guide

Rural households and resources

A guide for extension workers

SEAGA

Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis Programme

Food and Agriculture Organization
of the United Nations

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Contents

INTRODUCTION

The SEAGA *Guide on rural households and resources* (hereafter referred to as "the guide") is actually three interlinked documents made up of the following:

1. Part I: A resource guide providing background information on household resource management and an overview of issues to keep in mind when planning extension interventions.
2. Annexes containing a glossary, references and checklists.
3. Part II: A toolbox for use in communication with rural people/extension clients.

These sections are outlined in greater detail in the subsection on Structure. The guide was developed under the Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis Programme (SEAGA) of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO).

PURPOSE

The guide aims to highlight major issues affecting rural households, and to provide users with resources and tools for collecting, analysing and sharing information about the constraints, opportunities and priorities faced by communities, households and individual household members.

The guide promotes the use of gender-sensitive and participatory approaches as a means of achieving sustainable development that puts people at the centre of the issues, analysis and solutions.

USERS

The guide has been developed to assist extension and community workers to apply a participatory and gender-sensitive approach to their planning and work with rural households and people.

STRUCTURE

The guide consists of three parts:

Part I outlines the relevance and interlinkages among extension, farmers, households, communities, development, gender and participation.

> **Chapter 1** introduces the concepts of SEAGA, gender, stakeholders and household resource management, as well as the multiple and changing roles of extension workers and the services they provide. It also introduces different sources of information and their use.
>
> **Chapter 2** focuses on some of the major constraints that rural households face, and outlines some key gender issues concerning basic resources such as water, land, credit/savings and time. It also provides sources of information for improving household nutrition.
>
> **Chapter 3** provides practical tips for conducting socio-economic and gender analysis with communities, and gives some examples of ways forward.

Annexes A–G contain the following:

> Annex A: **Glossary** of terms relevant to households and their resource management;
>
> Annex B: **Resources and Web links** to international organizations that can provide further information on specific issues;
>
> Annex C: **Local resources** intended for extension workers to fill in according to their own development context, stakeholders, case studies and other relevant information;
>
> Annex D: **Domestic violence** is a one-page resource note related to this particular constraint;
>
> Annex E: **Checklists for gender-sensitive project guidance** provides some guidance to those interested in specific project formulation,
>
> Annex F: **Checklist for HIV/AIDS in subsistence agriculture** summarizes which groups are vulnerable to the spread and impact of HIV/AIDS, and lists some possible responses suitable for this sector; and
>
> Annex G: Shows an example of a **case study** and how a real-life situation can be a useful tool for stimulating discussion and finding solutions.

Part II contains a **toolbox** of participatory learning tools particularly adapted to help extension and community workers collect, analyse and share information on household resource management issues.

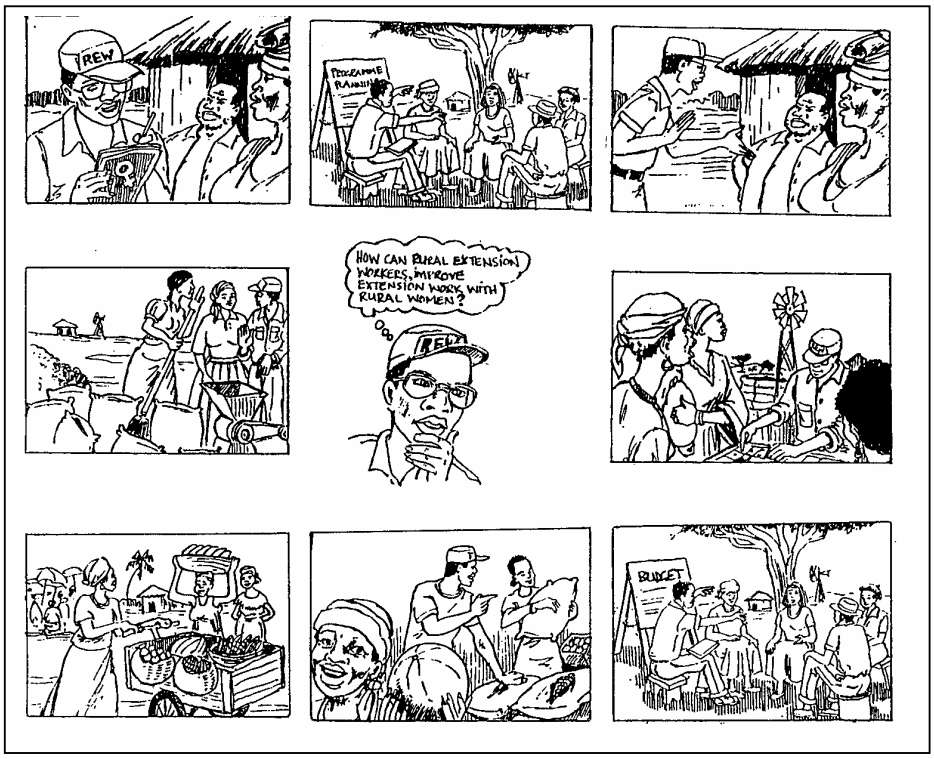
THE SEAGA PACKAGE

This guide is one of many SEAGA documents. Others that are available from FAO's Gender and Development Service include:

- ***the field-level handbook*** (Wilde, 2001), which is written for development agents who work directly with local communities and provides in-depth descriptions of a wide range of participatory tools;
- ***the intermediate-level handbook*** (Norem, 2001), which is meant for people who work in institutions and organizations that link macro-level policies to the field level, including government ministries, extension organizations, farmers' unions, and educational and research institutions;
- ***the macro-level handbook*** (FAO, 2003), which is for planners and policy-makers at both the national and international levels;
- **sector-/issue-specific guides,** which have adaptated SEAGA tools and methods for technical areas (e.g. irrigation, livestock, micro-enterprises, project cycle).

References to other SEAGA material

This guide can be used on its own or in conjunction with other SEAGA materials or other training material. References to other SEAGA publications are proceeded by this symbol ■. **FH** indicates the field handbook, **IH,** the intermediate handbook and **MH,** the macro handbook. For example, a reference to a tool, forcefield analysis in the intermediate handbook will appear: ■ IH Forcefield analysis.



Chapter 1 Farmers, households, resources and extension

Extension and community workers carry a heavy burden of work – they must be "all things to all people". They must respond appropriately to the needs of rural households, and carry extension messages from their ministries and others in order to support sustainable rural development. Their job is made even more difficult in the context of macroeconomic trends favouring economies of scale and the privatization of extension services. They also face the challenge of responding to fast-paced demographic changes in rural households, largely due to outmigration of labour (particularly male) and rural ageing. In some regions, the HIV/AIDS epidemic is transforming rural communities and households, creating new demands for extension services.

While these pressures affect extension workers, they affect rural households even more. Such stresses have a heavy impact on intra-household resource management dynamics, particularly in terms of:

- labour
- decision-making; and
- access to productive resources and agricultural services and technologies.

All of this increases the need for extension personnel to understand better the issues related to the changing dynamics of household management of resources, particularly in terms of household and individual food security and rural livelihoods. In particular, there is a need to strengthen the capacity of extension workers to respond to the different needs and priorities within households.

This chapter provides an introduction to the SEAGA approach and concepts of household resource management, gender and participatory tools and approaches, as well as to the relevance of these to extension work. Concrete tips for conducting socio-economic and gender analysis and using gender-sensitive and participatory approaches in extension work are included in Chapter 3.

1. 1 THE SEAGA APPROACH

SEAGA is a people-centred programme that helps formulate projects, programmes and policies for a sustainable, equitable and efficient development process. SEAGA is an approach to development based on the analysis of socio-economic patterns and the participatory identification of the needs and priorities of women, men and different socio-economic groups. The SEAGA tools promote a better understanding of the roles and responsibilities of both men and women and of the issues surrounding their access to and control over resources.

The SEAGA approach has the following three guiding principles at its centre:

- *Gender roles and relations are of key importance* to understanding and improving the livelihoods of rural people.

- *Disadvantaged people are a priority* in development initiatives. The differential distribution of wealth affects the poorest and most disadvantaged in terms of their access to resources.
- *Participation is essential* for sustainable development, and all activities must address the needs, priorities and capacities of communities, households and individual household members.

The SEAGA programme uses some terms that are common to both the approach and the materials used. These are discussed in more length in the next section. The glossary in Appendix A contains a list of terms that may be unfamiliar to some readers.

1.2 HOUSEHOLD RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

1.2.1 Households, resources and their management

Household resource management uses the household and resource management as entry-points to understand and address rural development challenges. The approach acknowledges that households are diverse, in both composition and socio-economic status, and that they vary greatly from one culture to another as well as within a single community. Definitions of a household and other concepts related to household resource management are contained in the glossary in Annex A.

Emphasis should be given to both look at the development context as well as analysing management systems within households. The latter include analysis of intra-household dynamics related to decision-making, assigning priorities, resource allocation, and access to and control over resources such as land, water, time, credit, and savings. In order for extension services to be useful and sustainable, they must be designed to meet the needs and priorities of the community and its different households and individual household members – and this is *not* an easy task! Socio-economic and gender analysis can help extension workers with this.

Key questions related to the management of household resources

- What is considered a household?
- Who are the household members?
- What are their resources and how are they managed?
- Who manages/uses the different resources?
- Who has access to the resources and who controls them
- Who benefits from them?
- What are the needs of the different household members
- What are their priorities?

Using household resource management as an entry point allows extension workers to strengthen their understanding of the different client groups, their constraints, opportunities and needs, and helps them to reach all groups, including the most disadvantaged. Understanding these issues will assist extension workers in facilitating farmers' learning and mobilization to improve their livelihoods.

1.2.2 Gender, gender roles and gender relations[1]

Gender refers to the socially constructed roles of, and relations between, women and men. It is not to be confused with the biologically determined sexes of male and female. From an early age, people learn what is appropriate for a boy or girl to do, for example, what games to play, how to behave and whom to copy.

In addition, throughout their life times, people are also socialized to play age-specific roles that their societies consider to be the most appropriate behaviour for men and women. This applies to people's roles within households as well as within the wider community.

Example of gender roles

Women's domain in Honduras is the home and patio garden; men take primary responsibility for the cultivation of basic grains, generally a good distance from the house. With the tendency for agriculture to spread up hillsides, the physical space between men's and women's activities has increased. Women's work outside the home and garden is limited to harvest activities, coffee picking and pulling up beans.

Source: Humphries *et al.*, 2000.

Gender roles are dynamic and ever changing. For example, in many countries over the past century, men have taken an increasing role in child care and food preparation within the household. What is regarded as women's work in one village today may have been considered men's work some time back. Roles vary according to geographic location and are the result of religious, cultural, socio-economic and political circumstances. Gender roles are highly influenced by expectations based on class, age, ethnicity and religion. For instance, an older man will be expected to play a different role in the society from that of a young man.

In Bangladesh, Nepal and Thailand, only women collect fuelwood. In Bhutan and Sri Lanka, men help women do the same job. In Thailand and India, women collect non-wood products such as herbs, mushrooms and medicinal plants, while in Sri Lanka both men and women harvest three products.

Source: Wilde and Vainio-Mattila, 1995

Gender relations are women's roles in relation to those of men (and vice versa), rather than women's or men's roles separately.

Through managing its resources, a rural household deals with internal and external demands to sustain itself. However, household members may have vastly different views and capacities as regards supporting their livelihoods and determining their priorities, interests and needs.

[1] See more definitions in the glossary in Annex A.

Use, control and management of household resources by sex

At a household resource management workshop held in Namibia in November 1998, participants from various countries in Southern Africa disaggregated typical household resources by sex in terms of ownership, use, control, access and management, and came up with the following general consensus for their environments (from *Farmers Weekly* 05/02/99). Their analysis shows clearly that women have access to resources and make use of them, but the control and ownership remains in the hands of men.

Assets	Own	Control	Use	Monitor	Access
Land	M	M	W/M	M	M/W
House	M	M/W	M/W	W	M/W
Water		W	M/W	W	W/M
Fuelwood	W	W	W/M	W	W
Livestock	M	M	M/W	M	M/W
Finance $	M	M	M/W	M	M/W
Labour	M/W	M	M/W	M/W	M/W

(M = men, W = women)

1.3 EXTENSION WORK

1.3.1 The multiple and changing roles of extension workers

In general, the functions of community-based extension agents include (FAO, 1985):

- facilitating farmers' acquisition of new knowledge and skills;
- providing technical advice and information;
- mobilizing and establishing farmers' organizations; and
- building self-reliance to promote sustainable rural development.

Extension challenges: Some of the biggest challenges facing rural populations and extension services arise from the impacts of globalization, market liberalization, privatization and decentralization. At the same time, extension workers are expected to promote approaches that are participatory and that consider the environment and the various needs of communities.

Services for different types of farmers

In the 1990s, data from FAO's Global Consultation on Agricultural Extension showed that in developing countries 6 percent of extension agents' time and resources are devoted to large commercial farmers, 26 percent to smaller commercial farmers, 24 percent to subsistence farmers, and 6 percent to women farmers.

Source: FAO, 1996.

There is also a push to move from subsistence to commercial farming, and demands on extension services to respond to the challenges of disasters, emergencies and the HIV/AIDS epidemic, and to have knowledge of issues such as biotechnology and information and communication technologies.

HIV/AIDS pandemic

It has been argued that the global HIV/AIDS pandemic is perhaps the foremost challenge facing humankind today. All United Nations (UN) agencies and governments have been urged to tackle the pandemic and its effects in a comprehensive manner by forming partnerships and harnessing multisectoral resourcs.

Sub-Saharan Africa is cited as one of the regions most affected by HIV/AIDS. Because HIV/AIDS is predominant among the part of the population with the highest capacity for work, the spread of the disease is having devastating consequences at the household and community levels, thus increasing hardship for rural resource-poor households. This also translates into profound negative consequences for agricultural production and national economies.

As commercial farmers can derive direct financial benefits from agricultural extension inputs, there is a trend towards privatizing extension services. The result is that farmers are now required to pay for services that they previously received free of charge (Swanson, Bentz and Sofranko, 1997). In many developing countries, the rural poor and the landless (often the same) do not have disposable income to pay for these private extension services. Particular attention must be given to poor and vulnerable groups, including people with disabilities. These groups often suffer disproportionately as a result of unfavourable trends in the rural economy because of their already marginalized situation.

Decentralization (in which services and decision-making are relegated to the local authorities) can be effective if financial resources are also decentralized, but control over financial resources is often maintained at more central levels. Decentralization and privatization efforts suggest that supply-side extension should be abandoned in favour of demand-driven approaches that are more responsive to farmers' needs.

Participatory approaches – one response to the challenges: Participatory approaches can be more responsive to the needs of rural people as they fundamentally change the respective roles of extension agents and clients. The agent is no longer seen as the expert who has all the useful information and technical knowledge. Individual and collective client knowledge is recognized as a major resource, and solutions to local problems are developed in partnership between extension workers and farmers (Swanson, Bentz and Sofranko, 1997).

Nowadays, an integrated approach to field-level service provision, whereby government extension services work with other partners (private or NGOs) is often put forward. It is important that community workers actively seek collaboration with sectors in which they do not have sufficient capacity. They should also try both to keep a holistic perspective on the household and rural development and to consider the intra-household dimensions of rural livelihoods.

Working together as partners

Experience from the Agricultural Support Service Project in Bangladesh, which is supported by the World Bank, indicates that cooperation among government, civil society organizations and the private sector can be extremely difficult. The process can be largely donor-driven with unrealistic assumptions about partners' willingness to collaborate. This type of cooperation requires time to take root, including the transformation of services, and capacity building for district-level staff in a wide range of both technical and interactive skills.

Source: Chowdhury and Gilbert, 1996.

Gender-responsive participatory approaches – more relevant responses: Extension services are faced with the challenge of developing extension programmes and providing services that respond to the needs of both women and men in various agro-ecological and socio-economic contexts. Rural women and men rarely engage in only one type of activity, but rather have many on- and off-farm activities, and therefore need advice in a combination of areas, including nutrition, income generation, credit schemes and new technologies. It is therefore critical for extension workers to have good knowledge about the actual and potential users of their services.

Beans and maize: what does gender have to do with them?

In research trials in Zambia in the late 1980s, beans (typically produced by women) were intercropped with maize (typically grown by men) in fields prepared by tractor or oxen. The objective was to save women's labour on land preparation, increase the area for cultivation of beans and raise bean yields with the fertilizer applied to maize.

Although the intercropping of beans in the same row or hill as maize led to an increase in bean yields, women farmers were reluctant to adopt the practice because, by intercropping with maize, beans would become a crop of men, to be grown primarily for cash rather than for use as a relish.

Source: Feldstein and Poats, 1990.

According to Jiggens, Samanta and Olawoye (1997), agricultural extension strategies have traditionally focused on increasing cash crop production (by providing men with training, information and access to inputs and services). This male bias is illustrated by training centres that have been established to provide residential training, which often do not have separate washing and sleeping facilities for men and women or facilities for the care of babies and young children (Jiggens, Samanta and Olawoye, 1997). Women's daily workloads and responsibilities for young children make it difficult for them to be absent from home, and efforts are needed to provide extension services and training initiatives that are responsive to women's needs and that can reach them.

Many policy-makers and development workers perceive farmers as being exclusively male, and this makes it more difficult for women than men to gain access to resources that would strengthen their production capacity, such as land, credit and services. Extension programmes that target farmers who own land and have access to credit to purchase inputs and technology exclude many groups. To improve efforts to eliminate poverty, extension services must reach both women and men, including those who do not own land and who have poor access to resources.

Extension workers are valuable links between rural men and women and policy-makers. They can provide decision-makers at the district and national levels with information that builds a better basis for planning. They are often one of the few channels through which the voices of rural men, women and other groups can be heard.

The institutional response to the new extension challenges includes steps to broaden the role of the extension services, increase client-orientation and use participatory, bottom-up approaches, as well as to decentralize and privatize extension services (Qamar, 2002). Chapter 3 provides concrete tips on how to apply a participatory, bottom-up and client-oriented approach in extension work.

1.3.2 Stakeholders

At the ***field level*****,** rural women, men and youth are the key stakeholders in extension services. However, there are many subgroups competing for these services (e.g. commercial farm owners, the landless, day-labourers, young farmers, etc.), and these have different extension needs that will change over time. Changes in needs may be particularly dramatic in communities affected by HIV/AIDS. The epidemic changes household composition by increasing one-parent households in its early stages and increasing grandparent- and child-headed households in areas of high prevalence. People living with HIV/AIDS or weak health may want advice on low-input crops, or contact information for organizations dealing with chronic diseases; other client groups may give priority to advice on how to market particular products.

A stakeholder is anyone who:

- has a direct or indirect interest in the outcome of a development intervention (such as extension activities)
- affects or is affected by the outcome of a development intervention (such as extension activities)

At the ***intermediate level***, stakeholders include the organizations delivering services to rural men and women, including extension services. Consultations with rural women have often highlighted the fact that they have problems reaching extension officers. They often find it difficult relating and explaining their problems to male staff. Schedules must be conducive to the timetables of both men and women if both groups are to be reached.

It is in the interest of stakeholders at the field, intermediate and macro levels to achieve efficient service delivery to rural households and individual farmers in order to increase production and promote sustainable rural development. Policy-makers need to be continuously updated about the needs and priorities of rural households so that they can optimize their planning for development.

Women's limited control over agricultural resources

In the Arab Republic of Syria, farming is usually a household activity, except among wealthier farm households. Information on labour in agriculture shows that women are usually responsible for caring for livestock and poultry. Grazing is the exception, with men

doing an estimated 37 percent of the work. Women's farm work in Syria usually includes planting, seeding, weeding, harvesting, fruit collection, crop residue collection and pruning, animal feeding, milking, and egg collection. However, Syrian women have little role in marketing and sale of the products - in 91 percent of households this is a male task. Rural women in Syria also tend to have little decision-making power within the household regarding the disposal of family income. Limited control over agricultural resources is a barrier to access to credit, equipment and resources. Male control of marketing further reinforces women's lack of control over income.

Source: IFAD, 1999a.

Remember that changes in extension service delivery may change the benefits and costs for different groups of people in different ways. While some groups obtain increased benefits, others may suffer adversely.

Key questions for analysis

- Who are the existing clients of the extension services (by sex, age, wealth status)?
- How do they benefit from the extension services? At what cost?
- Are there any groups that are not reached? Who? Why not?
- Who delivers advice and services to rural women, men, youth and other groups? What services do they deliver? How sustainable are they?
- Is there conflict among stakeholders? Are there common interests? Partnerships?

1.3.3 Focusing on the supply side

It is useful to focus on the supply side of services in order to evaluate what is available locally and to identify possibilities for collaboration and information sharing. One way of doing this is to make a list of those organizations and groups that provide services in a specific radius to a rural area (■ FH Stakeholder analysis, Venn diagram and Stakeholder matrix). At first, it may seem as though there are no other services available. A thorough assessment of *who* and *what* is available locally will help to identify a number of organizations (e.g. cooperatives, unions, research associations, grassroots organizations, production groups, NGOs, private-sector companies, sales representatives, bilateral and multilateral donors operating in the area, and financing institutions). Different organizations' services can be researched, listed and compared. This provides an opportunity to think about who might offer the best type of service as well as possibilities for collaboration.

When supply does not match demand: the case of agricultural tools

A study by the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) and FAO on the agricultural tools for tillage, planting and weeding used by women in five African countries (Uganda, Burkina Faso, Senegal, Zambia and Zimbabwe) examined the perceptions of women and men farmers as the users of agricultural tools in order to review the issues and constraints experienced by them. More than 1 600 people (mainly rural women) took part in 155 participatory group discussions.

There were clear gender differences between women and men farmers regarding their preferences for tool size and design. For example, women tended to prefer lighter hand tools. It was reported that it is normally the man who goes to the store or market to buy tools and implements; as a consequence, heavier and larger hoes are purchased as men expect them to last longer.

Because men are the exclusive purchasers of the majority of tools, women's needs for agricultural implements remain largely invisible to tool manufacturers. Strategies to create better linkages between the users and makers/suppliers of agricultural tools are needed. In addition, although public-sector officials largely recognize women's current and increasing role in agriculture (and the female labour limitations of hand hoeing), they still tend to concentrate their agricultural extension support on men.

Source: IFAD, 1998.

Exercise - Assessing organizations' services

This exercise could be done in conjunction with an examination of the demographic profile of the area, for instance whether there has been an increase in population or a gradual decrease in the number of rural households, and the composition of such households – female-headed, etc. (■ FH Trend lines and village maps). It is also important to note who assists the most vulnerable groups, such as the disabled, youth-headed households, HIV/AIDS-affected households and others.

The financing mechanisms of different organizations should also be considered. If a particular NGO is receiving money from donors, it is important to look at the sustainability of the financing source, in order to ensure continued provision of services to rural households.

Regarding the private sector, it is important to look at the fees for different services and products and to see whether (and which) "clients" can and are prepared to pay for these services.

After identifying all the extension service suppliers, the next step is to examine the strengths and weaknesses of each in order to find out which service would best meet the different needs. For example, if there are women's groups in the area, it may be useful to talk to them because of their existing comparative advantage in dealing with rural women. Their expertise can be sought and linkages made with them for particular aspects of the service that is to be provided to rural households.

Name	Type of organization	Services provided to rural people	Geographical area covered	Segment of population covered	Expertise available in organization	Number of male/female staff in organization

→ **Go to toolbox**: Venn diagram and Institutional profiles for more tips.

1.3.4 Focusing on the demand side

Focusing on the demand side helps to prioritize the services that rural women and men across different socio-economic groups want or require. While young men might

want information about water harvesting, older women might be more interested in knowing about labour-saving technologies.

When rural women's needs are met

Since 1994, women farmers have been included in field training on integrated pest management (IPM) in Tamil Nadu. Female agricultural officers teach them to identify the pest and predator insects in rice, to monitor the number of each in order to ensure that predators are keeping the pests in check, and to observe the life cycles of the key insects. Prior to the introduction of IPM, farmers used pesticides, which accounted for up to 20 percent of the costs of cultivation. Women worked in the fields after the spraying and reported a range of symptoms such as headaches, eye trouble and skin rashes. Now the women have also stopped spraying their homestead vegetables, and have begun to monitor pests and predators in their home gardens. The men in the village had heard about IPM from farmers in a neighbouring village who received training, and they encouraged their wives to attend the women's farmer field schools (FFS) when they were offered to them.

Male extension agents do not usually consider the dual role of women farmers, and schedule meetings and demonstrations at times and places that are inconvenient or inaccessible to women farmers. Rural women represent different socio-economic situations with different needs for extension contact and extension methods.

Source: Swanson, Bentz and Sofranko, 1997.

Specific techniques to find out more about what rural women and men actually require from agricultural extension services are outlined in Chapter 3. Such techniques include the use of participatory tools, focus group meetings and surveys, and depend on the available funding and human resources. However, the cost of finding out more about clients should be weighed against the improved effectiveness of service delivery and the overall objectives and mandate.

1.4 SOURCES OF INFORMATION – CRITICAL FOR EXTENSION WORK

Information – whether collected from surveys and census data or from discussions with farmers – is critical to effective planning and policy and to extension workers' task. As well as professional knowledge and technical expertise, extension workers also need information on their clients. The box below provides some basic questions to think about.

Some basic questions for extension workers

- Who are your clients (men, women, youth, HIV-affected households, others)?
- Where are they located and what is the social, economic and institutional context?
- What do they need (advice on tools, low-input crops, access to credit, HIV/AIDS, animal or fish breeding, income diversification, marketing of forest products, etc
- What do they give priority to (time-saving technologies, veterinary advice, etc.?
- What can you offer, to which client groups, when and at what cost?
- What can others offer, to which client groups, when and at what cost?

This section concentrates on different sources for collecting information about clients in rural households.

1.4.1 Primary and secondary sources of information

Primary sources of information contain raw, original, non-interpreted information. The information is collected for a specific purpose (e.g. to find out about the economic resource base for households in a given village).

Some approaches to collect primary information:

- Key informant interviews
- Group or focus group interviews
- Mini-surveys
- Direct observation
- Individual interviews

Secondary sources of information are helpful in the analysis, interpretation and evaluation of the information contained in primary sources. Secondary information has been produced for some purpose other than the problem at hand. Examples of secondary sources include government policies, laws, agricultural censuses, books and so forth.

Official trade statistics on agriculture and related products can often be found in the ministries of trade, commerce, finance, industry or agriculture. Census information from the national or regional statistics offices can also provide an official count of a population or figures related to a class of rural livelihoods. Censuses may or may not adequately address gender differentiation in income and in ownership and use of resources.

Regarding livestock-related extension, there might be secondary information on the numbers and types of livestock in a given village. This may provide some indication about the village's resource base. However, there might not be information about who feeds or takes care of the cows, donkeys or hens. There may also not be any information about who decides whether or not to sell livestock.

Do not reinvent the wheel! Start with what is already available. Much has already been documented, so use publications and studies from other agencies.

In many countries, formal data on rural producers (especially women) are limited or unavailable. This has particular implications for extension services. More accurate data and statistics are required, particularly data that are disaggregated along gender and socio-economic lines.

A survey can be conducted to provide a general view of the situation or to investigate key issues. Surveys can be conducted on issues such as rural employment, food consumption patterns, household income sources, and expenditures.

Collecting data can be both costly and time-consuming. Thorough planning makes efficient use of the time both of the extensionist and of the rural men and women sharing their knowledge with the extensionist. Chapter 3 and the Toolbox in Part II provide tips on using participatory and gender-sensitive tools to collect and share information.

1.4.2 Sex- and gender-disaggregated data

Sex-disaggregated data are data broken down into male and female categories. *Gender-disaggregated data* go further to provide more informative indicators to explain why there might be differences between men and women. For example, sex-disaggregated data might note the numbers of men and women attending an extension training session; gender-disaggregated data might examine the social reasons behind the different numbers of men compared with women attending agricultural extension training.

Good sex-disaggregated data can provide some insights into women's and men's inputs and energy in agricultural activities. Such data can also show significant differences between women and men within a household. Collecting sex-disaggregated data can therefore help to ensure that women's and men's specific contributions to the economy are recorded. The consequences of their roles in different social and economic situations can afterwards be analysed for planning purposes (FAO, 1999a; 1999b).

> Research has frequently suggested that women's labour force in agriculture is substantially underestimated. For example, in 1994 the International Labour Organization (ILO) reported that the difference between the employment rates registered through a narrow and through a broad definition of "work" in India amounted to 75 percent of the female labour force. *Source*: FAO, 1999a.

When preparing a plan for agricultural information needs, it is important to consider the use of disaggregated data and to review the existing data sources for a particular issue. If there are inadequate data, an attempt can be made to lobby for improving existing sources. This means providing better explanations of what kinds of data are required, or examining the ways such data are actually compiled, analysed, presented and disseminated. Unfortunately, very often, improving such information may have to compete with other priorities (Hill, 2002).

1.4.3 Qualitative and quantitative information

Quantitative concerns things that can be counted whereas *qualitative* information is non-numerical and describes things that cannot be counted. Quantitative information reports the number of something, such as the number of rural households or the number of women-headed households in a given area. Qualitative information can provide more depth, for example, by identifying the extension services that many households require, and how rural men and women think and feel about those services. Qualitative information can bring life to what exists or has happened, what might work or has worked, and what potential problems may occur and why.

Qualitative and quantitative data should be used together to build a more complete picture of a situation. This can be done in several ways, depending on the situation. For instance, qualitative methods such as case studies and/or participatory techniques can provide information to help identify key areas of study for more formal quantitative surveys.

Qualitative methods can help to:

- Assess the validity of analysis based on quantitative data from a specific group;
- Provide in-depth information about rural men's and women's perceptions, needs, resources and constraints, they can tell the "why" that helps explain the meaning of the "what" of quantitative data;
- Assist local people to systematically assess and communicate information about their situation;
- Provide seemingly contradictory findings to quantitative data in some instances; this discrepancy itself is an important source of information and points to issues that need further exploration – the different methods may examine different elements of a situation;
- Supplement quantitative methods and data obtained from a larger sample.

In general, when collecting both qualitative and quantitative data for the same purpose, the method used should be sequential so that subsequent studies can be improved on the basis of the findings from previous ones. Both quantitative and qualitative methods can be used in a participatory manner.

1.5 RURAL PEOPLE, HOUSEHOLDS, RESOURCES AND EXTENSION

This chapter has provided an introduction to household resource management and the SEAGA approach. It has also outlined their relevance to delivering extension services. The guide argues that household resource management is a useful entry point for extension workers aiming to apply a client-driven, bottom-up approach to their work.

Information is, in itself, empowering. The use of participatory tools can help the learning process of rural men and women and different socio-economic groups, as well as to extension workers, policy-makers and others with whom the information is shared. Socio-economic and gender analysis can be used to facilitate learning about local resources and their management, constraints and possibilities for managing resources efficiently, and the needs and priorities of different groups of rural people/clients.

The next chapter outlines some of the major resources and constraints for rural households, while Chapter 3 suggests ways forward and ways of applying SEAGA in extension work.

Chapter 2 Constraints and resources in rural households

2.1 FOCUSING ON CONSTRAINTS TO IDENTIFY ENTRY POINTS FOR IMPROVEMENT

Many issues affect the livelihoods of rural communities, households and individuals, including access to, control over, and the use and management of household resources.

Many of these issues are beyond the control of individual household members and extension workers, but awareness about how they shape rural livelihoods is necessary for identifying entry points for improvement. For instance, macro policies that lead to changes in land rights or access to services may create a need for advice on these matters among rural households. Providing such advice may be among the responsibilities of extension workers in some areas, while it will be less clearly referred to in the mandates of others.

Critical issues that have an impact on individuals at the household level

- Global forces and trends
- Macro-level policies
- Chronic diseases such as HIV/AIDS
- Access to resources such as water, land and time
- Access to services such as credit and information
- Income-generating activities
- Culture and prevalent norms and values

HIV/AIDS is one of the constraints that extension workers cannot control, but in which the extension services can play a crucial role. Changes in household composition and their effects on the needs and priorities of different households with regard to extension services should be assessed and responded to.

Access to resources and services is often a constraint for rural households, and varies greatly among different household members and socio-economic groups. Women, youth and the landless are often at a disadvantage in terms of access to both resources and services, and the extension services must therefore pay particular attention to reaching and supporting these groups. Prevalent norms and values may constrain access to resources and services for certain groups, and thus be an obstacle to efficient household resource management and the improvement of rural livelihoods.

Governments face constraints in terms of how much they can and should spend on different sectors. They also face constraints resulting from the economic situation in which they hold office.

Constraints can be gender-linked. Constraints to increased productivity are often the result of gender-linked differences in access to inputs and resources.

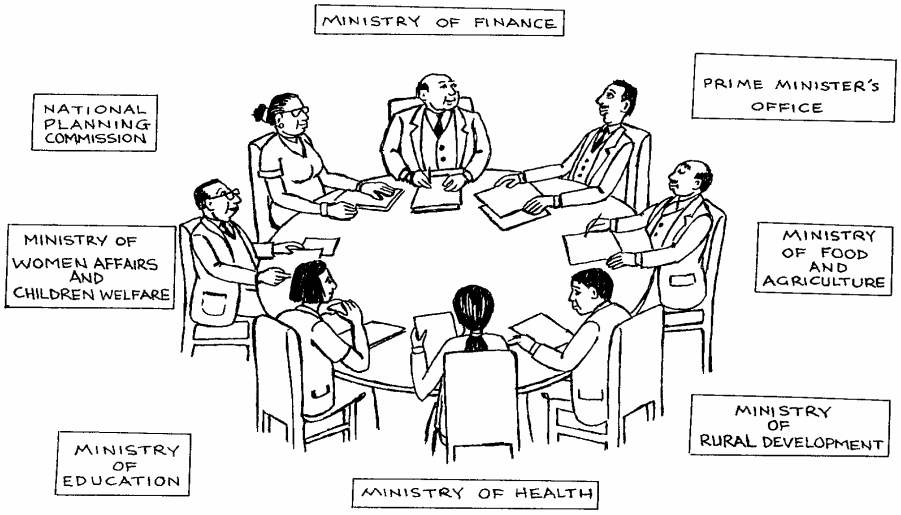
Constraints faced by rural women

According to Jiggens et al. (1997), the constraints that rural women face include:

1. their legal and cultural status, which affects the degree of control that women have over productive resources, inputs such as credit, and the benefits that flow from these;
2. property rights and inheritance laws, which govern access to and use of land and other natural resources;
3. ecological factors such as the seasonality of rainfall and the availability of fuelwood;
4. economic factors such as product market failures;
5. gender-determined responsibilities such as feeding the family, which trade basic household self-provisioning goals and care of the family against production for the market;
6. the way in which agricultural services are staffed, managed and designed.

Some constraints are beyond the control of particular groups of stakeholders; others can be overcome. For example, inflation rates affect the real value of an individual's savings and the ability to buy new inputs for agriculture, and they are beyond rural people's or extension agents' control. A person cannot be cured of HIV/AIDS, but can live well for many years if she/he has a supportive environment.

The role of extension workers is first and foremost to listen to rural men, women and youth, and to assess how the extension services can contribute to meeting the needs and priorities of different client groups, including HIV-affected households.



The constraints faced by households and their members can be identified by using participatory tools with rural men and women. Men's and women's opportunities and priorities regarding overcoming constraints can be identified through stakeholder analysis and other participatory and gender-sensitive tools.

This chapter concentrates on some of the critical issues faced by rural households globally, and assesses the significance of such issues for rural women and men separately. It then suggests how extension workers can begin to address these issues themselves, or link up with others who specialize in a particular area.

2.2 SOME MAJOR ISSUES AFFECTING HOUSEHOLDS AND RESOURCES

This section highlights some of the key issues that affect households, such as global trends, macro-level policies and chronic diseases. These issues affect different communities, households and individuals differently, and socio-economic and gender analysis can be used to identify constraints and solutions. The extension services can contribute to strengthening rural livelihoods by understanding and responding to the needs of different client groups.

2.2.1 Global forces and macro-level policies

The term *"globalization"* is commonly used to describe the increased mobility of goods, services, labour, technology and capital throughout the world. Globalization is also used as an umbrella concept covering global trends towards increased market *liberalization, privatization* and *commercialization,* including removal of the trade barriers and regulatory measures that countries often put in place to protect their industries. Agricultural producers and rural households will be exposed to both opportunities and risks from these trends – much depends on the political will to ensure that globalization is poverty-reducing rather than inequality-increasing. Some of the common arguments for and against economic globalization are summarized in the following table.[2]

Global trends	Advantages ?	Disadvantages ?
Market liberalization	- Possibities to access international markets leading to increased exports and economic growth. - Cheaper prices for imported goods for consumers.	- Few or no benefits to rural poor or marginalized groups. - Rise in income inequalities among and within countries. - Dumping of imported products destroys local markets.
Privatization	- Private sector works more efficiently than public sector. - Less government spending will give positive economic gains.	- Increased inequalities between rich and poor. - Less government spending on health, extension, etc. will hit vulnerable groups especially hard.
Communication	- Opens up new possibilities and provides easy access to information.	- Disadvantaged groups will not have access. - Creates a digital divide between rich and poor countries and people.

Other external pressures on rural households include macro-level policies related to the management of natural resources such as land, water and the environment, as well as decisions on the structure and work responsibilities of the extension services.

[2] The effect of globalization on the agriculture sector, rural people and vulnerable and poor groups is a much-debated and highly political issue. The table presents a summary of some of the common arguments without pretending to have any hard evidence for any of these.

Extension agents are the front-line workers for rural households, and can see firsthand the effects of macroeconomic and other policies on farming systems and households' management of resources. When possible, extension workers should share their knowledge with higher management and, ultimately, the government, advising on the safety nets required and which groups are particularly affected.

The State's perception of the role of women

In Uzbekistan, the law recognizes women's and men's equal rights to land. However, there are difficulties in translating these rights into policies and programmes that influence who has access to land and receives land rights. Uzbek families are patrilineal and patriarchal; it is common for married couples to live with the husband's family until they get a house plot of their own. Women have access to land through the household, and provide most of the unpaid family labour that goes into farm production, but they do not have de jure nor de facto rights to the land. Because inheritance is patrilineal, male control over land property is not likely to change. Current and past State policies have focused on granting certain benefits to women as care takers and not on attaining gender equity. While the socialist State promoted policies that benefited women, the objectives of these policies were to protect women as mothers and workers, not as independent and equal citizens.

Source: Razavi, 2003.

More detailed information about the gendered nature of structural adjustment and other economic policies is available in the SEAGA Macro Guide (■ MH).

→ **Go to toolbox**: Resource map, Resource ranking and Resource matrix.

2.2.2 HIV/AIDS and other chronic diseases

HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria are three of the major public health challenges in the world today. Chronic illnesses have a great impact on households and their ability to manage resources. Countries with high prevalence rates of HIV/AIDS also suffer at the macro level through a reduction in the labour force and a slowing of economic growth. There are personal and public costs attached to prevention and treatment. There are also indirect costs such as lost productivity or income associated with illness or death, as well as immense suffering and pain among infected and affected people.

Poverty limits people's access to health information, methods of disease prevention and treatment. Poverty also reduces individuals' capability to fight off or live with diseases owing to the lack of a balanced diet, safe water and appropriate care.[3]

	Tuberculosis	Malaria	HIV/AIDS
Main route of transmission	Air (cough, spit, etc.) by people with TB in lungs	Mosquito bites	Unprotected sexual intercourse (80%)

[3] FAO and WHO have developed a manual on nutritional care and support for people living with HIV/AIDS (FAO/WHO, 2002). See Annex B for FAO contact information.

Vaccine	Yes	No	No
Cure	Yes	Yes	No
Globally infected	2 billion	300 million	42 million
Deaths in 2002	About 2 million	About 1 million	About 3.1 million

Source: FAO/WHO, 2002.

While tuberculosis is more common among adults, it is more serious in children and youth. Children and unborn babies are particularly vulnerable to malaria and, as is the case with most diseases, early recognition and treatment increase the risk of recovery without permanent damage.

HIV/AIDS presents its own challenges. Rural livelihoods often depend on managing resources such as livestock, smallholder agriculture, fishing and/or forestry, and HIV/AIDS affects production through disease and mortality among the labour force and the staff of rural institutions and support services[4].

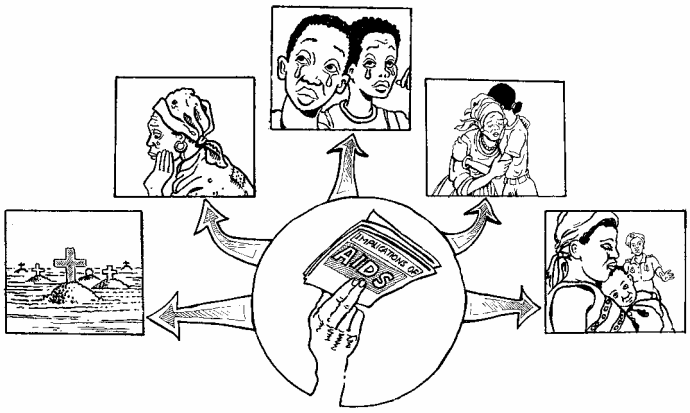
Cultural practices and HIV/AIDS

"Dry sex" (in which the vagina is not lubricated) is desirable in some cultures. However, dryness increases the risk of bleeding during intercourse, leading to an increased risk of HIV transmission.

At the household level (in the agriculture sector), the impact of HIV/AIDS manifests itself as (Topouzis and du Guerny, 1999):

- loss of adult on- and off-farm labour, leading to a decline in productivity;
- decline in household income, and loss of assets, savings and/or remittances;
- increase in household expenditure (medical treatment, transport, etc.);
- increase in the number of dependants relying on a smaller number of productive family members;
- loss of indigenous farming methods, intergenerational knowledge and specialized skills, practices and customs.

[4] Annex F contains a checklist for HIV/AIDS in subsistence agriculture, and Annex G illustrates how a case-study can be used to discuss HIV/AIDS in workshops.



Worldwide, almost 42 million people are infected with HIV/AIDS, and nearly 95 percent of these are in developing countries. There are grim statistics from some countries: Namibia is projected to lose between a quarter and a third of its workers by 2020; and school enrolment in the Central African Republic and Swaziland has already fallen by 20 to 36 percent as a result of AIDS orphans dropping out of school, according to government reports (UNDP, 2002).

There is a critical gender issue linked to HIV/AIDS. Sex between an HIV-infected and an uninfected person is the most common route by which the disease is spread. Among men, perceptions of masculinity are often related to risk-taking behaviour and to acquiring a wide range of sexual experience.

Examples of gender-linked differences in HIV/AIDS

- Men and women are affected differently;
- Women and girls are often unable to negotiate safer sex;
- Women and girls often take on the role as care-takers of AIDS patients and orphans, which reduces their time to perform other tasks.

Gender inequality is one of the driving forces behind the spread of HIV. In many places, HIV infection rates are three to five times higher among young women than young men. Unequal power relations can put women in situations where they are socially dependent on male family members or other men. It is often difficult for women to control *when*, *with whom* and *under what circumstances* they have sex. The relationships between men and women can determine the spread of the disease, so it is crucial to understand and address the unequal relations between men and women in order to fight the HIV/AIDS epidemic.

Gender roles are changing as a result of the epidemic. Women and girls in households with sick members often spend relatively more time on care-related activities, so less time is left for cultivating land, tending animals and income-generating activities. Men and women are affected differently by the epidemic, and the legal rights to land and property are a particularly pertinent issue. Widows and orphans are often deprived of any right to inherit their home, agricultural land and other belongings when the husband or parents die.

It is possible to reduce the spread of the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Information and awareness raising are crucial elements in this work. Success depends on broad collaboration at all levels, and information about HIV/AIDS can reach rural people through a variety of channels, including radio, posters and schools. A study from Uganda (FAO/MAAIF, 2002) showed that the most important and preferred source of information about HIV/AIDS was the radio. Health workers and friends were listed as information sources by between 25 and 30 percent of the respondents, while only 5 percent mentioned extension workers.

What do extension workers have to do with HIV/AIDS? The role of extension workers in fighting HIV/AIDS varies from one place to another, depending on who else is providing rural people with information, who has expertise, the capacity of extension and community workers, and government decisions and resource allocation to carry out such work.

The HIV/AIDS epidemic affects extension work in several ways. Household structures, livelihoods and the relations among household members change when rural communities are affected by the epidemic. This in turn may lead to changed demands for extension services. For example, rural men and women may have a greater need for labour-saving technologies that demand less of their time and energy. They may also have more need for information about how to avoid HIV infection or how to live with HIV/AIDS. There may be specialized staff (e.g. nutritionists) already covering this need, or it may be decided that extension staff should be trained to include HIV/AIDS messages in their work. Close collaboration among community workers is important to meet the changing needs of the farmers.

As well as having impact on the clientele and changing the demands on extension workers, in many cases the HIV/AIDS epidemic also has a direct impact on extension workers themselves. Extension workers are just as vulnerable to HIV infection as other people, and increased time and money for medical care for themselves or their relatives is a common result of infection. Caring for relatives and attending funerals are other activities that take up the time of both extension workers and rural people.

Uganda – policy response

Uganda has been hit hard by the AIDS epidemic. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 2002) estimated that the adult HIV prevalence rate has dropped from more than 30% in 1992 to less than 8% in 2000. A structured government response dates back to 1986 when an AIDS control programme was created in the Ministry of Health. The government's approach emphasized the collective responsibility of individuals, community groups, different levels of government and other agencies for the prevention of HIV infection. The national response to HIV/AIDS was marked by a policy of openness backed by effective political and resource support from the highest level of government.

The country is still severely affected by the epidemic: a recent study showed that almost 20% of households in several districts were headed by grandparents taking care of grandchildren, the majority of the parents had died from HIV/AIDS (FAO/MAAIF, 2002).

Qamar (2001) discusses the challenge that the HIV/AIDS epidemic poses to agricultural extension workers and considers that the main impacts of HIV/AIDS on extension agents, organizations and farming communities include: extension agents' exposure to HIV risks owing to the field nature of their work away from home; the psychological effects on extension agents; reductions and disruptions to staff; increased organizational costs for funeral ceremonies; the loss of long-established technical practices, and the emergence of new clientele such as the elderly, sick persons, widows, orphans and inexperienced farmers; interruption of farming activities for funeral attendance; farmers' increasing questions regarding HIV/AIDS; and the worsening situation regarding farm labour, food insecurity and poverty. Qamar suggests the following possible actions to combat the problem:

- broad institutional partnerships;
- national extension campaigns against HIV/AIDS;
- the involvement of formal and informal rural community leaders;
- inter-country extension networks on HIV/AIDS, and more specific studies on extension in relation to the disease.

Even if many people have a basic knowledge about how HIV/AIDS is transmitted, the lack of knowledge and understanding of people living with HIV/AIDS (PLWA) creates stigmas, discrimination and misconceptions. Community workers should seek information to reduce their own fear and to avoid contributing to stigma.

In many countries, people living with HIV/AIDS have organized themselves into self-help groups, and are seeking to influence government policies and activities. Their opinions, experiences and contributions should be considered in development programmes.

The slogans of the National Community of Women Living with HIV/AIDS in Uganda are: "Positive living" and "We are not the cause – but the solution".

It is important that the changing compositions and needs of communities, households and different socio-economic groups are reflected in development and extension

work, and that community workers support PLWA rather than contributing to their further marginalization.

Broad collaboration with other organizations, PLWA, HIV/AIDS specialists and community workers is essential to fight the epidemic. Many international organizations are working in the area of HIV/AIDS, including the United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS), the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, TB and Malaria, WHO and FAO.[5] There are also many locally based organizations working on the issue, and these can provide information and advice.

HIV/AIDS, gender and participation

The Government of Zambia collaborated with the German Agency for Technical collaboration (GTZ) and Humboldt University to incorporate HIV/AIDS concerns into rural extension. They looked into what support service providers would need to assist communities with HIV prevention and mitigation strategies. Nearly all extension workers in the study expressed a need for special training on HIV/AIDS before they would feel comfortable to work on the issue. They found that participatory extension approaches (PEA) served as a good entry point to address HIV/AIDS. A main study recommendation was that community workshops focusing on HIV/AIDS should be conducted by multidisciplinary teams, and that PEA and gender sensitization village workshops should be conducted before addressing HIV/AIDS in a community.

Source: SLE, 2000

SEAGA can provide useful tools for obtaining information about the epidemic's impact at the household level, and suitable approaches to discussing the issue and identifying possible solutions and mitigating strategies for rural men and women. It is important to bear in mind that HIV/AIDS is a sensitive issue in many areas.

→ **Go to toolbox**: Ranking exercises, Problem analysis and Community action plan

2.2.3 Income-generating opportunities

As already noted, household vulnerability regarding food security varies by social group and gender. Rural women and men seek opportunities to earn and accumulate cash for immediate use or for savings to invest in production activities. When rural people depend too much upon one source of income, price fluctuations can be a risk. Having "all their eggs in one basket" is also risky should a key crop fail or livestock be struck by disease. Seeing how people would like to diversify their income[6] and trying to quantify the relative importance of different income sources is useful to understanding the security or vulnerability of different people's livelihoods. Men and women may prefer income diversification at particular times of the year owing to workloads (e.g. harvest, birthing of livestock).

Many poor rural men and women live in marginal areas and have poorly developed transport and communication infrastructure to urban areas, so particular types of income-generating activities may not be suitable for all locations. Resource-poor rural

[5] See Annex B for contact information for these organizations.
[6] FAO has developed a guide to assist groups in setting up and running small enterprises – *The group enterprise resource book*. See Annex B for FAO contact information.

people also have to compete with intensive farming that may be encouraged in new resettlement zones.

Appropriate technology for income generation

An NGO, the International Technology Development Group (ITDG), has produced useful technical briefs in response to the demand for information on a broad range of appropriate technologies. Many of these are useful for diversifying sources of income, including food processing techniques (drying, pickling, jam making, etc.), textile dying and rubber recycling. These briefs can provide information to rural women and men about innovations that may be useful in moving out of poverty. See Annex B for contact information.

Diversifying the incomes of the poorest households often means using as little land and as few inputs as possible. Activities can include raising swine or poultry (where appropriate), and growing fruits and vegetables. Rural women in particular may be interested in higher-value enterprises requiring little land, such as poultry or rabbits. It is important to remember that many people, particularly women, may only be able to commit limited amounts of time to diversification activities, and may not be able to afford the full-time requirements of running a business.

Organizing site visits for rural people that illustrate how others have diversified their sources of income can be very meaningful (but expensive) for extension agents. Many people perceive farming as a way of life rather than a business, so observing firsthand what other people do can be a learning process.

Considerations for introducing alternative businesses include:

- in collaboration with rural people, selecting the appropriate type of enterprise that has the greatest potential for improved household resource management, based on the capabilities and interests of household members;
- developing essential business skills, such as marketing (market survey and information on opportunities), financing (credit, record sales, expenditure and reinvestment for business expansion), production (such as skills in household budgeting), organizational and managerial skills, book-keeping skills (balance sheets, profit and loss statements and cash flows);
- providing information on linkages to farmers' organizations and cooperatives specializing in marketing or production to facilitate access to other productive resources and services;
- monitoring and evaluating the enterprise performance, which requires indicators for measuring progress against the planned objective of increased income.

→ **Go to toolbox**: Village resource map and Stakeholder analysis

2.2.4 Other constraints

Domestic violence and substance abuse are major problems all over the world, in rural and urban areas and in rich and poor households. Although solving these constraints is beyond the mandate of most extension workers, the issues are

mentioned here because they were repeatedly mentioned as one of the key constraints to efficient household resource management in the countries where the guide was developed and tested.

Domestic violence is physical, emotional, sexual or economic abuse between intimate partners and family members. It happens to women and men, but it happens much more frequently to women. Many children experience violence directly, or witness it in the home. Every form of domestic violence is unacceptable.[7]

Alcohol and drug abuse has important implications at the household level, and causes great personal suffering and social damage in many households worldwide. The negative impacts of substance abuse include reduced productivity, violence, crime and risky sexual behaviour.

Forming groups of women (or men) often gives people more strength and courage to discuss domestic violence or other problems that they have in common. Community workers can encourage communities to mobilize themselves and form partnerships to ensure that laws against domestic violence are implemented.

If domestic violence or substance abuse is a major problem in the areas you are working in, link up with local organizations that work actively on these issues, for instance human rights or women's organizations.

→ **Go to toolbox**: Stakeholder analysis (Venn diagrams and Institutional profiles)

The Beijing Platform for Action and the Convention to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women (CEDAW) are used as human rights instruments to sustain countries' progress in legal reform, as well as to fight domestic violence.

See Annex D for more information.

[7] See Annex D for more information on international conventions and domestic violence.

2.3 GENDER INEQUALITIES IN BASIC HOUSEHOLD RESOURCES

Gender inequalities in intra-household resource allocation, and the extra burdens that women face because of their gender roles can limit women's ability to manage household resources. In some countries, women obtain rights to use land for household and personal crops through men. They also experience insecure tenure when widowed or divorced. Men and women have different time constraints and use their time differently. Vulnerable groups often lack credit and other resources to improve their livelihoods. In addition, many resource-poor groups have relatively little freedom or cash to invest in time-saving devices, for example labour-saving equipment for water use.

Information about productivity-enhancing inputs may not be available for all groups of rural people. The following subsections outline four interlinked resources that affect rural men's and women's abilities in efficient household resource management and income generation: water, land, credit and time. All of these resources present both constraints and opportunities for rural households, and are often on the agendas of communities and extension workers. The following also suggests some ways forward for extension workers.

2.3.1 Water

Water is essential for life, and is at the heart of many livelihood activities. Water is used for food production and household consumption. Many households have water-based enterprises such as fish ponds. Homestead plots and gardens are often an important source of household nutrition, and they too need water.

Water as an important household resource

The Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR) suffers a lack of stable water during several months of the dry season every year. Water is considered an important household resource in agricultural production, and its importance is increasing as a result of aquaculture activities. Water use sometimes causes conflict among different activities: irrigation and fish ponds both require a lot of water; and the need for water is growing with the development of private and communal fish ponds, in which fish fries or fingerlings are grown for the market.

Source: Murray and Sayasane, 1999.

Fish is the world's largest wild food harvest and provides a vital source of protein, as well as cash income for many families. In most regions, the crews of large fishing boats are men, while their role in fishing from smaller boats and canoes varies by country and region. In Lao PDR, women fish in canals, while in India they net prawns from backwaters.

In many parts of the world, women and girls assume much of the responsibility for carrying water for household use. Water availability is often a limiting factor to production, and the dry season increases women's time for collecting water, especially when it has to be carried long distances.

Walking for water

One-third of the women in Egypt walk more than an hour a day for water. Elsewhere in Africa, women spend as much as eight hours collecting water. The average distance that women in Africa walk in search of water is 6 km per day.

Source: UNFPA, 2002.

There can be conflicting demands for water within villages and households. For example, there may be conflicting needs where water is needed for both household gardens and the irrigation of larger fields. Many villages have water users' committees, which are responsible for managing water. The committees have representatives from different levels in the community, and try to seek compromises over water needs. The relative importance of women's water needs compared with those of other activities requiring the same water supply should have a bearing on decisions, and safeguards should be made to ensure that water resources are not captured by local elite groups.

Irrigation and landownership

Studies of irrigation projects in west Africa suggest that the practice of allocating and registering land plots to men only is one of the main causes of disappointing project performance, and that it might be more efficient to allocate individual plots to different household members, including women. A 1995 case study from Burkina Faso showed that the productivity of both land and labour is higher where both men and women have plots. Women's motivation to invest labour in irrigated production increases significantly when they have their own irrigated plots.

Source: Zwarteveen, 1996.

Irrigated land produces about 40 percent of the world's food. Yields from irrigated land are on average 100 percent greater than those from non-irrigated land. Small-scale, low-cost and low-maintenance irrigation schemes with highly participatory management can create substantial benefits for rural households. Because rainfed agriculture still produces most of the world's food, a main priority in improving rural livelihoods is to improve on-site rainwater collection and management.

Tips for extension workers: Knowledge about gender roles and household water use is important in order to give due attention to everyone's needs, for instance, when planning water-based initiatives or when setting priorities for different kinds of interventions. Both women and men should be represented on water management associations so as to ensure that the water needs of all clients are considered. If water is a constraint to efficient household resource management, you should collect knowledge on water needs, as well as possible solutions such as water conservation, harvesting and storage techniques. Linking up with other service providers and local groups will be useful.

The *SEAGA sector irrigation guide* has many examples of participatory planning for small-scale irrigation projects at the community level.[8]

→ **Go to toolbox**: Resource matrix, Activity profile and Stakeholder analysis

[8] See Annex B for FAO contact information for obtaining a copy of this SEAGA guide.

2.3.2 Land

Access to land through ownership or secure tenure is essential to improving agricultural productivity[9] and strengthening the livelihoods of rural households. Nonetheless, in many countries, access to land varies considerably depending on sex and socio-economic status.

Land inheritance laws and land reforms

Among the Lao Loum in Lao PDR, the husband traditionally moves in with his wife's family, and the youngest daughter stays in the family home and will eventually inherit it.

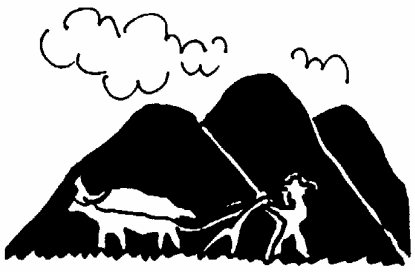
In China, the collapse of the communes in the early 1980s resulted in land being redistributed, mainly to men. This effectively removed the 1947 agrarian reforms, which had given women separate land deeds.

In the Syrian Arab Republic, the agrarian reform of the late 1970s redistributed land to all farmers. Shari's law recognizes the right of women to inherit, but practice has not yet caught up with the law. Most Syrian women are expected to waive their right to land inheritance in favour of their brothers or sons.

In Poland, legislation recognizes women's rights regarding succession and inheritance of land. The law is carried out in practice.

Sources: Murray and Sayasane, 1998; IFAD, 1999b; FAO, 1998.

Access to land is a highly sensitive issue – politically, religiously, legally and culturally. The poor in a community typically have only use rights. In many countries, women have less access to and control over land than men. In some cases, legislation has affirmed women's basic right to land, but customary laws and practices continue to hamper their realization of that right. In other cases, legislation has undermined women's access to land (FAO, 1998). Women's access is often limited to household and personal crop use through a male family member, and their landholdings are typically smaller than men's.



People with weak inheritance rights are particularly disadvantaged if they lose a spouse (i.e. through death or divorce). Many households affected by HIV/AIDS have had their homes, land and other assets taken from them following the death of the household head. This clearly aggravates the situation of poor households.[10]

Without secure title to land, people are often denied membership to cooperatives and other rural organizations, and are thus unable to enjoy the benefits of such membership (e.g. access to credit, training and advice).

[9] FAO has developed guidelines on "Gender and access to land" as a part of the FAO Land Tenure Studies (FAO, 2002a).
[10] For more on this, see FAO, 2002b.

In the United Republic of Tanzania, a Southern African Development Community study (SADC, 1997) revealed that only 35 out of 100 women sampled had ownership rights to land.

Tips for extension workers: Knowing how land is allocated or divided along kinship and gender patterns is essential for extension work. Land access constraints can affect different groups (e.g. men and women farmers, farm workers, labour tenants, the landless, different ethnic groups, and different age groups) in different ways, reducing their ability and interest to engage in sustainable agriculture.

Planners and researchers often perceive the landless to be men, but it is important not to make any assumptions or to forget minority groups. Gender disparities must not be ignored, and the voices and experiences of both men and women in different socio-economic groups must be included in reporting on land tenure issues. The most vulnerable and poor groups often need more support than others. Land reform and the restructuring of agriculture are often accompanied by conflicts of interest among different stakeholder groups, and ideally the needs of disadvantaged or vulnerable groups should not be overridden or threatened by chiefs, spouses, relatives or others.

Variation in access to and control over land leads to different needs and priorities among different user groups, and the extension services should be responsive to these. Rural men and women may be interested to know about the policies that are currently in place, as well as the legal rights of their children or spouses in case of death in the household. If access to services, productive resources or common property such as land is a major constraint for certain groups of people or households in the area you work, this should be mentioned in reports to superiors.

→ **Go to toolbox:** Resource matrix - can help facilitate discussion about the use and control of land and other resources.

2.3.3 Credit and savings

Credit is often proposed as a “cure-all” for poor people, through the provision of small loans and saving facilities. However, it is important to note that many credit and saving programmes do not reach the poorest, although they might benefit the slightly less poor (Marr, 1999). Nonetheless, rural people often require credit, and some approaches to providing financial services for the poor have been successful.[11]

Women farmers and credit

An analysis of credit schemes in Kenya, Malawi, Sierra Leone, Zambia and Zimbabwe revealed that women receive less than 10 percent of all credit earmarked for smallholder farmers and only 1 percent of the total credit to agriculture.

Source: FAO, 1998.

[11] FAO has developed *The group savings resource book,* a practical guide to help groups mobilize and manage their savings.

Both women and men farmers require access to credit and savings facilities for their specific needs. When farmers have few financial options, they cannot purchase seeds or fertilizers, nor can they invest in new farming or fishing technologies to increase their production. Many farmers rely on informal sources of credit and innovative ways of saving. The landless and youth often face particular constraints regarding access to financial services.

In collaboration with government extension services, many NGOs and donors have encouraged the setting up of women's rotating credit and savings activities to generate cash for income-generating programmes. Income generation programmes have a mixed record for a variety of reasons. For example, in Kenya many programmes have failed to generate significant income for project participants, particularly rural women (Kane and staff of Tototo Home Industries, 1992). Activities have often been inappropriate for women, and the people implementing projects that set out to help women have insufficient skills and experience in business management.

Tips for extension workers: When planning savings or credit schemes or starting up income-generating programmes or business development activities, it is important to think of all potential user groups and users' purposes. If the extension services in your area do not have activities or expertise related to such activities, you could be an important link through which rural men and women obtain access to services or expertise. It might be useful to link with micro-finance programmes or agricultural banks.[12]

The following table shows some of the constraints that women face regarding access to financial assistance and income-earning opportunities. Many of these constraints also affect young people, the landless and disadvantaged groups, and should be kept in mind when trying to assist rural people to improve their livelihoods.

[12] FAO has developed a *SEAGA microfinance guide*. See Annex B for contact information.

Common constraints faced by women in relation to financial services and income generation activities[13]

CONSTRAINTS	At the individual and household level	At the intermediary level	At the national level
Economic	Tend to work in the invisible sectors: casual work, piecework, seasonal work, home-based work	May lack access to banks/financial services in their own right	Lack of access to markets if mobility is constrained Perception of men as controllers of money/loans
Political	Lack confidence to claim political and legal rights Lack leadership and lobbying skills Tend to have a weak bargaining position and to be isolated and less organized	Women and men do not equally share power and authority in institutions The overall banking environment is hostile towards women	May have no legal rights to household assets, hence cannot use these as collateral Lack political positions to establish/ influence appropriate laws Lack legal rights to land, both traditional and formal
Institutional	Apart from access to credit, lack facilities for training, and counselling on what to do with credit Often lack accounting and managerial skills, and have limited time for business development training	Many technically competent implementing agencies have little or no experiences of operating sustainable savings and credit programmes (are more used to dispersing grants) and lack business development skills	National institutional procedures may entail bureaucratic delays for loan approval
Environmental	Natural resources depletion and water scarcities mean women have to travel further to get water or fuel, hence they have less time for income-generating activities	Governments are beginning to realize that it is impossible to separate development from environmental issues. Because of this interdependence, natural resource management is forming part of the economic decision-making	
Socio-cultural	Mobility constrained by social norms Have low self-esteem and may have difficulties valuing own work Have to balance multiple roles as mothers, economic producers and community workers View bankers as powerful and important The language of commerce can be confusing May not want to take risks May be too modest and not good at marketing their abilities	Banks and financial institutions do not view women as a potential market, women's entrepreneurial activities considered as hobbies Advertisement about sources of credit and application procedures might not reach women	Women's issues and constraints not viewed as a priority at the national policy level
Demographic	Take greater responsibility for raising children	Not enough banks per capita, not enough banks in remote or poor areas, so women have to travel to reach banks	Large rural to urban migration, hence fewer people to serve in rural areas; policy-makers do not think rural areas require financial services

→ **Go to toolbox**: Resource matrix.

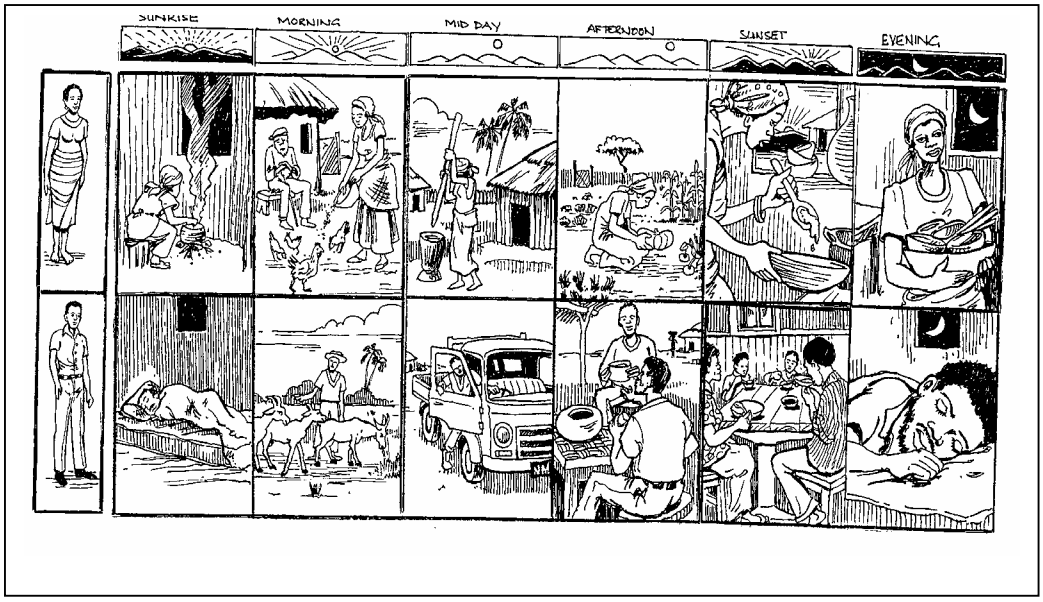
[13] Taken from Murray and Boros, 2002.

2.3.4 Time

Documenting tasks in a typical 24-hour period can show the differences between men's and women's use of time. Women's activities may not fall under the definition of "economic activity" even though they may be critical to a family's livelihood (■ FH Livelihood analysis: Farming systems diagram).

A time-use study carried out in Bangladesh, India and Nepal showed that women spend between 31 and 40 hours per week in unpaid housework, while men spend only five to 15 hours on the same tasks (UN, 1995). Research carried out in parts of Africa also shows similar discrepancies between men's and women's unpaid work.

Large shares of women's time are spent on activities such as collecting fuelwood, fetching water, caring for the sick and the young, cooking and cleaning. Sharing household responsibilities is necessary in order to help women and men balance jobs and family life. Interventions such as income generation projects have often increased women's workload simply by adding new activities to their existing responsibilities.



Outmigration and illness often lead to labour shortages within households. A survey from Uganda showed that the area of uncultivated land increased as a result of time and labour shortages caused by the HIV-epidemic (FAO/MAAIF, 2002). Such issues must be considered if income-generating activities are being proposed.

Women's workloads in Nepal

An IFAD study undertaken in 1999 found that women in the hill districts of Nepal had heavy workloads and a high level of physical vulnerability, which varied among classes/castes. Women were found to work about 16 hours a day, compared with an average of ten hours for men. Apart from the culturally based division of labour, women's workloads are increased by three factors:

- geographic and infrastructure factors;
- the outmigration of men
- new activities promoted by development projects

Source: IFAD, 2001

Labour-saving technologies are often proposed as ways of freeing up time for income-generating activities. Low-input technologies can also enable people with weak health to contribute to producing food or earning an income for their households. In rural Morocco, having wells or piped water increases the probability of both girls and boys enrolling in school (King and Alderman, 2001). Such time-saving equipment can also enable women farmers to attend training and other supplementary productive activities. On the other hand, when rural women and men are working as hired labour, labour-saving technologies may lead to loss of employment and income.

Technology and extension agents: A new technology may not be adopted automatically, nor may it save farmers' time as anticipated. It is important to ensure that the needs of both women and men across socio-economic groups are considered when assessing and introducing new technologies and labour-saving devices. It is also important to consider changes in household composition that may have taken place as a result of illness, political unrest or other stresses.

The introduction of technology and mechanization has often favoured farmers with capital assets, while displacing millions of landless producers, especially women, from agricultural work (FAO, 1996). It is important to evaluate the choice, scale and impact of technology carefully.

Technology introduction – linkages at the macro, intermediate and field levels

At the policy level, questions may be asked about whether there is a need for increased efficiency of production owing to rising rural labour costs, decreases in the agricultural labour force (i.e. resulting from HIV/AIDS) or urban migration.

Extension agents will have to ask the following questions:

- What sort of equipment do different farmers require?
- Who should be trained to use it (women, men, youth, the elderly)?
- Are there support services? Who provides these services?
- What information channels exist to help farmers make informed choices about technologies?

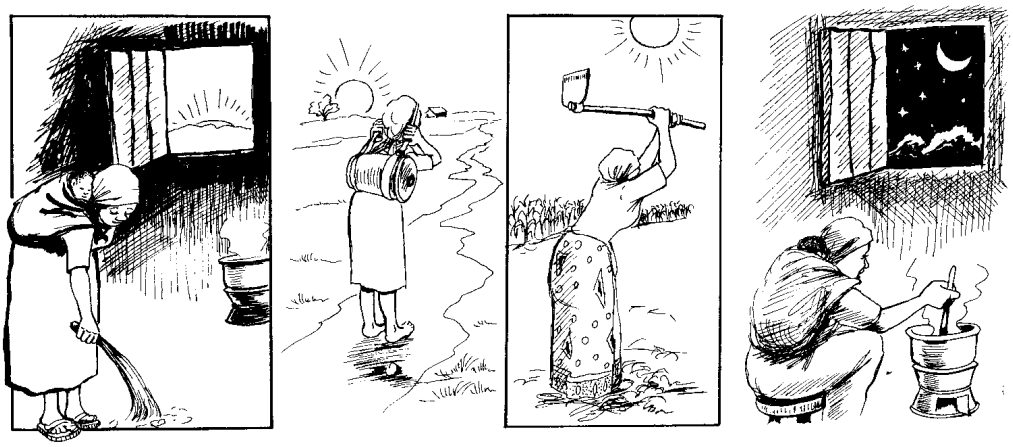
In terms of evaluating technologies' performance at field level, it will be important to consider the following:

- Will it lead to shifts in paid or unpaid labour? Who will it affect, and how?
- What is the effect on other stages of production, and who is involved?

Tips for extension workers: A good understanding of the time use of different household members and groups of clients can assist extension workers to plan visits, training and other activities that require the time of women, men, youth or other groups. It can also help extension workers to understand the needs of women and men in terms of time-saving technologies, and to avoid adding more work to an already overburdened household member without making sure that the time taken up by some of her/his other tasks is reduced.

It is also important to share information with rural women about appropriate labour-saving technology for food production, processing and storage, sanitation, and fuel and food preparation. Field visits provide opportunities for extension workers to hear about the needs and priorities of men, women, youth, the elderly and disabled people.

→ **Go to toolbox**: Activity profile (Daily activity clock, Seasonal calendar)



2.4 NUTRITION AND DIFFERENT HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS

Malnutrition remains a serious problem everywhere. It is a problem that affects specific groups more than a population as a whole. Although people may be aware that eating a variety of food is good for them, poverty may prevent them from having access to sufficient, varied and safe food for their households. Food shortages are often seasonal, with many people having less food during dry seasons.

Nutritional deficiencies are very prevalent in many developing countries, particularly among children. Of special concern are situations where infants and young children consume diets based largely on cereals or tubers, with low energy and nutrient content. Micronutrient deficiencies are often described as the “hidden hunger” in that essential nutrients such as iron, vitamin A, iodine and zinc are lacking in diets (Davidson, 2002). Nutritional disorders resulting from protein–calorie deficiency and monotonous diets result in reduced immunity and increased susceptibility to diseases. Promoting home gardens is a way of combating micronutrient deficiencies through the home production and consumption of appropriate foods.[14]

[14] FAO (1995 and 2001) has developed training packages for field workers in different parts of the world, for instance: “Improving Nutrition through Home Gardening”. See Annex B for contact information.

The plight of children is of great concern to development planners because malnutrition affects the physical, mental, intellectual and emotional development of young children, which in the long term affects their abilities to live healthy lives and grow into healthy adults. Conversely, unbalanced diets are creating obesity problems in many developed countries and – increasingly – in some developing ones.

Often (but not exclusively), women are responsible for food management within the household. It is thus considered a woman's role to budget, shop or forage for food, as well as to prepare meals and feed children. In some ethnic groups and some Islamic cultures, men go to the market to shop, but women are still primarily responsible for preparing meals and feeding children.

Many people are not aware that nutrition needs change throughout a person's life cycle. Those who are primarily responsible for food preparation need to know how nutrition needs change and how they can be met through locally available foods. Adopting a life cycle approach to both the analysis of nutrition problems and the choice of interventions emphasizes that nutritional status, unlike disease, is cumulative over time and not an isolated incident (Gillespie, 2001). Attention should be given to meeting energy and nutrient requirements during high-risk periods (pregnancy, lactation, infancy, illness, old age) and in difficult situations, such as times of low food availability. Good nutrition cannot cure AIDS or prevent HIV infection, but it can delay the progression from HIV to AIDS-related diseases and improve the quality of life for people living with HIV/AIDS (FAO and WHO, 2002).[15]

Woman-to-woman extension training in Honduras

FAO has coordinated a series of projects in Honduras to train both women farmers and extension officers. Some projects have aimed to strengthen women's organizations, enhance the awareness of women's roles, and train rural women to liaise between the extension system and grassroots women's groups.

Within 18 months of being trained (as Group Organizers) 17 women had helped to form 61 new groups with a total membership of more than 800. The training of Food Production Liaisons and the transfer of knowledge from extension workers to women's groups helped to improve subsistence production and nutrition levels, leading to increased consumption of poultry products, vegetables and fruits in the project area and hence contributing to the national macro goal of improving food security. This has been supported by the provision of credit to develop family gardens and poultry production.

Source: FAO, 1994

2.4.1 Cultural aspects of household nutrition

At the household level, cultural eating practices can be detrimental to the health and nutritional status of women and infants, particularly when there is not enough food to go round. There is a need to focus on improved household food security, the fostering of people's participation and the empowerment of women and marginal groups such as orphans in order to address local food and nutrition problems. Culturally, women defer to men; women often prepare the food and serve it first to

[15] Available at www.fao.org/docrep/005/y4168e/y4168E00.htm.

men. Children are fed second, and women eat last consuming whatever remains. If there are orphans in the household, they may be the very last to be served.

The way in which a household is composed and organized in terms of agricultural labour has a direct bearing on the nutritional status of its members and on how many calories per day they require (Voutira, 1995). People are socialized to accept that men require larger helpings because of their physical size, but calorie requirements are highly dependent on how much energy is spent. For example, during a drought, women have to travel further to find water sources. People suffering from chronic disease may need a particular diet in order to function well and be able to contribute to the management of the household. Gender analysis can help to find out about the activities and needs of men, women and other groups (■ FH Livelihood analysis).

2.4.2 Working towards improving household nutrition

In general, extension workers should be aware of the cultural context and whether there are situations leading to low nutritional status for certain groups or individuals. Before giving nutritional advice, it is thus necessary to be aware of the make-up of the household, the gender division of labour and the power relations and hierarchies.

Extension workers may act as facilitators to link households with those who have expertise in identifying nutrition problems (e.g. nutrition educators), or they may have to provide basic nutrition advice themselves. Extension workers can bring leaflets in appropriate local languages or posters that highlight basic nutritional messages. Messages about the safety and quality of food are of great importance, particularly for those who are responsible for storing food. Malnutrition is often the result of poor water and food sanitation, and the consumption of low-quality, contaminated foods is a major health risk. Education efforts may be needed in order to improve the quality and safety of food supplies through better storage facilities.

Emphasizing community participation in exploring women's, men's and children's nutritional status, and consulting both men and women to determine their views on how best to approach the situation can be effective.[16] Poor and vulnerable households should be encouraged and enabled to utilize local resources for both improved consumption and income generation. In many cultures, the sharing of food has considerable social significance. Appreciating rural people's wish to share food and eating with them is often the extension agent's key to gaining their trust. It follows that extension agents should bring healthy snacks with them when bringing any food or presents to rural areas.

→ **Go to toolbox**: Resource map and Activity profile

[16] FAO has developed training packages and guidelines that are useful for field workers, for example "Guidelines for participatory nutrition projects" and "Preparing microproject proposals to improve household food security and nutrition". See FAO contact information in Annex B.

Chapter 3 Examples of ways forward

3.1. TOWARDS IMPROVED MANAGEMENT OF HOUSEHOLD RESOURCES

This chapter provides:

- *tips* for conducting socio-economic and gender analysis;
- *practical suggestions* for planning field visits to work with communities;
- *ideas* for linking information on rural households to service providing organizations (intermediate level) and policy-makers (macro level); and
- *guidelines* for ensuring that projects and extension interventions are gender-responsive.

This chapter should be supplemented by Annex E, which contains *checklists* for projects and gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation, as well as a checklist for remembering the key issues in this guide.

To work on household resource management issues means working closely with individual household members and helping to consider the constraints and opportunities for different members. It is also necessary to recognize that the complex livelihood strategies of households and individual household members are intertwined.

Rural livelihoods depend on a wide range of resources such as land and water, but the access to such resources varies greatly by community, household and household member. The use and control of these resources must be understood in order to plan and implement interventions that can assist rural people to strengthen their livelihoods.

A socio-economic and gender analysis can facilitate learning about opportunities for, and constraints to, the effective management of household resources among rural men and women, and extension and development workers. Sharing this information with policy-makers and others can enable them to consider the needs and priorities of rural men, women and other socio-economic groups in plans and policies.

Tools from the toolbox in Part II can be used to help learn more about extension clients so that services can be tailored to their needs and priorities. The tools can also facilitate mutual learning, and help men and women to identify their opportunities and strengths and plan for the future.

3.2 SEAGA AND PARTICIPATORY TOOLS AND APPROACHES

Numerous tools and approaches are labelled “participatory”. Different participatory approaches are linked to slightly different values, or emphasize different concepts and/or values. Examples of participatory approaches include learning process approaches, participatory extension approaches (PEA), farmer-to-farmer extension and participatory rural appraisal (PRA). Common to all approaches is the view that

participation is essential and that outsiders (such as extension and community workers) should play the role of facilitators rather than teachers.

Participatory tools and approaches can be used to collect and share information, to facilitate learning and community planning and to empower people to take charge of their own development. The SEAGA Programme has adapted many participatory tools to highlight the importance of socio-economic and gender concerns in rural settings.

A socio-economic and gender analysis can yield both qualitative and quantitative information about household resources. Conducting a socio-economic and gender analysis implies a participatory approach and should should increase understanding of the different roles and relations of women and men in terms of what they do, what resources they have and what their needs and priorities are regarding extension services.

> A gender analysis is a systematic way of understanding *who* does *what, why* and *when* in the household.

The roles of women and men include their productive, reproductive and community roles.[17] In planning services with rural households, it is important not to assume that all the people in the household have the same resources (access, control, etc.). Women and men often have different constraints, opportunities, knowledge, responsibilities, needs and priorities in managing household resources.

SEAGA offers three toolkits for use at the field level (■ FH):

- development context analysis;
- livelihoods analysis;
- stakeholder analysis.

The first two of these focus on learning about the current situation ("what is"), while the third focuses on planning for the future ("what should be").

Tools to look at the particular context *Development context*	**Tools to help find out more about livelihoods** *Livelihood analysis*	**Tools for communities to plan themselves** *Stakeholder analysis*
• Village resources map	• Farming systems diagram	• Pair-wise ranking matrix
• Trend lines	• Benefits analysis flow chart	• Flow diagram
• Transects	• Daily activity clocks	• Problem analysis chart
• Venn diagrams	• Seasonal calendars	• Preliminary community action plan
• Village social maps	• Resources picture cards	• Venn diagram of stakeholders
• Institutional profiles	• Income and expenditure matrices	• Stakeholder conflicts and partnership matrix • Best bets action plan

[17] See the glossary in Annex A for explanations of these terms.

The tools focus on: i) women and men as individuals and in groups; ii) socio-economic differences within and among households; and iii) communities as a whole.

Some commonly used methods and techniques for collecting and sharing information will be elaborated in this chapter, while selected tools that are of particular relevance to household resource management issues are described in Part II of this document (toolbox).

3.3 TIPS FOR CONDUCTING A SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND GENDER ANALYSIS

3.3.1 Information collection and learning techniques

Community-based extension workers can collect information about household resources and decision-making through field visits. The focus of the information and how it will be used is greatly influenced by the extension worker and his/her selection of information sources, but also depends on the relationships among the extension workers, the community and individual men and women (e.g. trust, approach, attitudes).

Much information is obtained through casual contact with men and women in rural areas. Technique and good preparation are important for obtaining more focused information. Some techniques are described in this section, which includes tips on conducting semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions.

Common information collection techniques

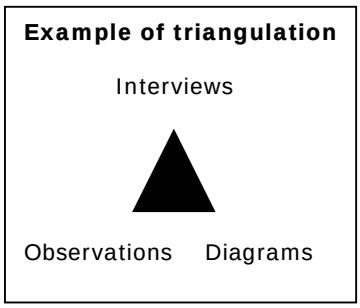
- Interviews (with groups, households, key informants)
- Observation
- Diagrams (transects, maps, calendars, diagrams)
- Ranking and scoring

Interviews can be carried out in large or small groups, which can be mixed or separate (e.g. men and women) or involve particular subgroups (e.g. young men). Household interviews can provide information about different livelihood systems and can document differences among households. Such interviews normally include informal discussion with the adult women and/or men in the household, and can provide a more in-depth understanding of household dynamics.

Information about individual household members and their daily lives can also be gathered through observation. This can be arranged, for example, by asking to join a farmer for part of the day to help, observe and talk as she/he works. Diagrams can simplify complex information and can be based on information from key informants or groups. Transects are produced on walks with community members. It is possible to repeat walks with different groups (women, men, old women, etc.) in order to identify priorities by gender, age and other characteristics. Calendars are often used to indicate seasonal changes and labour intensity, and can also show important differences between women's and men's work and resources (■ FH). All of these techniques are used by SEAGA and most other participatory approaches.

Triangulation: To create a full picture of the situation, it is important to obtain information from all the relevant subgroups, and compare the information from one source with that from others – this is called triangulation.

Example of triangulation



Triangulation means using a range of methods and types of information to cross-check information from various sources. For example, to find out about resources in a village, an extension worker might interview a key informant (someone with a lot of knowledge about the village), create village resource maps with men and women, and hold focus group discussions on a particular topic. Involving people from different sectors (nutrition, health, agricultural subsectors) in field visits and comparing and sharing information with them is also a way of triangulation.

Semi-structured interviews: is a form of guided interviewing in which only some of the questions are predetermined. It will often be based on a sort of checklist (mental or written) of questions or topics, and should be open-ended and flexible. Some questions may be discarded during the interview, and new questions brought in during conversations with farmers. Semi-structured interviews can be used to give and receive information, and provide a learning opportunity for both the extension worker and the farmer. They can be held with individuals, key informants or different groups (mixed or focus groups), depending on the information to be gathered or shared.

Things to remember when using semi-structured interviewing

1. Think about the type of information you are looking for or want to share.
2. Design a framework or checklist of questions and topics.
3. Think about whom you want to talk with.
4. Practise the interview with colleagues and/or a few community members to see how it works, and revise it as necessary.
5. Record only brief notes during the interview. These should be elaborated immediately after the interview.
6. Analyse, discuss and write up the information at the end of the day.
7. Discuss the findings with community members to allow them to challenge the interpretations made by you or the other interviewers.

Introductions and background information will depend on the relationship between the extension worker and the individual. It must be clear that the respondent agrees to be interviewed, and that she/he understands and trusts that the responses will be confidential.

In group interviews, it is common for people (both the interviewer and the respondents) to interrupt or try to help each other by giving their own answers to the issues brought up. Everybody should have a chance to be heard; groups should be split into smaller units if necessary.

Common mistakes among interviewers	
Failing to listen closely	Repeating questions
Helping to give answers	Asking leading questions
Asking vague questions	Asking insensitive or oversensitive questions
Failing to cross-check questions	Failing to judge answers (believing everything)
Allowing interview to go on too long	Overgeneralizing findings
Relying too much on what the well-off, the educated, the old and men say	Ignoring anything that does not fit with own perceptions
Giving too much weight to quantitative information	Incomplete note-taking

Source: IAC, 1995.

Focus group discussions – a source of qualitative information: Focus group discussions are intended to be informal, and create an opportunity for a group to discuss a topic with the help of an outside facilitator. Focus groups are considered more likely to produce reliable information from farmers than one-to-one interviews. To an outside interviewer, many people tend to say what they think the interviewer wants to hear. They may also tend to give what they think is the most "correct" answer, even if this is not necessarily what they believe.

Setting up a focus group

- Focus groups typically consist of small groups of people from similar backgrounds, and vary from three to 15 people.
- It is often recommended that focus groups be separated by sex. In mixed focus groups, men may tend to dominate discussions. It is difficult to have mixed groups in which women have equal opportunities to participate and contribute.
- The first task is to establish a friendly atmosphere, introducing the facilitators (or extension workers) and providing background information on the purpose of the visit and focus group discussion. This should also help to avoid building unrealistic expectations.
- It is important to avoid creating a sense of formality or hierarchy. Farmers and extension workers should sit at the same level.
- A list of prepared questions can be used as a guide for the discussions. Extra probing questions should be asked as appropriate.

Challenges with technique-led approaches: There are many challenges inherent in using technique-led approaches. Many projects and programmes have found that they should only undertake participatory rural appraisal in a community after they have obtained reasonably good knowledge of the locality and after appropriate contacts have been developed.

Maximizing opportunities for participation is not always compatible with getting the best or most accurate data; sometimes the information is given in quantity rather than quality. It is difficult to ensure that the right people are involved in focus groups, and that powerful people in the community do not dominate the process. Many people are unable to articulate their views, particularly if they are personal ones (Mosse, 1993). Furthermore, people tend not to present their views unless specifically and

deliberately asked. The interpretation and translation of questions and answers can also present a challenge.

3.3.2 Practical suggestions for planning a field visit

In general, extension agents are "outsiders", and it is important to keep this in mind when asking people to express their concerns and views in public. Even informal approaches may be far from comfortable to people who are answering what they regard as strange questions. The tips below were provided by extension workers in Uganda during a workshop in 2003, and may be useful as a checklist for organising your field visit:

- → Include field visits in local plans in order to strengthen coordination and avoid farmer fatigue. Agree on the visit with the community or farmers well ahead of time, and ensure that they are well informed about its purpose.
- → Remember to plan the meeting in a way that allows men, women and other relevant socio-economic groups to participate (at a suitable time and place).
- → Think through the overall context or situation in the area, be clear about what kind of information you want, how the different issues should be approached and how the discussions will be facilitated (who will ask the questions and take notes). Write a list of questions to guide the discussions.
- → Decide which tools you will use, their sequencing and whether/how you will split the farmers into groups (by gender, age, crop or other variable).
- → Prepare an introduction for the farmers about who you are, whom you represent, what you want and the purpose of the discussion. It is also useful to prepare an ice-breaking tool.
- → Consider how you will be viewed as an outsider. If rural households are involved in illegal activities, such as growing illicit crops, using land that has been decreed a natural reserve, poaching or avoiding taxes, it is important to consider how to approach these issues.
- → Look at your own preconceived ideas and biases about the roles of rural women and men.
- → Ensure that every group has a chance to present its own views.
- → Consider what arrangements you need to make for the participants, for instance, regarding transport and lunch.
- → Ensure that the information is shared with the community (flip charts are useful information for them), other service deliverers and your supervisor or other colleagues.

In advance, make a list of what you want to find out about a household, for example:

- the importance of particular natural resources for household food security;
- access to and control over resources and benefits, and factors influencing this.
- Identification of vulnerable groups and their particular extension needs;
- Time use among household members;
- The importance of formal and informal institutions for rural women and men;
- New demands for extension services (due to changes in outmigration, diseases, changes in household composition, new client groups etc.)

During meetings with farmers, it is important to ensure that every group has a chance to present its own views. Some groups and individuals will be more vocal than others, and it is often necessary to split the groups into smaller groups in order to involve all the relevant points of view, including those of more timid people. It is useful to have separate male and female groups in order to get a clear picture of the views of each and to identify the differences between them. Separate meetings for men and women can make them feel freer to talk about sensitive issues. If one person is dominating the discussion, you should politely try to prevent this as soon as possible. A dominant person could be assigned a special task, for instance helping to ensure that everyone participates as fully as possible, or elaborating on one particular issue (away from the group). The facilitator should be observant and make a point of involving “quiet observers”.

3.3.3 What to do with the analysis and the results

The overall analysis should help to achieve an understanding of (Gebremedhin, 1997):

- The make-up of poor rural households (e.g. are the household members male or female, young or old, landless, nomadic pastoralists, etc.?);
- Who heads the different households;
- How certain factors, processes or institutions maintain specific groups of rural households in poverty;

- How such groups relate to other institutions in order to increase farm productivity, income generation and food security;
- The different sources of income (both on- and off-farm) for women and men, young and old people;
- The constraints that specific groups or subgroups face in diversifying their sources of livelihood (e.g. access, diseases, etc.);
- The causes and consequences of changes in household production, consumption and income, and the implications of these for development.

It is important to avoid creating unrealistic expectations among rural people. It is equally important to share the information and reports with the men and women who shared their knowledge with you. During the village meeting, participants can be asked whether they are interested in all or some of the information that will come out of the meeting, and in what format they would prefer to have that information presented (flip charts, pictures, typed reports, a combination etc.). Remember that the information you feed back to the community should be accessible to all, including those who speak only the local language, or those who are illiterate.

Rural people representing themselves

In an ideal world, through awareness raising and capacity building for rural people, the rural poor would be able to negotiate and campaign for their own rights at the local or national level. Extension agents can facilitate such a process, but rural people themselves need to vocalize and present their views.

An example of such a process is the Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA) in India, a women's trade union that started at the grassroots level to help self-employed women to fight for their rights. During the 1990s, the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) developed legal literacy programmes aimed at raising poor people's awareness about such issues as family law disputes over land rights and inheritance. During the evaluation phase of the BRAC programme, village volunteers concluded that access to knowledge was in itself empowering.

Raw data (unprocessed data in the form in which they were collected) are sensitive and should always be handled carefully. They should not be distributed without the permission of the information source.

It is very useful to disaggregate information by sex, age and, where feasible, ethnic group or other key variables in order to ensure that the differences among groups are examined and understood. Sex, age and economic status can all have an impact on what services rural households will require. The results of a socio-economic and gender analysis will probably demonstrate that women and men of different ages have different needs in terms of extension services.

The needs and priorities of different rural people can be categorized into issues that:

- the extension worker can do something about – which will feed into the planning cycle;
- are beyond the extension worker's control.

For issues that are institutionally beyond your control, you will have to present the results of your field analysis to your manager and link rural people with others who may have expertise in this area.

3.3.4 Linking information about rural households upstream

In an ideal situation, the valuable knowledge of field-based extension workers should be fed upstream to district officials and policy-makers. In reality, there are often few channels open to such communication, but extension workers should try to use the channels available to share their information.

The question of *who* has access to *what* resources and issues regarding the constraints faced by rural households are important when planning extension services and rural development activities. Policy discussions and decisions can dramatically affect conditions in rural households, and such information should therefore be of interest to decision-makers at all levels. Resources controlled at one level may create constraints at another. For example, the control of wildlife parks, the privatization of water and decisions about infrastructure and electricity are mainly controlled at the national level, but have very important implications for rural households.

Those responsible for policy development base their decisions on information received from various sources and work contacts, as well as their own values, culture and life experiences. Extension workers know what is going on at the field level, and could be an important source of information about rural households, their needs and priorities. Many issues are competing for the attention of policy-makers, but it is worth trying to continue to draw their attention to household-level concerns!

Chapter 2 discussed some of the general issues and constraints that rural people face. The different concerns that affect rural men and women in your region should be summarized and explained clearly and precisely to planners and policy-makers. Any conclusions should first be reiterated with rural households to ensure that you have represented their views adequately and appropriately.

3.3.5 Presenting results and making information available

Start with the most important information that you want to present – many people will not read thick reports. The information should be related to action, with the recommendations outlined by rural households coming first, followed by a summary of the main findings and the next suggested steps.

All reports should be edited for clarity. They should also be easily accessible to readers. Pictures and practical examples from participatory village workshops (for example summaries, matrices and tables) can be very convincing.

Try to share information with other relevant stakeholders, such as government offices or other potential donors; copies of appropriate reports should be circulated. Making an overview of decision-makers and other stakeholders could help you to develop a targeted plan for the distribution of information.

→ **Go to toolbox**: Venn diagram and Institutional profile for more tips.

3.4 DEVELOPING GENDER-RESPONSIVE PROJECTS

As is the case for any project, a gender-responsive project:

- has a specified time frame and a certain budget; and
- consists of a coherent set of activities that are necessary to achieve specific outputs;

The difference is that a gender-responsive project pays attention to the differentiated gender roles and responsibilities of rural women and men.

Project planners often perceive "gender" only in terms of activities that are considered to relate exclusively to women (e.g. projects on women's crops, poultry, income generation from traditional handicrafts, etc.). Indeed, many planners see their projects as *gender neutral*, i.e. as having no relevance to gender issues.

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Gender blindness occurs when planners and others do not see the gender issues, and often stems from confusion over gender-related concepts. It has often been assumed that everybody automatically benefits from projects, and that progress for women and girls takes places as a consequence. However, accumulated experience has shown that some projects may make women's and girls' situations worse (e.g. through increased labour, loss of access to a resource, etc.) unless gender concerns are explicitly incorporated in the design and implementation of development projects.

As already mentioned, one barrier to the integration of gender concerns is that the terminology relating to gender is often confusing.[18] In addition, project staff have to believe that gender analysis adds value to a project by making it respond to the needs of all potential beneficiaries, rather than to 50 percent in a given area.

The approach that is currently promoted is "mainstreaming" gender into all stages of projects, from formulation to evaluation, rather than focusing on women-specific projects or projects with a women's component. This presents a challenge if project staff are unfamiliar with the range of methods for gender mainstreaming, and there is a lot of reference material available to assist the necessary learning process. Annex B contains the contact details of organizations that can be contacted for materials on gender mainstreaming. The following subsections present some other ideas.

[18] See the glossary in Annex A for an elaboration of selected concepts.

3.4.1 Checklists for projects

The following checklists can help at different stages of the project cycle:

- The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has developed a useful short checklist, which is included in Annex E.
- IFAD has produced tools and checklists for project designers to facilitate the inclusion of household food security and gender-related variables in project design (IFAD, 1999).
- The *SEAGA guide to project cycle management* (Sambrook, 2001) provides more comprehensive guidance for preparing gender-sensitive projects for rural women and men. Its examples are mainly from Uganda.
- The *SEAGA field handbook* (Wilde, 2001) has a compilation of gender-sensitive participatory techniques and tools, which can be used at the community level to help rural people plan and decide on priority intervention areas.

3.4.2 Participatory monitoring and evaluation in projects

Measurable targets and gender-sensitive indicators should be developed at an early stage in the planning process in order to achieve effective monitoring and evaluation of the services provided. Such indicators should also be included in any planning documents in order to identify and measure the potential consequences of activities on both rural women and men.

In many instances, quantitative information is provided, for example, on financial or physical progress, such as the amount of money spent on an activity or the number of women and men attending a field demonstration. Much of the information collected relates to disbursement of the organization's resources (e.g. money, number of people trained, number of site visits, etc.), rather than to assessing the impact on the target group or the livelihoods of the project beneficiaries. The information that is really important and useful for improvement is often too complex and situation-specific. Hence, there is a lack of qualitative information, such as information to examine the impact of a specific activity on raising women's or men's incomes, or information on why mainly men participated on a specific field demonstration.

While monitoring is a routine process of gathering information on all aspects of service delivery, evaluation entails measuring whether the planned activities are being carried out and the extent to which the stated objectives are being achieved.

Clearly, participatory monitoring and evaluation depend on how your organization defines participation and on the indicators for participation that it has defined. The following are some questions and suggestions for participatory monitoring and evaluation.

Some pointers for participatory monitoring and evaluation:

1. *Reasons/purpose:* Be clear about the reasons for and the benefits of carrying out participatory monitoring and evaluation.

2. *Review objectives and activities:* Include activities that have led to progress or caused drawbacks.
3. *Develop relevant questions:* List what you want to identify/investigate.
4. *Establish indicators:* Identify direct or indirect indicators to measure changes, including indicators of participation.
5. *Select tools for generating information:* Identify the most relevant tools for collecting information. See Part II of this guide for tips.
6. *Decide who will be involved:* Identify people with the skills and experience necessary to carry out monitoring and evaluation (including rural women and men), and also those who should know the results of the exercise.
7. *Identify existing information sources and use tools to collect new data:* Check whether relevant information exists through conventional research in documents etc.; refer also to baseline data. Where are the information gaps?
8. *Determine the resource requirements:* What other resources are needed in order to ensure that the overall process is participatory (staff training, cash, time)? Do you have them or how do you obtain them?
9. *Determine when the information gathering and analysis will be carried out:* Monthly or seasonally for monitoring? On completion of particular activities/projects or when crises arise for evaluation?
10. *Analyse and present results:* When will the information be analysed and synthesized for presentation? What format should it be presented in?

Useful checklists in Annex E:

1. Checklist 1 can help you to achieve gender-sensitive *development, implementation and monitoring and evaluation of projects*, and was developed by UNDP.
2. Checklist 2 contains specific questions that it helps to think about when setting up a gender-sensitive *monitoring and evaluation* system for a project. It can also be used to examine your own work.
3. Checklist 3 provides a *summary checklist for your work* and lists the major issues discussed in this guide. It can serve as a reminder of key household resource management issues and of why gender and participation are important. It is intended to encourage the use and reuse of the guide.

Summary

This SEAGA guide has highlighted some of the major issues affecting rural households, and provided users with some key resources and tools for collecting, analysing and sharing information about the constraints, opportunities and priorities that communities, households and individual household members face.

To do this, the guide has promoted the use of gender-sensitive and participatory learning approaches as a means to working towards more people-centred sustainable development.

The following annexes provide reference materials, terms, checklists, etc. that are useful to extension and community workers.

Part II of this guide can be used together with the first three chapters, or it can be carried as a stand-alone toolbox to help extension and community workers in their communication with rural women and men.

Annex A: Glossary

The terms in this annex are used in the context of household resource management. Definitions may vary from place to place, person to person and depending on language and context. If you are not very familiar with the area in which you work, it might be useful to listen to local people's (men, women, young and old) perceptions and definitions of "household" and other key terms you might use when talking with them.

Access, control and ownership (of resources): ***Access*** to something means having the possibility to use it, e.g. a resource such as land or production equipment. It does not necessarily imply control or ownership of this resource. When someone has ***control*** of something it means that he/she decides *how* it can be used and *by whom* – it does not necessarily imply ownership. Ownership can be *joint* (e.g. by more than one household or community member) or *individual* (e.g. by one person). ***Ownership*** will determine control and access to a large degree. It is not uncommon for a resource (e.g. land) to be owned by somebody while another person uses it or decides about its use (e.g. when there is an owner and a separate farm manager, etc.)

Division of labour: Work is divided among households or household members. Division of labour refers to who does what, when, how, for how long, etc., and can be disaggregated by gender, age and other socio-economic variables.

GAD and WID: Over the last 30+ years, development strategies have moved from what was called a ***women in development (WID)*** approach to a ***gender and development (GAD)*** approach. The focus has shifted from one that looks at women in isolation to one that looks at women in relation to men. While WID concentrated on women's activities, and specifically targeted women in projects and programmes, GAD recognizes that interventions need to consider the roles and needs of both women and men. It examines the forces that determine how men and women participate in, benefit from, and control resource use and activities differently. Rather than focusing on women as a homogenous group, it focuses on the socially determined relations between women and men.

Gender refers to the social, economic and cultural roles and relations between women and men, and takes into account the different responsibilities of women and men in a given culture or location and in different population groups (children, aged people, ethnic groups etc.) (FAO, 2003b).

Gender analysis is a tool to strengthen development planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation in order to make programmes and projects more efficient and relevant (FAO, 2003b). Gender analysis tries to answer fundamental questions such as who does or uses what, why, and how. It also involves looking at the division of labour in and among households, examines the access and control that men and women have regarding resources, and reviews the benefits of their labour.

Gender-blind describes extension or development activities that assume results will automatically be equally beneficial to both men and women; it also refers to a lack of

recognition or understanding of *gender* as an essential variable that shapes livelihoods.

Gender mainstreaming refers to strategies that are intended to ensure that gender concerns are integrated into all the activities, projects and programmes of an organization. Gender mainstreaming rejects the notions that *"gender"* is a separate issue to be tacked on to a project as an afterthought or a requisite paragraph in a project document, or that "women's" issues should be dealt with separately.

Incorporating a **gender perspective** means looking at the ways in which gender (among other factors): i) help shape a particular agricultural trend or problem; or ii) are shaped by potential policy outcomes (i.e. different effects on rural women and men). It requires using gender as a category of analysis to highlight and address inequalities among different socio-economic groups of women and men. Gender analysis can help development planners plan interventions to meet women's and men's different constraints, needs and opportunities.

Gender roles are the socially, culturally and politically defined roles and responsibilities to which women and men conform. Gender roles are dynamic and can vary among different societies and cultures, classes and ages, and over time.

A **gender-sensitive approach** emphasizes that the capacities and vulnerabilities of both women and men should be identified and considered – neither should be dealt with in isolation from the other.

Gender-sensitive indicators are used to monitor the progress made in achieving gender equality (FAO, 2003b).

Household: A basic unit for socio-cultural and economic analysis, and most definitions emphazises co-residence. The concept of household is based on the arrangements made by persons for providing themselves with food or other essentials for living, and may be one-person or multi-person. The household members may pool their incomes and have a common budget to a greater or lesser extent; they may be related or unrelated persons or a combination of both. Households may consist of extended families that make common provision for food or of potentially separate households with a common head, resulting from polygamous unions, or households may occupy more than one housing unit. Homeless households are defined as those households without a shelter that would fall within the scope of living quarters. A household also includes those persons who normally reside with the other members of the household but are away temporarily (for less than one year), e.g. full-time students or those engaged in seasonal migratory labour.

Matlon (1988) defines a ***rural household*** as "the smallest group of persons usually, but not exclusively kin- related, who form a more or less independent production and consumption unit during the cropping season". Households normally comprise individuals who live in the same dwelling and who have common arrangements for basic domestic and/or reproductive activities such as cooking and eating (Chant, 1997). Gebremedhin (1997) defines a rural household "as a social and economic unit on which its members depend for economic survival, maintenance, and social advancement. It also serves as the centre point for biological production, socialization, organization, planning and distribution of resources".

Household food security: A generally accepted definition of food security is access to adequate quantities of safe and nutritious food by all people at all times. Households are food-secure when they have year-round access to the amount and variety of safe foods that their members need to lead active and healthy lives. At the household level, food security refers to the ability of the household to secure, either from its own production or through purchases, adequate food for meeting the dietary needs of all members of the household.

Household kinship systems: Although there are many variations in household make-up, kinship systems largely determine the composition of household members. Kinship also influences household economic strategies. As we know, many rural households maintain relationships with other households where they have family ties, and depend on family and community support systems for advice, financial aid, exchange of labour, contribution to family and community events and dealing with crisis situations.

Household head is the man or woman recognized as such by other household members. This person makes the decisions and has the primary responsibility for managing household matters. Prevailing stereotypes often cause the role to be assigned to an adult male even if a female household member makes the decisions and is the principal source of family income. Traditionally, a woman is considered the head of the household only when there is no adult male, i.e. widows, separated and divorced women living alone or in households where the husband or male companion does not reside. Increasingly, in areas severely hit by HIV/AIDS, households are often child-, orphan- or grandparent-headed.

Household resource management uses the household as an entry-point to understand and address rural development challenges. It focuses on management systems within households, and include analysis of decision-making, resource allocation, household consumption and time management in the context of food security and economic development. Engberg (1990) describes household resource management as “the process of making decisions about how to maximize the use of resources, such as land, water, labour, capital, purchased inputs, inputs produced on-farm, cash, agricultural credit and agricultural extension”.

Participation: While there are countless definitions, SEAGA views “participation” as a process of communication, problem identification and decision-making among local people and development agents during which local people take a lead role in analysing the current situation, and in planning, implementing and evaluating development activities.

Gender roles are divided into *productive*, *reproductive* and *community* roles. ***Productive roles*** refer to work carried out by men and women for payment in cash or kind. ***Reproductive roles*** involve childbearing, childrearing responsibilities and domestic tasks, some of which are biologically determined (i.e. only women can breastfeed) while others are gender-related (e.g. in some households, men do most of the cooking, in others women do). ***Community roles*** are those activities that contribute to the welfare and organization of the community, such as maintenance of common areas.

Resources are things that help provide what is needed. Rural households and individuals within households require different resources for their farming sub-systems and activities. ***Tangible resources*** (things that can be seen or touched) include land, water, capital and production equipment. ***Intangible resources*** include skills, knowledge, self-esteem, labour, time and social capital (membership of particular groups). Basic infrastructure is a useful facilitating resource in terms of market access and is usually provided and controlled by the government. Access to a particular resource is often different for different groups of people. For instance, access to financial resources (savings, credit) is more easily obtained by certain groups of rural people (e.g. men with land title) than others (landless, women without land title).

Socio-economic and gender analysis looks at the different roles and relations of women and men in different socio-economic groups to understand what they do, how and why. It assesses what resources they have and identifies their needs and priorities.

A **stakeholder** is any individual or group with a direct or indirect interest in the outcome of a development intervention, or anyone who is affected by or who affects this intervention.

Annex B: Resources

Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN (FAO)
Viale delle Terme di Caracalla, 00100 Rome, Italy. E-mail: fao-hq@fao.org
Web site: www.fao.org . Web site on HIV/AIDS and food security: www.fao.org/hivaids
SEAGA e-mail: seaga@fao.org SEAGA Web site: www.fao.org/sd/seaga

Global Fund to Fight AIDS, TB and Malaria, 53 Avenue Louis-Casaï, 1216 Geneva-Cointrin, Switzerland. E-mail: info@theglobalfund.org Web site: www.globalfundatm.org

Intermediate Technology Development Group (ITDG)
Schumacher Centre for Technology and Development, Bourton Hall, Bourton-on-Dunsmore, Rugby, CV23 9QZ, United Kingdom. E-mail itdg@itdg.org.uk Web site: www.itdg.org

International Centre for Tropical Agriculture (CIAT)
A.A. 6713, Cali, Colombia. E-mail: ciat-library@cgiar.org Web site: www.cgiar.org/ciat/

International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)
Via del Serafico 107, 00142 Rome, Italy. E-mail ifad@ifad.org Web site: www.ifad.org

International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI)
2033 K. Street NW, Washington DC, 20006-1002, USA
E-mail: ifpri-library@cgiar.org Web site: www.ifpri.org

International Labour Organization (ILO)
International Labour Office, 4 Route des Morillons, CH-1211 Geneva, Switzerland
E-mail: ilo@ilo.org Web site: www.ilo.org

International Service for National Agricultural Research (ISNAR)
PO Box 93375, 2509 AJ The Hague, The Netherlands
E-mail: isnar@cgiar.org Web site: www.isnar.cgiar/gender/

Raising Voices, PO Box 6770 Kampala, Uganda
E-mail: info@raisingvoices.org Web site: www.raisingvoices.org

UNAIDS, 20 Avenue Appia, CH-1211 Geneva 27, Switzerland
E-mail: unaids@unaids.org Web site: www.unaids.org

UNCTAD/UNDP Global Programme for Globalization, Liberalization and Sustainable Human Development, E7024 UNCTAD, Palais des Nations, CH1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland. E-mail: globalprogramme@unctad.org Web site: www.unctad-undp.org

United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women (UNDAW)
2 United Nations Plaza, DC2-12th floor, New York, NY 10017, USA. E-mail: daw@un.org
Web sites: www.un.org/womenwatch/daw and www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)
1 United Nations Plaza, New York, NY 10017, USA.
E-mail: aboutundp@undp.org Web site: www.undp.org

United Nations Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention (UNDCP)
Vienna International Centre, PO Box 500, A1400 Vienna, Austria
E-mail: odccp@odccp.org Web site: www.unodc.org/odccp

World Health Organization (WHO), Avenue Appia 20, 1211 Geneva 27, Switzerland
E-mail: info@who.int Web site: www.who.int

Annex C: Local resources

This annex can be filled with information to adapt the guide to your specific context. The following headings are intended only as a guide – you may have other ideas.

- Definition of concepts to match local understanding
- Target group: who are your clients?
  - Men, women, young, old, orphans, disabled, widows or widowers, sick or healthy, and different socio-economic groups
- Service delivery (supply side):
  - What services does your organization deliver?
  - What services do other organizations deliver?
- Major constraints and supports to resources for households and different household members:
  - Macro-level factors such as policies, laws, regulations, pandemics, environment/seasonability;
  - Intermediate-level factors such as institutions and services (extension, health, education, markets, transport, credit institutions etc.)
  - Resource availability: human such as time, skills, health and nutrition; natural including crops, livestock, fish and water, forests and trees; financial such as savings and credit; social such as networks and membership; institutional such as access to support services and education; and physical such as roads, transport and access to markets;
  - Intra-household dynamics: use of and control over resources, division of labour and distribution of benefits. Analysis by gender, age and socio-economic group;
  - The linkages between the different levels?
- What are the needs and priorities of rural women and men? What can be done to better reach, involve and assist the different groups of extension clients with our services?
- Which information do we have about the clients, their needs and priorities? Which information is lacking? How can it be obtained?
- Who should information be shared with? Farmers, policy-makers, within own organization, with other organizations, local bodies and service providers?
- Your work plan

Annex D: Domestic violence

International law has established that every person has the right to protection from physical and mental violence. International law requires countries to show due diligence in preventing and responding to human rights violations. With respect to violations of "bodily integrity" in particular, governments have a duty to prevent, investigate and prosecute such abuse, including cases in which the perpetrator is a private citizen. Countries that do not prohibit such abuse or that routinely fail to respond to cases of rape or assault send the message that such attacks can be committed with impunity. In doing so, countries fail to take the minimum steps necessary to protect the individual's right to physical integrity and even life. This also constitutes a violation of the State's international obligation to guarantee the rights of its citizens.

The protection of children from violence is a key component of the ***Convention on the Rights of Children*** which has been ratified by almost every country in the world. The ***Convention to Eliminate all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)***[19] has been ratified by 168 UN Member States. A country that ratifies an international convention often takes on obligations. For example, CEDAW must be incorporated into national legislation by the countries that have ratified it.

CEDAW requires that countries:

- Eliminate discrimination against women within all spheres of life, public or private;
- Abolish discriminatory norms;
- Modify laws that are not in line with the Convention;
- Promulgate new laws and take concrete actions that will promote equality.

Equality between the sexes before law is a basic objective in CEDAW. The objectives of CEDAW in fact go beyond legal equality, seeking social change of cultural norms and national laws. In order to monitor adherence to the convention, each government must report to the CEDAW Committee every four years. Governments have to specify what kinds of measures have been taken to eliminate discrimination in each area addressed in the convention. As well as formal reports, NGOs can submit shadow reports, which give leeway for civil society to confirm or contradict that which governments present as reality. In this way international conventions and national obligations can be used as a resource in the fight against domestic violence. However, there are no sanctions for non-compliance, although political pressure is exerted on countries that fail to present reports.

Raising Voices is an example of a regional initiative working to prevent domestic violence. It has made a resource guide to help community-based organizations in East and Southern Africa to mobilize communities in this work. Its contact information can be found in Annex B.

[19] Contact UNDAW (see Annex B) for more information about CEDAW, including country reports. WHO has a guide to UN resources and activities related to interpersonal violence. See Annex B for contact information.

Annex E: Checklists for gender-sensitive project guidance

CHECKLIST 1[20]

BUILDING GENDER EQUITY INTO PROJECT DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

PROJECT DESIGN AND PREPARATION

Preparation

- Which population groups are served by the project (women only, men only, both, youth, children- or grandparent-headed households, other groups)?
- What information is already available about each population group, and about women in particular?
- Has information on women's and men's work in the household and community been collected? Is it adequate for the purposes of the project?
- Has there been consultation with people whose lives will be affected by the project (a broad range of stakeholders), and what attention has been given to women in this process?
- Are marginalized and disadvantaged groups involved at all levels in the planning and implementation of the project?

Objectives and activities

- What are the objectives of the project?
- Have both men's and women's opinions been sought in the definition of objectives?
- Are women's and men's roles reflected in the project's objectives? What about youth's?
- How do the objectives address the needs and concerns of women and men?
- What programmes, activities and services does the project have to ensure that gender needs and concerns will be addressed?
- How will the inclusion of women help to achieve the objectives?
- Are children's issues considered? What about youth's?
- How will the activities and services include women's participation?
- In what ways will the activities and services benefit women?
- How will women obtain access to the opportunities and services that the project provides (training, agricultural extension, new allocation of land rights, credit arrangements, membership in cooperatives, employment during construction and operation, etc.)?
- Are project resources adequate to provide these services for women?

[20] Stephanie Urdang developed the original checklist for a UNDP Gender and Development Training Workshop (1993). In February 1998 the checklist was adapted and added to by Ugandan participants at a Gender and Natural Resource Planning and Management/SEAGA Workshop.

- Is the project likely to have adverse effects for women?
- What social, legal and cultural obstacles could prevent women from participating in the project?
- What plans have been developed to address these obstacles?

PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION

Project personnel

- Are project personnel familiar with gender issues?
- Are project personnel willing to seek women's participation in implementing the project?
- To what extent are the female personnel experienced in delivering services to men? To what extent are the male personnel experienced in delivering services to women? Is such service delivery appropriate in the cultural context?
- If approach by male staff is not culturally acceptable, will the project make provisions for female staff interventions?
- Are female personnel available for technical staff positions?

Operation and maintenance

- How will the project ensure that women have equitable access to and control of material and technical resources and technologies?
- Can people engage in project activities independent of the implementing agency personnel?
- How will women participate in and contribute to the maintenance of equipment? Will training be provided?
- Through what organization(s) will the women be involved?
- How will the project affect women's time?
  - Will their workload increase/decrease as a result of innovation or changes (mechanization; new cropping patterns; withdrawal of labour by other household members; changes in distance to farms, workplaces, water supply, fuelwood supply, etc.)?
  - If their workload is decreased, does this involve loss of income for women?
- How will the project affect relations between men and women?
- Do the technologies introduced by the project require changes in women's work patterns?
- Who will assume the risk of project failure?

Institutional framework

- Does the implementing agency demonstrate gender sensitivity? (Does it have gender-sensitive policies?)
- Is the implementing agency influenced by outside factors or people?
- Does the implementing agency have adequate power to obtain resources from its own and other institutions to enhance women's participation in project activities?
- Can the implementing agency remain independent to external factors?
- Can the implementing agency support and protect women if the project has a harmful or negative impact?

- Can the implementing agency inform and report on negative affects?
- Are there any laws (formal or informal) that the implementing agency will have to adhere to?

Monitoring and evaluation

- Are separate data collected on women and men?
- Does the project involve most stakeholders in the process of monitoring and evaluating?
- Does the project have an information system to detect and evaluate the effects of the project on women and men separately?
- Are mechanisms in place to ensure that project clients have the ability to change the direction of the project?
- What sort of indicators are being used (both qualitative and quantitative)?

CHECKLIST 2

KEY QUESTIONS FOR GENDER-SENSITIVE MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Monitoring

- Are separate data collected on women and men?
- Is there an information system to detect and evaluate the effects of the activities on women and men separately?
- What sort of indicators can be developed that would be the most effective in measuring the impacts on both women and men?
- Are both women and men involved in the process of monitoring (beneficiaries and men and women staff from partner institutions)?
- Are mechanisms in place to ensure that women and men beneficiaries have the ability to change the direction of activities?
- Do all staff raise relevant gender issues in planning meetings and review meetings?
- Do staff monitor financial disbursements to ensure that inputs are used in such a way as to ensure equality of outcome for both women and men beneficiaries?

Evaluation

- Do self-evaluation activities require special gender expertise and experience? Or do extension staff have the capacity to conduct gender-sensitive evaluations themselves?
- If independent evaluations take place, are independent evaluation team members briefed on relevant gender issues and provided with background documentation?
- Is knowledge about the differential impacts of activities and interventions on women and men a requirement for all evaluation and mission terms of reference?
- Do evaluation reports reflect gender issues, and is all information disaggregated by sex?
- How can gender issues be included in the main part of evaluation reports, rather than only in sections such as those on special concerns?
- Will staff review evaluation reports to ensure that gender-related omissions and successes are reflected?

CHECKLIST 3

A SUMMARY CHECKLIST FOR YOUR WORK

Questions	Keywords	Section of guidebook
Demand-side analysis • What is the mandate of your organization? • What is your role? • Who are your clients? • What services do you provide to male farmers? • What services do you provide to female farmers? • Do you provide services to other groups, e.g. youth, disabled or chronically ill people, landless? • Who else delivers services to your clients? • What kind of services do they deliver? • Could they need your expertise? • Could you need their assistance? Would collaboration be beneficial? • Who should this information be shared with?	Extension work, responsibilities, clients, stakeholders, communication, analysis, collaboration, Venn diagrams, institutional profiles	1.3 1.5 Toolbox 3.3 Annex C Annex E
The development context • What are the supports and constraints for development (for the community as a whole, and for specific groups/households/individuals)? • What are the environmental, social, economic and institutional factors that help or hinder development activities? • Who could benefit from the information you have on these issues?	Economic, social, cultural, demographic, environmental and political factors, village social map, resources map, transects, trend lines	2.1 2.2 2.3 2.4 3.3 Toolbox
Information • What information do you have available? • Is the information disaggregated by gender, age, socio-economic group, household composition? • Is more information needed? What kind of information? • Is the information reliable and up to date? • Where/how can such information be obtained? • With whom should information be shared?	Secondary and primary sources of information, quantitative and qualitative, gender- disaggregated data, information sharing, validity, triangulation, focus groups, key informants, interviews	1.4 Annex B 3.2 3.3 3.4 Toolbox Annex G
Who does what? • Who are your clients (continued)? • Which activities are the responsibilities of men? • Which activities are the responsibilities of women?	Demand-side analysis, rural livelihoods, division of labour,	Annex A 1.1 1.2

Questions	Keywords	Section of guidebook
• Which activities are the responsibilities of youth, children, the old or other groups? • Are there child-headed households or other vulnerable or disadvantaged groups in your area? • Are there crops that women typically are responsible for? Men? Children? • How much time is spent on these activities? • How frequently? • At what times of the year? • Is this information available? Who else could benefit from this kind of information?	activity profiles, women, men, youth, children, disabled, widows, widowers, orphans, households or people with chronic illnesses, etc. crops, animals, forests and fish daily activity clocks, seasonal calendars, activity profiles, farming system diagrams	1.3 1.4 2.1 2.2 2.3 2.4 3.2 3.3 Toolbox 3.4
Who has which resources? • What resources do women have access to? • What resources do men have access to? • At what times of the year? • How are these resources used by women? By men? By other groups? Who benefits? • How do they spend their money? • Who controls the resources and their use? What resources do women and men and others have decision-making power over? • Is this information available? Who else could benefit from this kind of information?	Land, water, forestry, crops, fish, livestock, knowledge, time, access and control, resource maps, resource ranking, resource matrix, seasonal calendars, benefits analysis, sources and use of money, income and expenditure matrices	1.2 2.3 2.4 Ch. 3 Toolbox Annex F
Needs and priorities • What are the needs of women and men farmers? • What are the needs of other groups of farmers (old, young, HIV/AIDS-affected households etc.)? • What are their priorities? • What extension support do they need?	Access and ownership, knowledge, advice, services pair-wise ranking, flow diagrams, action plans, stakeholder analysis.	Ch. 3 Toolbox Annex F
Vulnerable groups • Are there groups that are particularly vulnerable (child-/youth-headed households, HIV/AIDS-affected families, people with disabilities, especially poor households, children- or grandparent-headed households, etc.)? • What activities do they typically engage in? • What are their special constraints? • What resources do they have? • What are their particular needs and priorities? • How can extension services play a part in this? • Who else should know about this?	Participation, gender and disadvantaged groups, reaching all groups, sickness/health, information sharing, collaboration, stakeholder analysis, action plans, SWOT analysis, livelihood analysis	1.1 1.3 2.2 2.3 2.4 3.2 1.3 Toolbox Annex D Annex F

Annex F: Checklist for HIV/AIDS in subsistence agriculture[21]

Use the checklist to assess vulnerability to the spread and impact of HIV/AIDS in the area you work. Consider whether any of the responses could be relevant to use in your work.

Vulnerability to spread of HIV	**Vulnerability to impact**
o Multiple sexual partners o Migration for wage work o High alcohol consumption o Proximity to transport or trading centres o Low status and limited economic independence of women o Physically damaging sexual practises o Widespread exchange of cash or favours for sexual services	o Dry climate o Limited range of crops o Marked labour peaks in the agricultural cycle o Labour intensive processes o Absence of labour exchange between households o Limited substitutability between existing labour-intensive and less labour-demanding crops o Food surpluses already low o Limited opportunities for off-farm income o Insecure land tenure

Responses

- o Classify farming systems and households in terms of potential vulnerability to labour shortages caused by increased illness and death
- o Explore low-input and labour-economising crop varieties and how this could be grown by widows, widowers, youth or people with ill health
- o Explore labour-economising cultivation practises, e.g. inter-cropping, and labour-saving technologies, e.g. hand tillers, draught animals, and assess their appropriateness for women, men, elderly, youth and people with weak health
- o Encourage labour exchanges between households
- o Explore ways of reducing women's work burden (for example labour-saving methods of food preparation, water and/or fuel collection)
- o Explore ways of reducing post-harvest losses
- o Introduce and improve poultry and small stock appropriate to local culture to improve diets
- o Use paddocks for larger stock as a way of economising on labour used in herding
- o Ensure that orphaned children receive adequate education in local farming knowledge and techniques
- o Be informed and share knowledge on land tenure arrangements to protect the user property and inheritance rights of widows and orphaned children
- o Explore opportunities for income generation activities or formation of savings and credit groups that could support HIV/AIDS affected households
- o Explore linkages with organisations working with home-based care, support to HIV/AIDS affected households and individuals and/or anti-retroviral drugs

[21] This checklist has been adapted from Barnett, 1996.

Annex G: Case study example[22]

A real-life situation can be presented as a case study, and be used as a tool to develop skills, discuss issues or find solutions to specific problems. For example, case study exercises can help to identify constraints to and opportunities for better management of household resources.

Guiding questions should be developed and/or adjusted according to who will be discussing the case and what the objectives of the discussion are. Remember that images can help the discussion, but they may also create biases or ready answers.

The Kantono case is used as an example here. We have used this case study quite a lot in training workshops and it gives people the opportunity to discuss and understand the socio-cultural and economic effects of HIV/AIDS on some of the most vulnerable members of rural households (women and children in particular).

How to use this tool

1. Invite the participants to divide into small groups of five to six people.
2. Give each participant a copy of the case study and ask them to read it quietly for ten or 15 minutes. If you are working with communities where literacy levels are not high, the case study can be made into a role play. The questions can be given to the groups orally afterwards, or the whole issue can be discussed in a plenary.
3. Ask participants to discuss the questions that are at the end of the text in their group and to come up with answers that a “spokesperson” from the group will share with the overall group. It is a good idea to have people write their answers on a large sheet of paper.
4. When each group has presented its answers, the issues should be summarized.
5. Remember to take into account the socio-cultural setting of the community before forming your groups (i.e. ask whether it would be better to have women work in one group and men in another in order to discuss the issues freely, or can this be done in one group of both men and women).

People are usually very touched by the Kantono story; many male participants have reacted by saying that they were going to call a family meeting to tell all their relatives what they wanted their wives to inherit in the event of their deaths – in other words, the men wanted to make sure that their wives inherited their land and houses.

Another issue that is often raised during this exercise is that of civil versus customary law. If it comes up let people discuss what they understand by civil and customary law and ask them to give local examples. It is also useful to get people to think about ways of sharing information on the law with community groups; if there is national legislation that protects women’s and children’s property rights and inheritance this should be shared, as should a list of organizations and NGOs that deal with these issues at the local or national level.

[22] The Kantono case study, including illustration and questions for discussion, is reproduced with the permission of Household Agriculture Support Programme (HASP), Uganda (HASP, 2002).

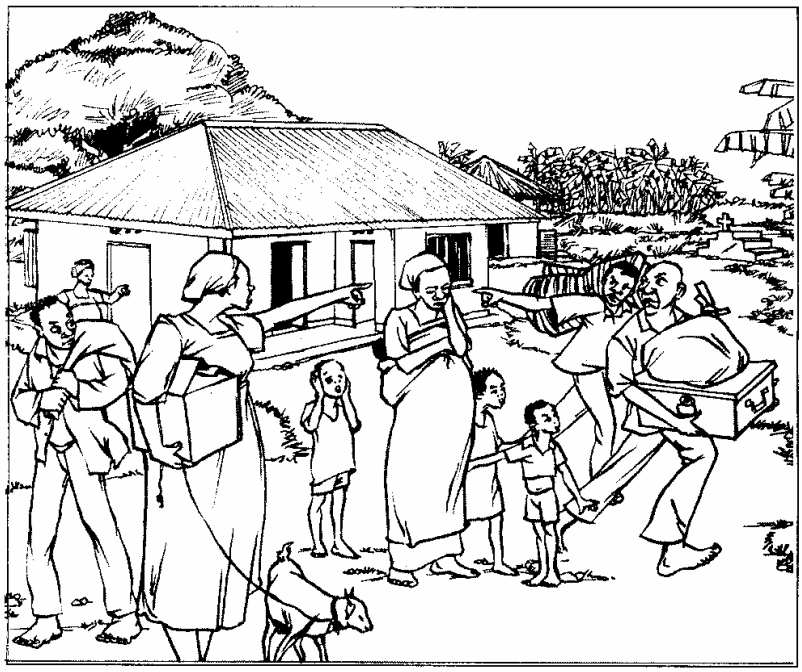
The Kantono case

Kantono was a prosperous farmer in Naboa village, Pallisa, Uganda. He owned chunks of land on which he grew a variety of crops and kept hundreds of cattle, sheep and goats. He had a large family to support, most of whom were relatives that could not maintain themselves. The family however, provided the labour that his farm required.

In 1998, Kantono's health started deteriorating seriously. He was sickly, very weak and could no longer supervise work on his farm. His relatives blamed it all on his wife Balike, whom they accused of bewitching him to steal their clan's wealth. Despite all the pressure imposed on her by her husband's relatives, Balike remained committed to her 30-year old marriage, which had yielded thirteen children and seven grandchildren.

After some persuasion, Kantono accepted to visit Pallisa Hospital where he was diagnosed with HIV, the virus that causes AIDS, locally known as *O'silimu.* He calmly accepted his fate but his relatives still blamed Balike for being a *Malaya* (prostitute) who had brought the disease into the home. Kantono's health worsened and everything in the once well-to-do home fell to ruin. The crop harvest declined and disaster loomed around the home.

Kantono died at the beginning of 2000 and no sooner had his body been lowered into the ground than his relatives, who had come from various parts of Pallisa, started wrangling over the property he had left behind. Balinke watched the scenes as they unfolded until Kantono was buried.



Questions for discussion:

1. What is the Kantono case all about?
2. What factors may explain the decline in farm productivity in this case-study?
3. Why do you think Balike was treated in this manner by Kantonos relatives?
4. What future lies for the following after Kantono's death:
   a. Balike? b) Kantono's thirteen children? c) Kantono's farm?
5. What lessons do we draw from this case-study?

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PART II: TOOLBOX

INTRODUCTION

This toolbox contains some SEAGA field-level tools that should be useful for extension workers to analyse and discuss with men and women in rural households what resources they have and how they use them. The tools can help highlight key issues as illustrated in the table below. Please note that these are only meant as suggestions – there are other tools that may also be useful, depending on the context and the scope of work. The **SEAGA field handbook** has a more extensive collection of gender sensitive participatory rural appraisal tools.

The important thing to remember is that the tools are meant to support a participatory approach to development and so give weight to the role that rural women and men of all ages play in rural development. The tools are put forward as a way for extension workers to encourage participatory approaches to decision-making in the use, distribution and control of resources.

Key SEAGA questions for households and resources	No.	Tool name
What are the most important resources for women and men (in different socio-economic groups) and how do they value them?	1	Village resource map
	2	Resource ranking
What resources do men and women in different socio-economic groups use, and who controls them? Who benefits from them?	3	Resource matrix (use, control and benefits)
How do community members define "wealth" and "poverty? Who are the most disadvantaged groups? Do HIV/AIDS and/or other chronic diseases have an impact on the community or some of its households?	4	Economic/health ranking
Within a household, what activities do men, women, children, hired labourers, etc. carry out? How do they use their time, and how is the work divided among the days and seasons? What is the best time to schedule training or other extension services?	5	Activity profile (daily activity clock, seasonal calendars and matrix)
What are the main sources of income for different household members? What are the main items of expenditure? What services do they pay for or are they willing/able to pay for?	6	Sources and use of money
Who are the main stakeholders of extension services? Who are the other service providers, and what services do they provide?	7	Stakeholder analysis (Venn diagram and institutional profiles)
What are the priority problems of rural men and women and relevant socio-economic groups?	8	Pair-wise ranking
	9	Problem analysis chart
Which activities can realistically be implemented? What roles can community members, extension services and other local service providers and organizations play? What do they have to invest in planned activities	10	Community action plan

The information gathered by using these tools can provide a better understanding of extension clients, available resources and resource management, as well as the

needs and priorities of different households and their members. It can also be used to identify how rural people can become more involved in extension activities, and it can help to ensure equal participation by men and women and different socio-economic groups.

Note: Please see other SEAGA handbooks and guides for further tools or key questions for specific technical areas such as livestock and irrigation. You can obtain copies of these from FAO's Gender and Population Division.

Before using the tools within a community, it is important to consider the following:

- Make sure to ask yourself the following questions:
  - Am I clear about what I am trying to do in the community?
  - Is the community clear about what I am trying to do?
  - Do I risk creating false expectations?
  - How can I avoid doing so?
  -
- Be ready to explain in easily understandable ways the exercise you want to use with the community.
- Decide how and who should facilitate an exercise and who will take notes. Avoid repetition of questions if several of the tools are used.
- Pay particular attention to households with chronically ill members if you are working in an area where HIV/AIDS is/could be a problem, but be careful not to increase their level of stigmatization by separating them too much from the other community members. In other words, be sensitive to people's needs and the social/cultural context in which you are working.
- Be clear about group formation for the different exercises.
- Discuss and share the results of group work in plenary. This is very important if you are to help contribute to an atmosphere of openness and transparency.
- Allow at least one and a half to two hours for each of the exercises.

If you work in an area where chronic diseases (e.g. HIV/AIDS) are a problem, you could consider having a separate group to represent the situation of affected households (consisting either of members from such households or of key informants who would know their situation very well). This must be done with extreme caution to avoid creating stigma. Rather than bluntly asking HIV/AIDS-infected or -affected households to form separate groups, it is advisable to split groups according to other criteria. Vulnerable or affected groups can be identified through economic or health ranking, and can be categorized by, for example household head (young female-headed households, grandparent- or youth-headed households, or households taking care of chronically ill family members or orphans).

The materials needed for most of these exercises are flip chart paper, markers and masking tape. Soft ground and local materials such as sticks and pebbles can also be used if preferred. Pre-prepared matrices or formats can be useful for some exercises (e.g. tools 7 and 8).

When you are planning your field visit, it might be useful to take a second look at **Section 3.3** in the first part of this guide (Tips for conducting socio-economic and gender analysis).

TOOL 1 – VILLAGE RESOURCE MAP

Relevance for extension and household resource management: Resource mapping is a tool that can help community members and facilitators/extension workers learn about a community's resource base.

Use: The tool helps us to understand which resources are available and how people see their resources. Focusing on some resources or relating these resources to a particular topic during the mapping exercise could avoid overloading the map with information. You could ask which *natural* resources (such as trees, forests, crops, land, water, fish ponds, etc.) are the most important for household food security and which physical resources (such as health clinics, schools, kindergartens, roads, bus stops, buildings or meeting places) are the most important for efficient time use. Important village resources could be marked by arrows to indicate distance. Consider whether the human resources (e.g. the numbers of people of different ages and genders in each household) should be on the map or should be included in accompanying notes. Social resources such as family networks and membership can be included on this map, but to focus more specifically on human and social resources, it could be useful to develop a separate social map (■ FH Social map).

In order to get an idea of changes in natural resources, older community members could be asked to draw a map of the area as it was 20 or 40 years ago. This map could be compared with the current map, and discussion should then focus on the main differences and causes for change, e.g. soil degradation, land distribution, inheritance and ownership, changes in access to and control over resources. Maps can also be used to show conflicts resulting from resource use.

If you separate male and female groups, it will be simple to determine if/how men and women use and value different resources. Groups can also be split according to age or other socio-economic characteristics. The village resource map is a good tool to begin with because it is an easy exercise that initiates dialogue among community members and facilitators.

Step by step

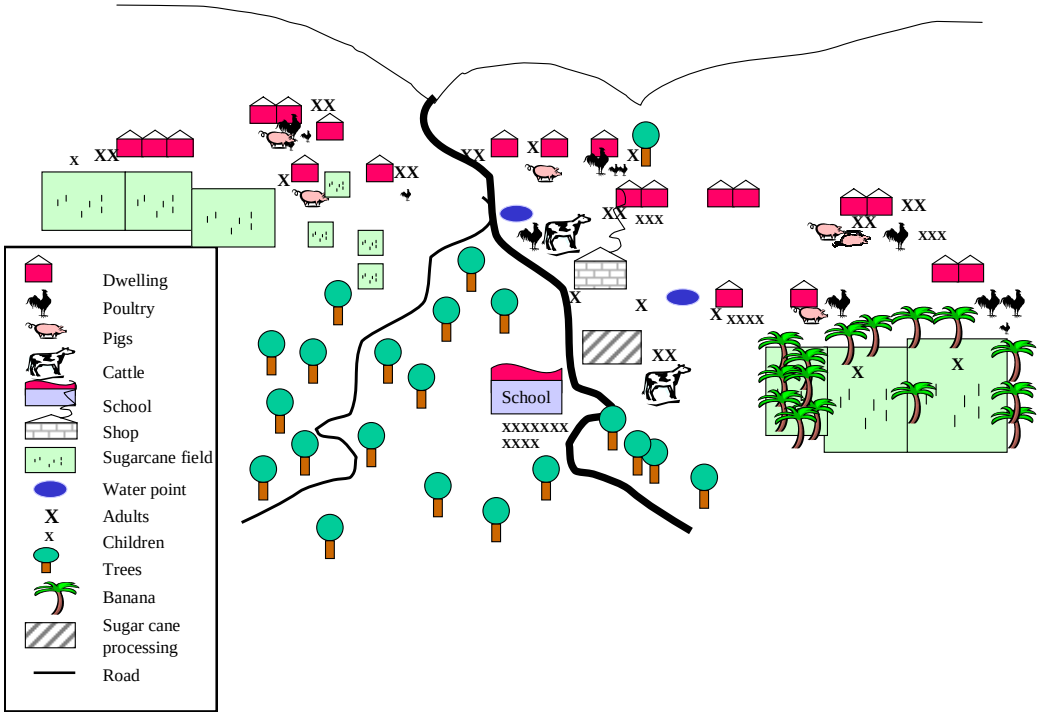
1. Explain the purpose of the exercise, and split into groups as appropriate (e.g. separate male and female groups).
2. Start by having a volunteer from the community draw or place an item to represent a landmark in the village. (When preparing to use this tool, it is also important to consider the community you will be working with and how literate the members are. This will influence what methods you will use in order to share the tool(s) with them.
3. Ask the participants to draw the village boundaries.
4. Ask the participants to draw important resources on the map.
5. When they have finished, ask the group if they feel that anything is missing.
6. When the map is completed, ask the participants to describe it.

The following are examples of questions to ask during facilitation:

- Which resources are most important for income? Which are most important for household food security?

- Who decides which households get to use which resources, and what do they base their decisions on?
- Does the village have common property? If so, who decides on its use and distribution?
- Are the access rights to resources different for men and women, and for male- and female-headed households?
- Are any of the resources especially important for households headed by youth or the elderly? Households with chronically ill members or households affected by HIV/AIDS (refer to Annex F)?

Resource map developed by mixed group during village workshop on Santiago island, Cape Verde 2003



TOOL 2 – RESOURCE RANKING

Relevance for extension and household resource management: This is a useful tool for learning about how different groups use and value the resources available.

Use: Resource ranking provides a good basis for discussing the different uses of resources as well as how they are valued differently by women and men and various groups. The exercise can be used on its own or as a follow-up to the village resource map exercise. Female and male groups will often rank the resources differently.

Step by step:

1. Brainstorm in the plenary to get a list of resources that are important for the village.
2. Split into female and male (or other relevant) groups.
3. Ask the participants to rank the resources according to their importance.
4. Participants present the ranking in plenary.
5. The facilitator can present a summary and facilitate a discussion about the differences in ranking.

The following example from Wakiso district, Uganda (2003) shows the ranking of crops. There were three groups of women and three of men. Participants were asked to give points of 5, 4, 3, 2 or 1 to the crops according to their importance for the household (5 points were given to the most important resource, 4 to the second most important, etc.). No two crops should be given the same score. At the end of the exercise, if two or three crops/resources have the same number of points then the groups have to rank them again and say which one is the most important compared with the others, the idea being the community comes up with a list of prioritized problems to deal with.

Resource	Group 1 Women	Group 2 Women	Group 3 Women	**Women total**		Group 4 Men	Group 5 Men	Group 6 Men	**Men total**	
				Points	**Rank**				Points	**Rank**
Coffee	-	-	3	3	6	5	-	4	9	2
Bananas	5	5	5	15	1	4	5	5	14	1
Beans	1	1	2	4	5	3	1	2	6	3
Maize	4	-	4	8	2	2	3	0	5	4
Sweet potato	3	3	1	7	3	-	2	-	2	7
Cassava	2	4	-	6	4	1	-	-	1	8
Yams	-	2	-	2	7	-	-	-	-	9
Passion fruit	-	-	-	-	8	-	4	-	4	6

People tend to give points according to their own tasks and responsibilities: men often give high points to cash crops, while women give more importance to the main staple crops. In this example, men ranked coffee as the second most important, while women ranked this crop only as the sixth (such differences are highlighted in the table). Similarily, women ranked sweet potatoes as number three, while the men's groups ranked this crop much lower.

The following are examples of questions to ask during facilitation:

- What resources are most important for you? Why? (As the facilitator you have to make sure that people discuss resources that are in their communities and not things that might be far beyond their reach.)
- What types of resources are most easily available? In shortage?
- Why have the different groups ranked the resources differently?
- Which resources are most important for the poorest households? For female-headed households? For grandparent- or children-headed households? For households with chronically sick members?
- Who has the responsibility for work related to the various resources (e.g. land preparation, planting, weeding, minding, harvesting, post-harvest activities such as food preparation, storage or vending).

The last question should allow you to move on to discuss the division of labour and access to, use of and control over resources (see Tool 3: Resource matrix).

TOOL 3 – RESOURCE MATRIX

Relevance for extension and household resource management: Understanding who uses and controls the use of different resources is essential when planning extension services. Using gender analysis can improve our understanding of who in the household has the overall decision-making power over resource allocation and who has access to and control over these resources. This will help build an understanding of who is likely to lose and who is likely to gain from a given development or extension intervention.

Use: The resource matrix enables us to learn about constraints and opportunities regarding the use of and control over resources. It can also show the variation among different socio-economic groups. The resources can be grouped according to purpose, e.g. according to whether they are natural, human, socio-cultural or other resources. It is also possible to add more columns, for instance to get information on legal ownership or other socio-economic groups (e.g. the elderly and youth). Another tool that can facilitate discussions about resource use and control are the Resource picture cards (■ SEAGA Field-level handbook).

Step by step:

1. Use the list of resources from the ranking exercise (tool 2) or brainstorm in the plenary to get a list of resources that are important for the village.
2. Split into female and male (or other relevant) groups.
3. Ask the participants to assign ticks or stones to each or the resources according to level or access, control or other variable (the more ticks or stones, the higher level of access etc.)
4. Participants or facilitator can present the results in plenary, and facilitate a discussion about the differences in access and control over the various resources.

The following are examples of questions to ask while facilitating:

- Which resources do women and men (and the young and the old) use? Are there differences in their use according to gender, age, social group? What about disadvantaged groups or other relevant socio-economic groups?
- Who decides about the use of each of these resources?
- Who has ownership over the resources (the right to sell or give them away)?
- What are the main differences between men and women when it comes to the type of resources they use, control and have ownership of?
- Among the women and men of different socio-economic groups, who are the resource-rich? Who are the resource-poor?
- What are the linkages between women's labour and their use and control of resources? What about men? Other relevant groups?
- How will the death of a male (or female) adult in the household change the access, control and ownership rights over resources, including land, of the remaining spouse? What happens to children in a household if both parents die?

- Which extension or other services can support rural men and women in managing resources and improving their livelihoods? What about: i) disadvantaged groups; ii); different socio-economic groups; iii)? grandparent- or children-headed households? households taking care of orphans or sick relatives?

The following table provides an example of resource access and control from Wakiso district, Uganda (2003). The number of ticks indicate the level of access/control. The more ticks, the higher the level of access and control.

RESOURCE	Access to (use)		Control over (decide use)	
	Women	**Men**	**Women**	**Men**
Vegetables				
Seeds	√	√	√	√
Pump	-	√	-	√√
Jerry cans for water	√	√	√	-
Pesticides	-	√	-	√√
Water	√	√	√	√
Market	-	√√	-	√√
Money	-	√	-	√√√
Domestic	√	√	√	√
Money	-	√	-	√√
Building materials	-	√	-	√√
Water	√	√	√	-
Hired labour	√	√√	-	√√
Other				

TOOL 4 - ECONOMIC/HEALTH RANKING

Relevance for extension and household resource management: Economic ranking is a tool that can help us identify disadvantaged groups and improve our understanding of the inequalities within a community. Health ranking is the use of this tool with a health approach.

Use: The tool provides learning about how economic status (or health) and inequalities are perceived by community members, and can help extension workers and facilitators to identify poor and disadvantaged households. Be aware that the information generated is sensitive. Poor or sick people are often stigmatized, and many people will not appreciate being classified as poor or sick. Better off people may avoid classifying themselves as well off in case doing so could exclude them from future assistance. The following are examples of the issues that could be of relevance in connection to wealth ranking.

Issue	Less poor	Middle poor	Poor	Very poor
Crop production, food security	Produce large surplus from crop production, most of which is marketed	Produce small surplus from crop production. Food self-sufficient all year	Food self-sufficient for less than six months a year. Meet food needs in deficit months by doing casual work	Food-insecure for many months of the year
Tool ownership	Own several ploughs, ox carts	Own a range of hand tools and plough	Own a few hand tools	Do not own assets (hoes or chicken)
Livestock	Own draught animals, cattle, goats, chicken, pigs	Many have a few cattle. Own goats, chickens and pigs	Own a few small animals (goats, chickens)	Own very little or no livestock
Sources of household income	Diverse sources (on- and off-farm)	Participate in small-scale enterprises to meet cash needs	Engage in petty trading (buying/ selling household items, second-hand clothes)	Depend on handouts, food for work, begging
Meals	Eat several meals a day: breakfast, mid-morning, lunch, mid-afternoon, supper	Eat three meals a day: breakfast, lunch and supper	Eat supper only	Eat very irregularly
School attendance	Send all children to school	Children attend school to at least upper primary	Children attend lower primary but have no uniform	Children do not go to school
Use of extension services	Contact extension service when seeking information	Have regular contact with extension service and community health workers	Have irregular contact	Have little or no contact with services in community

Step by step (economic ranking):

1. Get a list of all households in the village (names).
2. Select key informants who know all the households and their members.

3. Request key informants to list their criteria for well-being in the community (such as land, assets, household composition, ability to send children to school or buy medicine), and have them note this in their own way in the matrix.
4. Fill in information about criteria, ask the key informants to categorize households into different groups (poorest, poor, etc.), and fill in number of households that fit each criterion.
5. Ask key informants whether there are any relationships among the different groups? What do the poor do for the rich? What do the rich do for the poor?
6. Note how many female-headed households are in the community, as well as the category within which the majority fall. If possible, note how many of the households have a chronically sick member, and in which category they fall.
7. Note other main categories as appropriate (grandparent-headed, children-headed etc.) to the community.
8. Ask key informants about the factors that enable people to move out of poverty or go back to poverty (movements between socio-economic groups).

ECONOMIC RANKING BASED ON LAND OWNERSHIP CRITERION (Ugandan village – 32 households)			
Poorest	**Poor**	**Rich**	**Richest**
Have no land, typically	Have land without title (1–3 acres)	Have land with title (5–10 acres)	Have land with land title (10+ acres)
8 households	15 households	7 households	2 households

The following are examples of questions to ask during facilitation:

- What are the local definitions of rich and poor?
- What factors characterize the most disadvantaged households and/or household members? Who would typically be the head of household in each of the different categories (sex and age)?
- Which socio-economic groups exist in the community, and what characterizes the different groups?

The health ranking classifies households into health categories and aims at obtaining an overview of: i) which households are suffering from bad health (disadvantaged groups); ii) how health is defined; and iii) how widespread this problem is for the community.

For health ranking, adjust the criteria, categories and questions in order to address health issues. Let the key informants define the health categories and definitions. The following is an example of a matrix for health ranking.

HEALTH RANKING			
Weakest health	**Weak health**	**Good health**	**Very good health**
Chronic illness Too weak to perform x, y, z	Often sick Carry out heavy work only when not sick	Seldom sick	Almost never sick Strong
Number of households in this category	No. households in this category	No. of households in this category	No. of households in this category

The following are examples of questions to ask during facilitation:

- What are the main categories of health status for people in the community (e.g. weakest, normal, best, or more)? How do men and women in the community define health and sickness?
- What characterizes the people with weakest health in the community (young, old, men, women, poor, etc.)?
- What are the main sicknesses among households? Does the answer to this vary according to household category or is similar for all categories? Which sicknesses create the most serious problems for the households?
- Which households have chronically ill household members or have recently lost an adult owing to sickness? (Who are the current heads of household by sex and age?)
- How do the households with weakest health cope? Do the households with stronger health help the ones with weaker health? How?
- How can the extension services assist the households in different categories to improve their livelihoods and cope with weak health?

The importance of approaching this issue with caution cannot be overstated. Avoid singling out individuals or groups in ways that may stigmatize them.

TOOL 5 – ACTIVITY PROFILE

Relevance for extension and household resource management: The activity profile is used to analyse gender-based divisions of labour, i.e. who does what, where and when. The information helps all those concerned to understand how work is divided among household members and can also be used to plan extension activities (what time of the day or year the different household members are available for training, need advice, etc.).

Use: The activity profile consists of three parts: i) daily activity clocks illustrate the different kinds of activities carried out during an average day by men, women, children, etc.; ii) seasonal calendars show how work varies by season; and iii) division-of-labour matrices identify the activities carried out by different household members – women, men, boys, girls and/or other subgroups. The tools can also specify the time it takes to carry out each of the activities.

A. DAILY ACTIVITY CLOCK

This tool can be used for different groups of people, e.g. men, women, old women, young men, rich and poor. Comparisons among daily activity clocks provide learning about time use, leisure time and work.

Step by step:

1. Organize separate focus groups of women and men or other relevant groups.
2. Explain that you want to learn about what participants do in a typical day.
3. Ask each of the groups to produce its own clock, e.g. by focusing on what the group members did the previous day. Explain that activities that are carried out at the same time (such as child care and cooking) can be noted within the same space.
4. Plot each activity on a circular pie chart, in a matrix or listed along a time line (as in the following example), on paper or on soft ground. The choice of format (circular, matrix or list) should reflect the group's preference and way of understanding the day's chronological order. If a circular format is adapted, it can either be filled out by a circle of 24 hours or by two circles of 12 hours each.
5. Ask questions about the activities when the drawing is finished.
6. Ask the participants whether the clock would be different for other seasons, and if so ask the participants to draw new clocks to show a typical day in another season.

ACTIVITIES IN THE DRY SEASON

Older women	Make fire and tea	Clean house	Chase goats out for grazing	Milk cattle		Chase cattle out to graze		Prepare lunch	Washing, sewing, building or repairing house			Corral goats		Enjoy radio		Sleep
TIME	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21.....5
Older men	Make fire and tea	Milk cows. Look after sheep/ goats	Work in the field, make poles and droppers to sell				Lunch and rest			Work in the field, make poles and droppers		Corral goats, sheep and calves. Milking. Collect fuelwood		Assist preparing supper	Visit friends	Sleep

Source: Information obtained from FAO project GCP/INT/602/NOR in Namibia, 1995.

The following are examples of questions to ask after the clocks have been completed:

- How is the time of each person or group divided? How much time is spent on productive activities? Domestic activities? Community activities? Leisure? Sleep? How does this vary by season?
- How do women's and men's clocks compare? How to the clocks from different socio-economic groups compare? Households with chronically ill members?
- Of all the clocks, who are the busiest?
- Which time of the day/year is the best for talking about extension needs or providing advice to men? Women? Groups with differing schedules or needs?

B. SEASONAL CALENDAR

Use: Seasonal calendars can help explore changes in livelihood systems over the period of a year. They can be used to study how much people work at different times of the year (in general, for specific tasks or specific crops, etc) or how income changes throughout the year. They can also be used to show seasonality (e.g. for food availability or rainfall). An activity profile, which indicates more precisely how much time women and men spend on the different tasks, could be added to the seasonal calendar. This could be done by adding extra columns to the calendar table.

Remember to include activities on smaller plots/home gardens and off-farm activities such as mushroom gathering, charcoal burning, beer brewing and fuelwood collection.

Step by step:

1. Work with the same focus groups that produced the daily activity clocks.
2. Explain that this time you want to learn about what people do during a year.
3. Draw a long line and explain that it represents a year.
4. Ask participants how they divide the year (seasons, months, etc.) and have them mark this on the line. Be aware that people may want to start with their planting season and not necessarily with the first month of the year. Encourage people to use the tool in a way that is comfortable for them and not in a way that is comfortable for you!
5. It is easiest to start the calendar by asking about rainfall patterns: ask the participants to put stones or draw a dot under each month to represent relative amount of rainfall (the more stones or dots, the more rain).
6. When it is finished, draw another line under it and ask about another division such as labour for agriculture, expenditure, income, availability of different resources, etc.
7. Make sure that all calendars are aligned with the first one, and that participants draw a sign on one end of the calendar to indicate the topic.
8. Repeat the process until all the areas of interest have been covered.

Activity	**Month**											
	O	**N**	**D**	**J**	**F**	**M**	**A**	**M**	**J**	**J**	**A**	**S**
Rainy season												
Stumping												
Ploughing												
Planting												
Weeding												
Harvesting												
Constructing granary/storage												
Threshing and bagging												
Selling												

Source: FAO (2004)

The following are examples of questions to ask after the calendar has been completed:

- How do women's calendars compare with men's? How do the calendars of different groups compare? What are the busiest periods for different groups/individuals? Are there shortages of labour at times?
- What are the best times of year to hold trainings, field demonstrations and other extension activities that would otherwise take time from household members? Are these times different for men and women? The poor? Better off? Young? Old, etc.?
- How do income and expenditure vary over the year? Are there periods of no income? Are there periods of great expense? How do people manage in these periods?
- How does access to resources (water, forests, fish, wildlife, vegetables, etc.) vary over the year? How do households cope in periods of scarcity?
- Are there certain periods of the year when extension services are particularly needed? What kinds of services?

C. ACTIVITY MATRIX

Use: Activity matrices provide a good overview of who does what in a community or household. They can also help extension workers to target their services. Activity matrices can be divided into subgroups according to the purpose of the exercise, e.g. compare the division of labour between young and old, men and women; look at dependence on hired labour; look at a specific activity (e.g. dairying, grazing, banana harvesting, etc.). Matrices can also show the time used and the location for each activity.

Step by step:

1. Continue with the same groups that produced the daily activity clocks.
2. Explain that this time the purpose is to look into how people divide tasks.
3. Draw a matrix that is appropriate for the groups about which you would like more information.
4. Brainstorm with the group about the tasks they carry out (or use the tasks that came up during the activity clock), and list them on the table.
5. Ask participants to identify who does what in the table.
6. Many stones, or a large **X,** can be used to signify that the group does a lot of work on a particular task, while few stones or a small **x** can illustrate some work/responsibility.
7. Ask questions if some of the tasks mentioned in the activity clock are left out.

Activities can be grouped into productive and reproductive tasks, but headers should be omitted in order to avoid stirring up prejudice (e.g. that reproductive tasks are always carried out by women only).

The following are examples of questions to ask during facilitation:

- What are the main activities carried out by women and men separately? Women and men jointly? How do children contribute?
- For what activities is hired labour used? Which households use hired labour (female-headed, the better-off, households without oxen)? Who is hired?
- How much time do women and men devote to production activities, reproductive activities and community management responsibilities?
- How do the activity profiles from different socio-economic groups compare? What about households taking care of sick members or orphans?
- Which activities and resources contribute most to meeting the basic needs of the household?

Example activity matrix

Activity	**AM**	**AF**	**B**	**G**	**HM**	**HW**	**Time**	**Where**
- Land clearing - Ploughing - Grazing livestock - Milking - Other								
- Taking care of the sick - Cooking - Child care - Other								
Community tasks, e.g. - Member– village committee - Mending roads - Other								
AM = adult men, AF = adult women, B = boys, G = girls, HM = hired men, HW = hired women								

TOOL 6 – SOURCES AND USE OF MONEY[23]

Relevance for extension and household resource management: This tool can help to identify the main sources of income and expenditure for households and individual household members.

Use: It can also be used for other relevant groups. The template can be adopted to different situations, and to reflect the views of more than two groups.

Step by step:

1. Split participants into separate groups for men and women.
2. Ask each of the groups to identify its own main sources of money and to rank the five most important items in order of importance.
3. Ask the group members to list what they think are the main sources of money for the opposite sex (or other group) and to rank the five most important items in order of importance.
4. Make (or if possible ask the groups to make) notes that can be presented in plenary.
5. Ask the group members to list what they spend money on and to rank the five items that consume the most expenditure in order of expenditure.
6. Ask the group members to list what they perceive as the main expenditure for the opposite sex (or other group) and to rank the five items that consume the most expenditure in order of expenditure.
7. Make (or ask the groups to make) notes that can be presented in plenary.
8. Ask the groups to reflect on any patterns that may emerge from the exercise and to present a summary of their discussions in plenary.

The following are examples of questions to ask while facilitating:

- What are the main sources of cash income for women and men? And what are the main areas of expenditure?
- On which activities/priorities do women spend their cash income most and why?
- On which activities/priorities do men spend their cash income most and why?
- What about grandparent- or children-headed households or households with chronically ill members?

[23] The tool is adapted from IFAD. 2002. *A manual for gender-focused diagnostic studies.* Rome.

Example of ranking the main items of expenditure[24]

Main items of expenditure (according to women's group)	
Women's expenditure	**Men's expenditure**
• Food • School fees • Clothes • Medical expenses • Kitchen utensils and household items	• Marrying a new wife/girlfriends • Cattle, fertilizer and food • Seed and farm implements • School fees • Beer

The first item listed indicates the highest priority. If more than one item is listed on a line it indicates that those items are ranked equally.

Main items of expenditure (according to men's group)	
Women's expenditure	**Men's expenditure**
• Kitchen utensils • Clothes • Food • School fees, household items, small livestock	• Fertilizer • Clothes, school fees • Farm implements • Medical expenses • Household items

[24] This example is based on information collected from a plateau system in a southern province of Zambia during an IFAD Gender Strengthening Programme (IFAD, 2002).

TOOL 7 – STAKEHOLDER ANALYSIS

Relevance for extension and household resource management: The Venn diagram is a tool for learning about local groups, institutions and service providers, as well as their relationships with rural men and women and among themselves. Institutional profiles help us to learn more about the nature of the institutions identified in the Venn diagrams.

A. VENN DIAGRAMS

Venn diagrams are useful for clarifying decision-making roles and identifying potential collaboration or conflicts among different socio-economic groups and service providers. The tool provides insight into the value that rural men and women attach to local institutions, and can be used to find out who participates in local organizations and group activities. It is also helpful for identifying linkages between local institutions and those at the intermediate- and macro-levels, as well as the roles that each play (or can play) in supporting rural people to strengthen their livelihoods. It is recommended to facilitate the exercise with separate groups of women and men, and if possible also with groups of different wealth and/or health status to see the differences among these groups. It may be useful to prepare paper circles in different sizes and colours ahead of the discussions (or you can use soft ground and local materials).

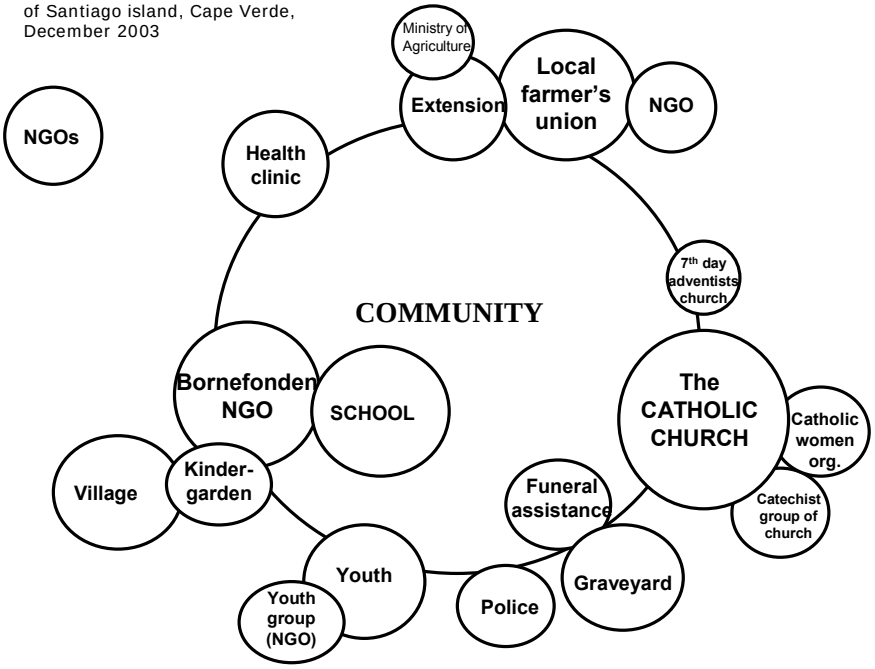
Step by step:

1. Organize separate focus groups for men and women (and other divisions as appropriate).
2. Ask participants to list the local groups and organizations that are important to them (they can also use symbols to represent groups).
3. Continue by asking which outside organizations are important to them.
4. Ask participants to decide whether each organization deserves a small, medium or large circle (to represent its relative importance). Allow time for discussions, and make a note if there are clear divisions in opinions between groups.
5. The groups then write a name (or a symbol) for each organization on the circles as indicated.
6. Ask which organizations have overlapping membership or close collaboration. The circles should be placed as follows:
   a. Separate circles mean no contact.
   b. Touching circles mean that information passes between organizations.
   c. A small overlap between circles means that there is some cooperation in decision-making.
   d. A large overlap between circles means that there is a lot of cooperation in decision-making.
7. Ask the participants to position the circles in relation to each other. Allow time to reach consensus on positioning.
8. Discuss and compare the Venn diagrams produced by the different groups.
9. Consider following up the exercise by developing institutional profiles for the key service providers and organizations identified by the participants.

The following are some questions that can be raised while facilitating:

- Which organizations and groups work with the community?
- Are they organized according to economic, social, environmental or other issues?
- What is the relative importance of the organizations?
- Which groups assist households to overcome key constraints (e.g. related to land, livestock, water, sickness, nutrition, domestic violence, lack of income)? What is their focus and what services do they provide (information, training, projects, credit, other kinds of assistance)?
- What groups are exclusively for women? For men? For youth? Are certain groups excluded from some of the organizations (e.g. men, women, the landless, certain ethnic groups)? If so, which ones and why? What are the implications of non-participation?
- Are there any groups that provide advice on HIV prevention? Or on living with HIV/AIDS? Or on mitigation – are there support groups or programmes for individuals or households affected by HIV/AIDS? Who has/does not have access to such services? How can the extension services link up with these groups?
- What are the linkages between local groups and outside institutions?

The importance of various institutions to their community: perceptions among men and women in a village of Santiago island, Cape Verde, December 2003



B. INSTITUTIONAL PROFILES

These elaborate on the institutions identified in the Venn diagrams. An analytical chart is created for each of the institutions in the community in order to examine what they have accomplished and what they need to foster through development work. If local communities are to implement development activities that they can sustain, special attention must be paid to their capacities.

The following are examples of key questions to ask during facilitation:

- Which are the key organizations/service providers to households in the community? Who participates in these? How? For what reasons?
- Who dominates the leadership/management positions?
- Which institutions are more involved in issues related to access to and control over resources for resource-poor households?
- What are the institutions' strength, weaknesses, opportunities and threats in addressing issues such as use and control of resources, and in dealing with constraints such as pests in agriculture, sick animals, diseases, domestic violence, access to clean water, time-saving technologies, etc.?
- Which are the most important support groups for households with chronically ill household members or households affected by HIV/AIDS? What kind of support is available (inputs, on-farm help, care facilities, reorientation of labour/income-generating activities, etc.)?
- It might also be useful to ask the different groups about which services they are lacking and the level of importance they give to each of these.

The information can be inserted in a matrix according to categories of interest. The following is an example.

Name of group	Purpose (benefits)	Members	Who benefits?	Constraints	Opportunities

TOOL 8 – PAIR-WISE RANKING

Relevance for extension and household resource management: This tool can help us to learn about the most important problems of different community members. It also allows for easy comparison of different people's priorities.

Use: Many people's priority problems are related to the issue of meeting basic needs, while others stem from hopes for the future. Some problems are related specifically to gender issues, such as women's lack of control over key resources, or the gender-based division of labour. Pair-wise ranking highlights how the priority problems of women and men differ, and where they overlap. The priority needs of members of different socio-economic groups can also be revealed.

Before starting, you will need to prepare a blank pair-wise ranking matrix on flip chart paper or a wall. Masking tape, markers and A3 cards will be essential.

Step by step:

1. Organize separate focus groups for women and men.
2. Ask the participants to think about their "problems", making reference to the main constraints to household resource management that they identified earlier.
3. Inform the participants whether the focus should be on constraints that can be addressed by extension services or whether, instead, they are to take a wider approach.
4. Ask them to discuss the issue and to list the six problems (in any order) that are most important to them.
5. List the six problems (preferably with a symbol to illustrate each) on both the vertical and horizontal axes of the prepared matrix, and write each problem on to a separate card.
6. Present two cards (showing two different problems) and ask the participants to choose the more important one. Ask them to explain the reasons for this choice.
7. Record the choice on the prepared matrix.
8. Repeat until all combinations of cards have been presented and decided on.
9. Count the number of times that each problem was given priority, and rank each from first to sixth. If any two problems are given the same position in the ranking, the groups have to rank those two problems again, choosing which is the more important for them. Often, the people facilitating this exercise assume that they know what is most important for the community and take the liberty of ranking the problems themselves. This is not the purpose of this tool. The results must come from the community and must be based on its identification processes and discussions. The tools are not a means unto themselves – they are a way of structuring discussions and problem identification in a participatory way with all members of the community.
10. Summarize by showing the three problems that were selected the most frequently (which are the group's priority problems).
11. Organize a second set of focus groups, this time according to socio-economic group, and repeat the exercise.
12. Allow each of the groups to present its results, and compare and discuss the learning from the exercise in plenary.

The following are examples of questions to ask while facilitating:

- Do men and women identify different problems? Which problems result from the gender division of labour or from unequal access to resources? Which problems do both women and men share?
- What problems are identified by different socio-economic groups? Which problems result from poverty, discrimination or stigmatization? Which problems do all groups share?
- Do some categories of household face particular problems, for instance young female-headed households, youth- or grandparent-headed households or households caring for chronically ill family members or orphans?
- Which problems relate to structural issues and the development context, such as policies, legislation, land rights, payment for services, epidemics?
- Which problems relate to division of labour or constraints in access to and control over such resources as land, water, credit, extension services?
- Are the problems related to one another?
- Was there consensus or disagreement about the ranking of problems in order of importance when the groups were working together? Or when the results of each group were shared in the plenary?

The following is an example of pair-wise ranking (step 1 and 2).

Step 1: Ranking

Problem	**Climate**	**Pests**	**Weeds**	**Costs of inputs**	**Lack of land**	**Lack of irrigation**	**Lack of knowledge**
Climate		Climate	Climate	Costs of inputs	Climate	Climate	Climate
Pests			Pests	Cost of inputs	Lack of land	Lack of irrigation	Pests
Weeds				Cost of inputs	Lack of land	Lack of irrigation	Lack of knowledge
Costs of inputs					Cost of inputs	Cost of inputs	Cost of inputs
Lack of Land						Lack of land	Lack of land
Lack of irrigation							Lack of irrigation
Lack of knowledge							

Source: Wilde, 2001. The example is based on data from Kenya.

Step 2: Summarizing

Count how many times each problem was listed on the matrix (how many times it was ranked higher than the other problem with which it was compared). In this example the result of the ranking was as follows:

1) costs of inputs (ranked highest seven times);
2) climate (ranked highest five times);
3) lack of land (ranked highest four times);
4) lack of irrigation etc.

TOOL 9 – PROBLEM ANALYSIS CHART

Relevance for extension and household resource management: This tool can be helpful for analysing the priority problems of different groups and identifying the areas to be addressed by the community and extension services.

Use: Once the priority problems of all the different groups in a community are identified, the next step is to bring everyone together for further analysis. The problem analysis chart makes it easier to present and discuss problems with the community as a whole. It shows where different people's priorities overlap and where they differ. It also allows for an expanded discussion of the causes of problems, as well as of current coping strategies. We can also learn whether efforts to address a particular problem have already been made, but have failed or not addressed the problem completely. Flow charts could be used prior to the meeting to discuss the various problems and their causes (■ FH Flow chart).

Keep the list short enough to focus on the key issues. The list of problems can be shortened by grouping similar problems together, excluding problems for which there are no solutions, and listing each problem only once, even if it has been identified several times. However, it is important that the facilitators explain what they have put together and left out (and why) in order to ensure that nobody feels that their particular problems have been ignored.

The problem analysis chart also helps a community to look at *opportunities* for development. For this reason it is useful to invite other service providers or organizations (e.g. from agriculture, nutrition and health). Local people know what they need, but may lack information about the options or services that different institutions can offer. Such information is useful for helping people make decisions about their livelihoods.

Step by step:

1. Organize a meeting for the entire community. Make sure that the schedule is convenient for men, women, young, old and all other relevant groups in the community. Be prepared to be flexible to meet their needs and not your own. Invite representatives from relevant support organizations.
2. Introduce the exercise and new participants, and display relevant charts and matrices from past exercises with the groups present. Make sure that you do not raise unrealistic expectations.
3. Present a summary of problems (column 1) and have a member of the group explain which groups identified which problems. Refer to the matrices on the walls for more detailed information. The summary is intended to provide everybody with a good overview of the process and the main problems identified, and should not take much time.
4. Organize group work or a brainstorming session in plenary on the causes and effects of each of the problems.
5. Ask if anyone (community members and outsiders) has anything to add.
6. Ask people to explain how they currently cope with their problems, and write down the coping strategies in the third column.
7. Discuss opportunities for each of the problems (both community members and outsiders can contribute), and list the solutions in the fourth column.

Example of a problem analysis chart

	Problem	Cause of problem	Coping mechanism: how do we live with the problem?	Gender implications	Possible solutions: how can villagers solve the problem?
Women	Hunger	Lack of fertilizer, drought/floods, lack of draught power and labour owing to chronic illness	Grow early maturing crops. Grow crops during winter in flood places		Work for food, barter/sale vegetables, beer.
Men	Hunger	Low soil infertility, lack of labour owing to HIV/AIDS and too much voluntary work e.g. clinic/school construction	Winter crop cultivation in flood places, *Fundikila, m*ushroom/ wild fruits collection, piece work, charcoal burning, *Chitemene, b*eer brewing	Women engage more in beer brewing and much piecework for little money. Men go very far to look for charcoal burning opportunities	Use early-maturing varieties of cassava/ sorghum. Winter cultivation of maize/Irish potato. Avoid multiple sexual partners. Stop sexual cleansing, reduce time spent on voluntary work
Com-munity leaders	Hunger	Poor crop production owing to lack of inputs, droughts/early stopping of rains, crop diseases	Grow small quantities of different types of crops. Winter cultivation near riverbanks. Raise money through income-generating activities: charcoal burning and food for work. Make/sell wine (with tea leaves, sugar and yeast)	Women usually work for food while men work in fields. Female-headed households have to do both. Female-headed households cannot manage some coping measures, e.g. charcoal burning	Use different crops. Increase winter growing of Irish potatoes for eating from September/October when rainfed harvests usually run out. Increase efforts to obtain fertilizer through cooperatives

(Source: FAO, 2004)

The following are examples of questions to ask while facilitating:

- Which priority problems are shared by different groups? Which priority problems are related?
- Did any non-community members suggest any additional causes of problems? What are they?
- What are the current coping strategies? For men? For women? For those with disabilities? For children? For the old? For households with chronically ill members? For households affected by HIV?AIDS? For other groups?
- What opportunities to solve the problems did community members suggest? Men? Women? The poor? What opportunities to solve the problems did non-community members/service providers suggest?
- Which of the solutions can be implemented locally?
- Which solutions can realistically be solved by extension services?
- Which solutions require other types of external assistance? Who can provide such assistance and what needs to be done to receive this?

TOOL 10 – COMMUNITY ACTION PLAN

Relevance for extension and household resource management: This tool can help communities formulate concrete and realistic plans for implementing priority development activities. At the same time it can identify needs for extension and other services.

Use: The action plan builds on the problem analysis chart and discussions, and should focus on the development activities that are most likely to succeed. The plan should give priority to activities that most stakeholders would not object to, and should take the availability of resources into account. The idea is to produce plans that are as realistic and detailed as possible. Participants are split into groups according to their development priorities: men and women who want to address water shortages as a development priority develop a plan; those who want fruit trees do the same, etc.

It is important that facilitators recognize the community's ability to create an action plan, and give input only when requested to do so by the community.

Materials: A prepared chart on flip chart paper (or a wall), masking tape and markers.

Step by step:

1. Groups prepare a best bets chart on flip chart paper. The chart consists of seven columns (see example for column headings).
2. Organize all community participants into focus groups based on shared priorities.
3. Ask participants to discuss and find solutions to the questions listed or raised in the charts. Remind participants to be as realistic, concrete and detailed as possible.
4. Advice participants on the possibilities for outside assistance, but be practical and do not raise unrealistic expectations.

The following are examples of SEAGA questions that can be asked while facilitating:

- Which plans include activities that will directly benefit women, men or both?
- Which action plans include development activities that will directly benefit the most disadvantaged (e.g. the landless)? Or most or all of the community?
- What benefits/costs will the proposed activities imply for households with chronically ill members, or for youth-, grandparent- or young female-headed households?
- Are the time lines, cost estimates and responsibilities described well and clarified in the matrix? What needs to be added or clarified? Do different time lines need to be established for each action and each group?
- What next steps should rural extension workers take in order to facilitate implementation?

Example of a community action plan matrix

Priority problem	Solutions	Activities	Beneficiaries	Who will do it	Costs who/how	Duration/ start
Etc.						

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