsewhere), and the business community. Others include students going to school and patients when going for treatment.

In rural and peri-urban area of Mpigi district, boda-boda taxis are used for a variety of journey types such as going to markets, social visits, burials, church/mosque, transportation of goods (agricultural produce and shop purchases) as well as travel to school and work places. They are also used for connecting to taxi stages, especially in areas, which are not easily accessible to taxis. Consequently, boda-boda taxis were introduced to:

- bridge the transportation gap between the rural and peri-urban areas;
- ease transport movements within the rural towns
- job creation for the youth
- provide income generation in the project areas.

Research found out that all boda-boda operators had to be licensed and insured, and were supposed to belong to an association and receive registration numbers. Of the operators interviewed, about 75% were insured while the remainder were not. In Uganda, due to the poverty level, and bearing in mind that it is mainly the low-income earners who own bicycles, it is very rare to find a bicycle that is insured.

In addition, the research found that there are as yet no female boda-boda operators although both men and women use the services extensively.

Boda-boda taxi operators expressed a number of problems affecting them:

- Insecurity at night due to attacks by thieves;
- Non-payment by some passengers

- Risks from accidents
- Heavy taxes
- Arrests by traffic police
- Roads are rough, dusty and slippery during the rainy season, which limits the extent to which bicycles can be used effectively.

Boda-boda taxis have contributed to the development of rural areas because trade has been promoted, communication to inaccessible places has been improved and jobs created.

The following were pointed out by users especially women as constraints:

- Uncomfortable sitting positions
- The risk of falling off
- Speeding, leading to accidents
- High charges
- Body contact with the operators
- Harassment by the taxi operators

Other constraints include poor, rough roads, which are slippery during rainy seasons and non-operation of taxis in some localities.

The research indicates that although the taxis have had a positive impact on development in Mpigi district, the project has not had great positive impact on the women as they still do not have any assistance in their transport needs. Potential for women's involvement with community transportation schemes and boda-boda services should be further explored.

UNIT EIGHT

HANDOUT L

IDENTIFYING TYPE OF PROJECT Rural Transport Infrastructure Provision in Kenya - A Practical View Through Women's Eyes: A Case of KERUWOSA¹²

KERUWOSA, a large women's group of 120 members in Kandara Division of Muranga (now Maragua) District in the Central Province of Kenya is the focus of this study. The main objective of KERUWOSA is to improve the living environment through the implementation of infrastructure projects, mainly water and sanitation. Recognising that poor road infrastructure was affecting their day-to-day lives and activities, the group has incorporated road improvements as a key activity in their programme. As a member of the group stated, "In the old days, many roads surrounding our village were in good condition. Our town council was paying much attention to them. And during those days, the spirit of harambee was very high with people - men and women - contributing whatever they had in building or repairing roads. But nowadays, the spirit has weathered due to the council failing to do their part". But what has motivated KERUWOSA to take up the challenge?

KERUWOSA has embarked on some community development activities aimed at dealing with the twin problem of poor road infrastructure and of participation. The rural people of Kandara Division have become commodity producers for the international market. With the decline of coffee as the main cash crop and the rise of the French beans, flowers and other horticultural produce, the rural people of Kandara are transforming their environments and modifying their lives, not without difficulty and often with extra-ordinary energy and determination. They continue to rely on informal social networks as safety nets for support.

Through a participatory research process, this study sought to first, identify and document the motivational factors behind transport infrastructure improvement projects designed and implemented by KERUWOSA and second, to highlight the relationships between such improvements and nature of women's transport patterns in relation to productive and reproductive activities.

Methods for investigating included focus group discussions, mapping, transect walks, Venn diagrams and gender analysis tools - activity profiles, roles and responsibilities.

With this deep volcanic soils, relatively high rainfall, undulating landscape, wide fertility valley bottoms, criss-crossing rivers and streams, Kandara Division falls within a medium high potential agro-ecological zone. Rivers and streams in the Division are subject to heavy siltation and thus flooding during the rainy season as a result of soil erosion, which has been accelerated by the intensive farming. Like in most parts of Kenya, women in Kandara are responsible for household activities such as home care, child rearing, cooking, washing, fetching water and collecting firewood. Productive activities are, however, the responsibility of both women and men. In Kandara, the productive activities include agriculture clearing, preparing land, digging, planting,

¹² By Cecilia Kinuthia-Njenga and Justina Nthenge in 'Balancing the Load', *ibid*: p.57-58

weeding, cultivating, harvesting, transporting and marketing, animal husbandry, and trading and small enterprise.

Recognising the link between their productive and reproductive roles, it is no wonder that KERUWOSA has included infrastructure improvement as part of their community development activities. Analysis of transport needs for the roles and responsibilities assigned to women and men indicates that women's responsibilities have a more transport-intense dimension particularly of unserviced paths, tracks and footbridges. The responsibility of women to fetch water and to collect firewood requires that they utilise footpaths and tracks and sometimes bridges, which are internally located and in very poor condition. A mapping exercise clearly demonstrated that at least 70% of the footpaths, tracks and bridges were in poor condition.

Focus group discussions revealed that the conditions of transport routes, used by rural men and women determine the amount of time and effort spent on transport activities. Participants of the focus group discussions indicated that they spend one hour fetching water during the dry season and at least two hours fetching water from the same stream during the wet season. This is because some paths are totally impassable during the wet season. The same case applies to access to french beans collection points. This point was very well illustrated in the mapping exercises and transect walks.

Based on this analysis, KERUWOSA has set aside half a day a week when they contribute to improving rural infrastructure in their respective villages. Their key activities including sweeping the roads, digging gullies and gutters, repairing bridges and laying twigs and leaves on critical paths during the rainy season. The women use the tools used regularly in their homes such as hoes, pangas (knives), jembes and brooms. The group has only purchased 20 brooms and 5 hoes. They have written proposals to donors requesting support to purchase additional equipment including gloves. They are however, not involved in improving the main roads as these would require permission from the local authorities. Moreover, work on major roads would require some investment in capital and cash, which the group currently lacks. The work of the group is purely voluntary and part of their community development contribution.

Very little is known about the benefits women derive from participation in road infrastructure improvement, although recent studies indicate that rural infrastructure contributes to women's lives and those of their families, particularly those from marginal regions or have few land assets and/or are economically worse-off. Focus group discussions with the members and non-members of KERUWOSA indicated that improved roads contributed positively and some instances negatively to both women and men.

Members of KERUWOSA are motivated to contribute to the improvement of road infrastructure for the following reasons:

- To reduce energy and time spent on carrying out roles and responsibilities - for example, with improved road infrastructure it takes only half an hour more to fetch water during the rainy season;

- To increase women's access to social services - mobile clinics and community based health workers visit areas that are more accessible - thus reducing the need to make lengthy trips to district hospitals;
- To increase access for extension workers to farms that are located more interior;
- To improve access to collection points/markets for farm produce.

The KERUWOSA initiative in road improvement illustrates that women are capable of determining their infrastructure needs, and can successfully mobilise their resources to address their priority problems.

UNIT NINE

MAINSTREAMING GENDER INTO POLICIES

Objectives

By the end of this session, participants should be able to:

- demonstrate awareness of the critical components of a policy.
- use different strategies to mainstream gender into different types of policies.
- mainstream gender into Rural Travel and Transport Policies in Africa.
- develop gender sensitive policy in the Rural Travel and Transport sub-sector.

Duration 4 hours

Resources

- Flipchart, newsprint, handouts, markers, overhead projector and transparencies.

Activity 1.

Recap on:

- Define a Policy.
- Identify the different types of Policies.

Activity 2.

Using Handout M:

- Give the different components of a Policy.
- Using Handout M, give examples of questions that can be used to check if gender has been mainstreamed into the different components of the policy. *(These questions are not exhaustive. More questions can be developed by the participants.)*

Activity 3.

1. Divide participants into 5 groups. Give a copy of a policy (*Handout M*) to each group. Let the participants use the questions above to analyse the given policy.
2. Ask participants to improve on the policy to ensure an engendered one.
3. In Plenary let the participants give a report back of their group discussions.

UNIT NINE
HANDOUT M

MAINSTREAMING GENDER INTO POLICIES

A Policy document is most likely to have the following components:-

- Problem Identification
- Policy Goals
- Policy Environment
- Intersecting Policies
- Policy Implementation Strategy
- Policy Management.

Critical Questions for Ensuring Gender Mainstreaming into Policies

General Questions

- *What are the objectives of the policy?*
- *Which groups of people does the policy target?*
- *Which groups of people does the policy marginalize?*
- *Into which category does the policy fall?*

Questions on Problem Identification

- *Did the needs assessment look into the special or different problems and needs of women and men in the area of Rural Travel and Transport in your country?*
- *How differently does this problem affect women and men?*
- *Were women involved in conducting the needs assessment, and were the women of the community asked for their opinion on the problems and needs they face in Rural Travel and Transport in Africa?*
- *Has there been an assessment of women's position in terms of such possible problems as their heavier work burden, relative or lack of access to resources and opportunities or lack of participation in the development process?*

Questions on Policy Goals

- *Does the Policy goal/ objectives make clear that Policy benefits are intended equally for women as well as for men?*
- *In what ways, specifically, will the Policy lead to women's increased empowerment e.g. Increased access to credit? Increased participation in decision making at the level of the family and community? Increased control of income resulting from their own labour?*
- *Does the goal/objectives challenge the existing or traditional sexual division of labour, tasks, opportunities and responsibilities?*

Questions on Policy Environment

- *Is the general environment supportive of an engendered sector policy?*
- *List any regional or international gender policies your country has acceded to?*
- *How can one draw on these for the development of a gender sensitive Rural Travel and Transport Policy?*

Questions on Intersecting Policies

- *Are there any other gender sensitive sectoral policies one can draw on , for example, it may be useful to find out how the Agriculture, Health or Transport Policies will affect the Rural Travel and Transport Policies?*

Questions on Policy Implementation

- *Do implementation methods make sufficient use of existing women's organisations and networks such as women's clubs, church organisations and party political organisations?*
- *Are women included in the implementation team?*
- *Are women in the target group involved in the project implementation?*
- *Are there methods for monitoring the progress in reaching women? For instance, by monitoring indicators such as women's increased access to transport and increased influence over decision-making process?*

Questions on Policy Management

- *Is there a clear guiding strategy for management of information on the interpretation of women's position and condition within the development process?*
- *Are women and men from the affected community represented equally on the management committee?*
- *Is there a need for training in gender awareness and gender analysis?*
- *Has management been provided with the human and financial resources and expertise necessary to manage and monitor the women's development component within the policy programme and project?*

MALAWI RURAL TRANSPORT POLICY

Policy Framework

Malawi drafted a rural transport policy document in 1996 out of the experience gained through the implementation of the various pilot projects. Prior to this policy document, most of the rural transport interventions were initiated, planned and executed by respective line ministries and other organisations without proper co-ordination and complementarity. The draft policy document, which is a subject in National Transport Policy, is vital since it clearly spells out the overall goal, objectives, instruments/strategies, institutional framework and the rationale of the rural travel and transport policy.

The draft Rural Transport Policy aims at providing the framework within which the rural travel and transport sub-sector can be developed in a well co-ordinated manner and ensures that interventions complement each other rather than duplicating or even conflicting with one another. In addition, the policy is geared towards promoting and ensuring that rural transport activities are implemented by the Government, the private sector and non-governmental organisations bearing in mind the relevant investment policies, sectoral goals within clearly spelt out guidelines regarding investment, institutional regulatory mechanisms, pricing, cost recovery principles and issues such as gender and safety.

The Overall Goal of the Policy

The goal of the national rural transport policy is to ensure and promote a sustainable improvement of the standards of living of rural communities through increased access to facilities and socio-economic services. The policy seeks to address within the broad framework of poverty alleviation problems of mobility and access. Activities will, therefore, be undertaken to improve the mobility and accessibility of rural communities to goods and services in the rural areas at low cost to the economy.

Specific Objectives of Rural Transport Policy

The following are the objectives of the RTTP:

- a) Improvement of accessibility of rural people to socio-economic services and facilities such as hospitals, schools, markets, water sources, grinding mills etc.;
- b) Promoting an integrated approach to rural transport planning and execution of rural transport interventions;
- c) Ensuring that transport safety standards are enforced in rural areas to minimise the loss of life and goods through accidents; and
- d) Reduction of gender imbalance against females in undertaking rural transport activities.

Rural Transport Policy Strategies

As part of the process of achieving the RTP objectives, the Government of Malawi will put in place several strategies. The strategies will be guided by the following three principles:

- a) Transport interventions will in particular, target disadvantaged communities.
- b) Ensuring that planning of road and waterway infrastructure and services accommodate the requirements of non-motorised transport means; and
- c) Communities will actively be involved at all levels in the identification and implementation of rural transport interventions.

Investment Strategies

- a) Fiscal policy measures on rural transport activities will be continually reviewed whenever necessary to stimulate the development of rural transport policy;
- b) Investment and ownership of rural transport means shall be encouraged in the local communities through provision of the necessary incentives;
- c) Technical assistance shall be selectively provided to rural artisans for training in appropriate rural transport technologies;
- d) Government shall promote the establishment of credit facilities to enable entrepreneurs procure transport means, manufacture and maintain them;
- e) Government shall encourage civic education within local communities for continued participation in self-help activities with the aim of improving maintenance by creating a sense of ownership;
- f) Capacity building in rural transport will be encouraged at all levels and supported by the Government of Malawi and the private sector; and
- g) Women and girls shall be encouraged to invest and take part in the decision making process relating to rural transport matters.

Regulatory Strategies

- a) The Road and Marine Traffic Acts shall be reviewed to take into account all the rural transport policy issues;
- b) Equal access to credit among women and men shall be promoted in the rural set up;
- c) Legislation shall be introduced to include non-motorised transport as part of the normal traffic on roads on Malawi;
- d) Pick-ups and any other fare paying passenger vehicles will be subjected to minimum safety standards as shall be stipulated in the amended Road Traffic Act;
- e) Vehicle axle load shall be strictly enforced on rural roads to avoid degradation of the rural road infrastructure; and
- f) Government shall ensure use of appropriate standards in road infrastructure construction, rehabilitation and maintenance to minimise environmental degradation and accidents.

Pricing Strategies

Investment in rural transport shall be encouraged through the promotion of competition to avoid cartels and collusion on fare charges and freight rates. In order to facilitate this:

- a) Government shall continue monitoring the effects of liberalisation on fares and freight rates to ensure positive contribution to rural transport development;
- b) Government shall work out the vehicle operating costs to effectively review the rural transport policies; and
- c) Competition among the rural transporters shall be encouraged to stabilise the fare charges and freight rates.

UNIT TEN

MAINSTREAMING GENDER INTO PROJECT CYCLES

Objectives

By the end of this session, participants should be able to:

- identify the major components of a project.
- have acquired skills to mainstream gender into all components of a project.
- have a hands-on experience in developing gender sensitive project outlines in the rural travel and transport sub-sector.
- apply skills acquired on mainstreaming gender into projects within Rural Travel and Transport.

Duration 4 hours

Materials: Flipchart, newsprint, handouts, markers, overhead projector and transparencies.

Activity 1

Recap:

- Define a project.
- List the major components of a project as in *Handout O*.
- Discuss why it is important to consult all the key stakeholders at each stage of the Project Cycle.

Activity 2

- Using *Handout O*, go through the checklist of mainstreaming gender into the project cycle.

Activity 3

- Distribute Case Study in *Handout P*, to participants and ask them to check (using the questions in *Handout O*, if gender has been mainstreamed at each stage of the project cycle.
- Let groups present their work in plenary. Let other participants give feedback to each group after presentation. The facilitator should also give feedback so as to moderate the presentation.

Activity 4

- Divide participants into groups of five
- Ask one (or two) group(s) to design a Gender Sensitive Project Outline, which, systematically addresses the gender issues at all, stages of a project that seeks to rehabilitate feeder roads in a rural village.
- Let a group of five participants act as gender sensitive donor agents to critique the project outline.
- Ask another or two groups to design a role-play on gender sensitive project identification.

UNIT TEN
HANDOUT O

MAINSTREAMING GENDER INTO THE COMPONENTS
OF A PROJECT CYCLE

Components of a Project Cycle

- Project identification phase
- Goals and objective formulation
- Planning
- Interventions/planned activities - implementation
- Monitoring
- Evaluation

Critical Questions for Ensuring Gender Mainstreaming in the Project Cycle

Project Identification

- What are the gender gaps, constraints and opportunities of men and women in this sub-sector?
- What gender issues are found in this project at the project identification level?
- How are these issues related to the Activity Profile, Access Profile, Influencing factors?
- What are the opportunities available to improve access to IMTs by women?
- What are the opportunities available to improve control of IMTs by women?
- What are the opportunities available to improve benefits of use or control of IMTs and other resources by women?
- How has the data been compiled to show the gender gaps?
- What are the discriminatory practices that explain the gender gaps?
- What are the practical and gender needs of men and women?
- What training is needed by or has been provided to project planners, implementers and the beneficiaries to enhance gender awareness and skills among them?
- How gender aware are the organisations involved in project implementation?
- What resources have been allocated for gender mainstreaming?

Goals/Objectives

- How do the objectives address the gender gaps in the project?
- How do the objectives address the strategic and practical gender needs of men and women?
- Did women and men take part in the formulation stage?
- Were women and men trained to be able to identify their practical and strategic gender needs?

- How does the monitoring process involve consultation with all the relevant stakeholders?
- List the impact that is accrued when gender issues are addressed in a Project?
- What would be the negative effects of the project on men and women's lives?
- Will project reduce or increase access to and control over resources of men and women?

Project Design

- Which activities does the project affect - productive, reproductive or community management?
- Is project in line with the realities of the people?
- What is the impact on women and men's activities?
- If no changes, then does this mean that this is the missed opportunity for such change? How then can the project be adapted so that it can effect change?
- How can each of the project activities affect women and men's access to and control over resources?
- How can the project be adapted to increase women's and men's access to and control over resources?

Project Implementation

- Comprises of personnel, organisational structures, operations and logistics, finances, flexibility etc.

Personnel

- How many women and men officers are working on the project?
- Do the staff have the skill to differentiate between the needs of men and women?
- Is there positive attitude from the staff?
- Are women used to provide services to men and women?
- Are the staff competent to deal with women and men's needs?
- Are there possibilities for men and women to take up?

Organisational structures

- Is the organisational structure capable of increasing gender sensitivity?
- Does the organisation have enough resources to enable women and men to benefit from the changes?
- Does organisation have institutional capacity to sustain changes occurring in women and men's lives?
- Are resources of the organisation accessible to men and women?
- Are there mechanisms that ensure that men or women do not monopolise the resources of the project?
- Are there mechanisms to ensure the implementation of the project in a gender sensitive manner?

Operations and logistics

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

Finances

- Are there funds for men and women to sustain project implementation and changes?
- Are funds allocated specifically for gender mainstreaming?

Flexibility

- Does the project have an information and management system to enable it to measure the changing needs of men and women?
- Does the monitoring and evaluation system have a mechanism have the capacity to monitor the changes occurring in women and men?
- Are men and women involved in the collection of the data required?
- Are indicators able to take into account changes in men and women's lives?
- What mechanism have been introduced to ensure the monitoring and evaluation of impact on men and women?

Project Evaluation

- Does the project's monitoring and evaluation system explicitly measure the project's effects on women and men?
- Does it also collect data to update the Activity Profile and the women's and men's Access and Control Profile?
- Are women and men involved in designing the data requirements?
- Are the data collected with sufficient frequency so that necessary project adjustments could be made during the project?
- Are the data fed back to the project personnel and beneficiaries in an understandable form and on timely basis to allow for project adjustments?
- Are women and men involved in the monitoring and evaluating data collection and interpretation?

UNIT TEN
HANDOUT P

IDENTIFYING TYPE OF PROJECT

Promoting Use and Ownership of IMTs Among Men and Women in Kario Land

Project Objectives

The project has been implemented for the past three years (1999-2001) by the RTTP in the Department of Works in the Ministry of Public Works and Transport in Kario land. It is a joint project with the National Rural Infrastructure Department (NRID) The NRID is being implemented as part of a national strategy by the Kario land government to alleviate poverty through improved access to basic social services and a strengthened enabling environment for sustainable rural development. The objectives of this strategy are defined in the National Rural Infrastructure Department . The project in question was developed with the aim to develop a sustainable framework for promoting IMTs in Kario land and through this meet men and women's transport needs in the productive and domestic spheres .

Project Description

The project was implemented by a non-governmental organisation experienced in rural development called Kabola Projects. Kabola Projects was identified on the basis of its interest to work on and promote the use of IMTs among women in Kario Land. Under the project, Kabola sought to use the experience gained by another organisation that had introduced a certain type of motorcycle in another country in South Vala. The motorcycle has a carrying capacity of 40 kilograms and can be used in transporting household and agricultural goods.

At the start of the project, the RTTP and NRID sent two representatives from Kabola Projects on a one-week trip to study the motorbike project in South Vala. Kabola also invited two experts, one of whom was a gender expert and the other a mechanic, from South Vala to visit Senegal for one week and assist in the setting up of the project.

The project is set up a revolving loan facility, which made available loans to both men and women to enable them to own and manage and also purchase for sale the motorcycle. The fund requires a borrower to give his or her agricultural produce as security for the loans.

Kabola Projects carried out an Information and Education Campaign (IEC) to encourage men and women to own and use IMTs. Information on the availability of the motorcycle was posted at local shops, wells, health and educational facilities, with the local village leadership, church and other non-governmental organisations. School children were also told of the project and encouraged to go and tell their parents about the loans and the motorcycle. Both male and female project officers were also used in the campaign. The project also used the local community radio stations, which broadcasts, in the rural area of Kario Land to advertise the motorcycle. Special training programs were designed and implemented over the last three years to ensure that men and women are able to use and maintain the motorcycles. A local store has been contracted to supply the spare parts of the motorcycle.

Kabola Projects carried out a baseline study in a fairly typical rural community in Paos Koto, to collect baseline socio-economic data to design appropriate interventions for promoting the use of the motorcycles in Kario Land. As part of this, Kabola Projects also carried out a needs assessment study that both men and women in the individual and also as associations had an interest in purchasing for use and resale the motorcycle.

Two project officers (one female and the other male) who have been trained in gender analysis are responsible for implementing this project. They regularly discuss with women and men, at times separately and other times, collectively on project progress. They have developed indicators to regularly measure the impact of the project on the lives of both men and women, their activities and access to and control over the motorcycles.

It is now three years since the project was introduced and the RTTP, NRID, Kabola in conjunction with communities would like to carry out an evaluation of the impact of the project on the lives of men and women.

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