

Access to and control of resources

Resources include land, buildings, equipment, tools, livestock, shelter, labour, cash, education/training, healthcare among others. It refers to any of the resources associated with a project. Having *access to a resource* means someone is able to access and make use of it. However, this does not mean that they have control over it. Whoever controls a resource and its benefits is ultimately able to make decisions about its use. Control over a resource refers to the power to decide how a resource is used, as well as who has access to it, when and how.

Access to and control of resources

To practice better hygiene, women need more water, time, funds and permission to use these resources compared to men. During the wet season, Somali women will bath babies daily, prepare two meals per day and wash utensils and clothes regularly. Under pressure of water collection and social customs, they will reduce water consumption to 10 litres per person per day and less during the dry season. Towards the end of the dry season, they reduce all washing and bathing, and cook only one meal per day.

Capacities and vulnerabilities

Capacities are existing strengths that people bring to a project. Vulnerabilities are factors that weaken the ability of people to cope with challenges and could be a disadvantage of the project. Capacities and vulnerabilities can take many forms, including:

(a) physical or material (e.g. features of the climate, land and environment where people live; their health, skills and work; housing; technologies; water and food supply; access to capital and other assets etc.);

(b) social or organisational (e.g. the social fabric of a community, and this could include the formal political structures and the informal systems through which people make decisions, establish leadership, or organise various social and economic activities. It also could include family and community systems, and decision making patterns within the family and between and among families etc.); and

(c) motivational or attitudinal (e.g. cultural and psychological factors which may be based on religion and the community's history among others.)

Empowerment can be defined as the ability to participate in, negotiate with, influence, control, and to hold accountable. It implies freedom of choice and action. Activities which

seek to empower people will increase development opportunities, enhance development outcomes and improve people's quality of life. Empowerment is about women and men taking control over their lives: setting their own agendas, gaining skills, increasing self-confidence, solving problems and developing self-reliance. It is about women's and men's right to make choices, the power to control their own lives within and outside the home, and the ability to influence the direction of social change towards the establishment of a more just social and economic order. Empowerment also refers to a range of interrelated components consisting of the following:

- (a) awareness building about women's situation, discrimination and rights, and opportunities available as steps towards gender quality;
- (b) capacity building and skills *development*, especially the ability to plan, make decisions, organise, manage and carry out activities, to deal with people and institutions;
- (c) participation and greater control and decision making power; and
- (d) action to bring about greater equality between men and women.

Empowerment

The Self-Employed Women's Association made up of 215,000 poor self-employed women, launched a ten year water campaign in nine districts of Gujarat, India. Watershed Committees were established (with at least seven of the 11 members being women, including a woman Chairperson). The results included the construction of 15 farm ponds, the recharging of 120 tube wells, repairing of 20 village ponds, recharging of three check dams and establishment of 15 open wells. As a result of the more productive land, women have been able to benefit from growing cash crops, tree planting and other forms of employment.

In Chile, a project supported women to be involved in productive activities. From May to August, it is not possible to grow vegetables in the area, so vegetables are brought from the centre of Chile at great cost. The project held a workshop for a group of women to discuss the idea of growing vegetables in low-cost greenhouses made out of plastic sheeting. Now, a number of groups run such greenhouses. The women contribute the wood and labour for the construction and then take turns looking after the vegetables. The project is working at the level of "access" – since it is increasing women's access to, for example, communal land, greenhouses and vegetables.

Enabling organisational environment for the gender mainstreaming refers to factors that will make it easier or more difficult for mainstreaming to be implemented successfully. If the factors are not present, or if negative factors are present, it will result in mainstreaming being more difficult and, perhaps, unsuccessful or outright impossible (see Annexure 5).

Gender describes the socially given characteristics, roles, activities, and responsibilities associated with being a female or a male. It determines how we are perceived, expected to think and act as men and women. It is about socialisation and learned behaviour.

Gender analysis is a process to assess the differential impact of policies, programmes, projects, legislation etc. on men and women. It recognises that the realities of men's and women's lives are different, and that equal opportunity does not necessarily mean equal results. Gender analysis explores and highlights the relationships between women and men in society, and the inequalities in those relationships, by asking key questions including: Who does what? Who has what resources? Who decides? How? Who gains? Who loses? Furthermore, gender analysis breaks down the divide between the private sphere (i.e. involving personal relationships) and the public sphere (i.e. which deals with relationships in wider society).

Gender and Development (GAD) approach was developed in the 1980s in response to perceived failings of the Women in Development (WID) approach. Rather than focusing exclusively on women as WID approach does, GAD is concerned with relations between women and men. It challenges unequal decision making and power relations between men and women. The WID approach emerged in the 1970s with the goal of integrating women more fully into the development process. It includes strategies such as promoting women-only projects.

Gender-based division of labour (see also power relations). Men and women are assigned tasks, activities and responsibilities according to their sex. Mostly, gender power relations are skewed in favour of men, and different values are ascribed to men's tasks and women's tasks. In some societies, men are more concerned with water for irrigation or for cattle (i.e. considered part of productive work). They usually have a greater role than women in public decision making about water and sanitation issues. Women are usually the primary collectors, users, and managers of water in the household – and this is often considered part of reproductive work. There are, broadly speaking, two kinds of work:

(1) **Reproductive work** involves the care and maintenance of the household (such as cooking, washing, cleaning, nursing, bearing children and looking after them, building and maintaining shelter etc.) Such work is rarely considered of the same value as productive work; it's normally unpaid and mostly done by women.

(2) **Productive work** refers to economic activities such as the manufacturing of products or the provision of services to generate income. It is recognised and valued as work by society. Although both women and men perform productive work, not all of this is valued or rewarded in the same way.

Gender-based division of labour

Assumptions about inputs of the community towards pit-digging, superstructure construction or similar tasks with regards to latrines have to be carefully made under circumstances where many able-bodied men are absent. Women may be fully occupied in managing households and farms and they may have to give higher priority to other obligations. For example, in Lesotho, the community was expected to contribute labour towards a school sanitation project, but able-bodied men were often absent and the women in many villages could not cope with digging the planned large pits in the rocky soil, nor did they have the time. Women and vulnerable groups should take part in decisions such as whether the latrine is situated inside or outside the house, its location in relation to the main dwelling e.g. (at the back, side or front), its orientation, the distance from the house, distance from water sources, and other such considerations

Women are the primary managers of household water use in Yemen. They use and reuse the same water. They save the cleanest and freshest water for drinking, personal washing, cooking, and washing drinking glasses, food, and flour-grinding stones. They save grey water for washing clothes and watering plants. Water that has been used for washing food is given to poultry and cattle; water used for clothes washing is reused to clean floors and wash dishes.

As part of a project in Nairobi (Kenya), community Vented Improved Pit latrines and water points were provided. Two of the community water points are managed by the Daranjani Women's group, comprising 20 women and five men. All its members are trained in hygiene promotion and in the operation and maintenance of the 10,000 litre water storage tanks that are connected to the main municipal supply.

Gender equality means that women and men enjoy the same status. However, it does not mean that men and women are the same. Rather, it means that their similarities and differences are recognised and equally valued. It also means that women and men experience equal conditions for realising their full human rights, and have the same opportunities to contribute to and benefit from political, economic, social and cultural development. Initially, it was believed that equality could be achieved by giving women and men the same opportunities. The assumption was that this would bring equal results. However, it was realised that the same treatment did not necessarily lead to equal results. Today, it is acknowledged that different treatment of women and men may sometimes be required to achieve sameness of results (i.e. equality of outcome), due to life conditions or to compensate for past discrimination. Gender equality is therefore the equal valuing of both the similarities and differences between women and men, and the varying roles that they play.

Gender equity is the process of being fair to both men and women through measures to compensate for historical and social disadvantages that prevent women and men from otherwise operating on a level playing field (for example affirmative action or a quota

system). It is the fair sharing of resources, opportunities and benefits. Equity can be understood as the means, where equality is the end. Equity leads to equality.

Gender mainstreaming can be defined as the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action (including legislation, policies, projects or programmes) in any area of work and at all levels (e.g. in all water sub-sectors, such as domestic water supply and sanitation, irrigation, hydropower, flood control, river basin management etc.). It is a strategy to make the concerns and experiences of women and men an integral part of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of any action or process, so that women and men benefit equally, and inequalities are not perpetuated. The ultimate goal of gender mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality by transforming policies, procedures and institutions. Acknowledging and addressing gender divisions, roles and identities contributes to the effectiveness, efficiency and sustainability of water resources management. Therefore, gender mainstreaming recognises existing divisions of labour and inequalities in rights, resources and power, as well as the need to adjust practices and processes to reflect and address these. It is important to note that mainstreaming is not just about integrating women (or gender issues, or the concerns of vulnerable groups) into an already defined and established agenda in the water sector, but it also consists of transforming this agenda to better reflect women's needs, gender concerns, and the concerns of vulnerable people. Gender mainstreaming is a long-term, transformative process that involves rethinking socio-cultural values and development goals.

Gender relations (see also power relations) refer to how men and women relate to each other, resulting in manifestations of gender-based power. This arises from the roles men and women play and the impact of their interactions. For example, men mostly assume the earner and leader roles, while women assume the domestic and childcare roles. These gender/power relations are uneven because men have more power in making influential decisions. Gender/power relations always result in one part (mostly women) being worse off than the other (mostly men) and this creates social imbalances.

Gender sustainability could be defined as embedding aspects related to knowledge, capacity, empowerment, a sense of agency, and the ability to use gender mainstreaming tools into projects and processes. It also refers to the ongoing use of a gender framework and gender mainstreaming tools by role-players such as government institutions and community committees.

Impact. Assessing the differential impacts allows a comparison between the current situation and the expected impacts of a project on people. It involves analysing the different impacts a project has on women, men and vulnerable groups, as well as the consequent changes experienced as a result of the project.

Impact

In Ethiopia, community-managed integrated water, sanitation and hygiene projects increased the amount of water available for domestic use from less than 10 litres a day per person to 18 – 22 litres. The length of time women used to provide water for the family was reduced from around eight hours to between five and 20 minutes. The women reported that their domestic chores were easier to carry out now that the amount of water used was not so severely restricted.

In Benin, a programme to construct boreholes provided safe drinking water and therefore reduced the burden of water collection on women. The boreholes saved women time fetching water, and increased their time available to work on the fields with their husbands. Even with this heavy workload, they felt that life had become easier and there was a valuable pay off in that there was better crop production.

Influencing factors present opportunities and constraints to increasing the involvement of women, men and vulnerable groups in a project. It includes community norms and social hierarchies (e.g. family/community forms, cultural practices and religious beliefs); institutional structures (e.g. government bureaucracies); economic conditions (e.g. income and poverty levels, inflation rates, trade); political events; legal restrictions, and training and education.

Influencing factors

Constraints to participation must be taken into account including aspects such as time available for participation; location of meetings; preferences concerning the types of participation (taking into account time, money and materials), and the need for separate meetings of men and women, or female staff to meet with women etc.

Power relations (see also gender-based division of labour). The gender-based division of labour is also largely the foundation for the power relations between men and women. Power relations refer to the gendered relationships between men and women; it is about how power is distributed between women and men. Power relations affect men's and women's positions in society, and how responsibilities are allocated. Gender power relations are also influenced by factors such as class, race, ethnicity and disability.

Practical needs (see also strategic interests) are immediately perceived necessities for meeting basic needs such as water and health-care provision, opportunities for earning an income to provide for the household, provision of housing and basic services, distribution of food etc. – often related to inadequacies in living conditions. It is related to the material circumstances in which people live, and is usually met without changing the possible subordinate position of, for example, women in society.

Practical needs

Women often place a different value than men on features of latrines such as privacy offered by the superstructure, comfort, attractiveness, convenience, prestige and status value, reliability and safety.

In the rural areas of Tibet, there is what is known as a “back happy” tap stand, which is an adaptation of the traditional tap stand, with a waist high shelf and an extra higher tap added. Water can drain off the sloped shelf to the splash apron at ground level. This allows women to fill and carry 15 – 20 litre metal jars of water, without bending from the waist. Women report that this design has improved their quality of life as the task of water carrying is now far less difficult.

In Nicaragua, women did not like to use new latrines because the design of the superstructure allowed their feat to be seen. In other countries, latrines remained unused because the enclosure was too dark, the design or materials used encouraged bats or snakes to nest inside, and children defecated outside because they were afraid of falling down the large opening or because it was too dark inside.

Women should be consulted about the suitability of technology and design features for their young children, particularly from the perspective of safety and avoidance of falling. It will be largely up to them whether children are encouraged to use the latrines or not. In Zimbabwe, it was found that some women were actively discouraging their children from using latrines because of fears for their safety, while in Botswana, one type of latrine were found not to be regularly used because women found the units too hard to keep clean.

Sex refers to the biological differences between women and men. It is concerned with men's and women's bodies, i.e. it is about biology.

Strategic interest (see also practical needs) includes activities that empower women to have more opportunities, greater access to resources, equal participation in decision making, challenges to the gender division of labour, the alleviation of the burden of domestic labour and child care etc. It has the potential to transform existing imbalances of power between men and women and is linked to status and “position”, i.e. the relative social and economic standing of women compared to men. It contributes to greater equality between men and women, and challenges the possible subordinate position of, for example, women in society.

Vulnerable groups as a term is associated with social exclusion as a process by which certain groups are systematically disadvantaged because they are excluded and marginalised (intentionally and unintentionally) on the basis of ethnicity, race, religion, sexual orientation, caste, descent, gender, age, disability, HIV status, migrant status or where they live. Various factors such as poverty, gender, conflict, insecurity, socialisation etc. cause vulnerability, marginalisation and social exclusion. The result is that individuals or groups are unable to access social and economic resources to participate fully in society. Thinking about it in this way helps us to understand and respond to the institutional and relational

dynamics that prevents the attainment of human development. Therefore, understanding the forces behind social exclusion leads to effective response strategies in order to promote human development.