

AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT  
 WASHINGTON, D. C. 20523  
**BIBLIOGRAPHIC INPUT SHEET**

FOR AID USE ONLY

1. SUBJECT CLASSIFICATION	A. PRIMARY <b>Social Science</b>
	B. SECONDARY <b>Development Planning</b>

2. TITLE AND SUBTITLE  
**A Seven Country Survey on the Roles of Women in Rural Development**

3. AUTHOR(S)  
**Riegelman, Mary Ann; Moore, Keith M.; Glancy, Dorothy**

4. DOCUMENT DATE <b>December 1974</b>	5. NUMBER OF PAGES <b>288p.</b>	6. ARC NUMBER ARC <b>301.412-R 554</b>
--	------------------------------------	---

7. REFERENCE ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS  
**Development Alternatives, Inc.  
 1823 Jefferson Place, N.W.  
 Washington, D.C. 20036**

8. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES (*Sponsoring Organization, Publisher, Availability*)

9. ABSTRACT

This is a composite report on current and potential roles of Latin American and African rural women based primarily upon field research in seven countries. The survey presents preliminary conclusions concerning project research required, if local-level rural development efforts are to succeed in drawing upon the skills and work patterns of women, as well as men, in mobilizing human and natural resources for progress. The report's findings and conclusions are based upon field study of existing rural projects and a preliminary survey of constraints and opportunities for women in the economies of Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Nigeria, Bolivia, Paraguay and Peru.

Research focused on rural women's active decision-making and participation roles in agricultural production, generally the source of discretionary income in rural areas. However, some attention is also paid to traditional women's concerns such as family care, family planning and education of children -- concerns which to date have absorbed the lion's share of developers' efforts aimed at rural women.

10. CONTROL NUMBER <b>PN-AAB- 211</b>	11. PRICE OF DOCUMENT
12. DESCRIPTORS  <b>Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Nigeria, Peru, Bolivia, Paraguay, Work Patterns, Agricultural Production, Family Planning, Income, Family Care</b>	13. PROJECT NUMBER <b>931-11-720-986</b>
	14. CONTRACT NUMBER <b>AID/CA-ta-c-73-41</b>
	15. TYPE OF DOCUMENT <b>Research Study</b>

**A SEVEN COUNTRY SURVEY ON THE ROLES OF WOMEN  
IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

**A Report Prepared for the  
Agency for International Development  
under Contract No. AID/CM/ta-C-73-41  
December, 1974**

**DEVELOPMENT ALTERNATIVES, INC.  
823 Jefferson Place, N.W.  
Washington, D.C. 20036**

---

This survey of the roles of women in rural development in seven countries was prepared for the Office of Development Administration, Bureau for Technical Assistance, Agency for International Development, under Contract No. AID/CM/ta-C-73-41. The Survey Guidance Group included the following AID personnel: Thomas Chapman, TA/DA; Frances Johnson, NESANENA; and James Singletary, TA/EHR.

---

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface	i
Guide to this Study	ii
Summary of Finding and Conclusions	iii
I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. APPLICATIONS OF THE DATA	7
A. Position of Women in the Rural Sector	7
Present Status	7
Ghana	8
Kenya	11
Lesotho	15
Nigeria	17
Bolivia	20
Paraguay	23
Peru	25
Some Indicators of Change Over Time	28
B. Application of Rural Sector Data to Basic Project Types by Country	45
1. Project Type: Increasing Agricultural Production and Income	47
2. Project Type: Family Care	76
3. Project Type: Other Rural Sector Production and Income Opportunities	88
4. Project Type: Community Projects	94
Project Types 1-4: Considerations Which Apply When Women are Heads-of-Household	100
C. Application of Project-Specific Data from Local Action Questionnaires	103
1. The Sample	103
2. The Data Points	106
3. Project Activities	107
4. Project Dynamics and Approach	111
5. The Results of the 17 Projects	113

D. Conclusions: Project Design Recommendations	114
1. Insights from the Rural Sector Data	114
2. Insights from the Project-Specific Data	125
3. Conclusions to the Analysis -- Recommendations for Project Design	134
III. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	137
A. Limitations of the Study	137
B. Recommendations for Further Research	137
Alternative One:	139
Alternative Two:	141
Country-Specific and Region-Specific Research	141
Project Design and Implementation	144
APPENDIX A: Project-Specific Data on 17 Development Projects	A-1
<i>GHANA</i>	
No. 1 Home Extension Program	A-1
No. 2 Christian Mothers' Association	A-8
No. 3 Denu Shallots Project	A-15
<i>NIGERIA</i>	
No. 4 Small Holder Tobacco Production and Flue Curing	A-18
No. 5 Tiv Bams	A-23
No. 6 Uboma Development Project	A-28
<i>KENYA</i>	
No. 7 Ahero Pilot Project (Rice Scheme)	A-32
No. 8 Lirhembe Multi-Service Cooperative	A-34
No. 9 Masai Rural Training Center	A-38
<i>LESOTHO</i>	
No. 10 Thaba Bosiu Rural Development Project	A-42
No. 11 Leribe Pilot Agricultural Scheme	A-48

*BOLIVIA*

No. 12	Rural Extension of the Mother-Child Services of the Ministry of Health	A-53
No. 13	National Community Development Service	A-55
No. 14	Rural Women's Development Division of NCDS	A-57

*PERU*

No. 15	Vicos	A-60
No. 16	ORDEZA	A-63

*THE GAMBIA*

No. 17	Mixed Vegetable Scheme-Onions	A-68
--------	-------------------------------	------

APPENDIX B:	The Results of the 17 Projects	B-1
APPENDIX C:	Attitudes and Role of Governments, International Donors and Women's Voluntary Organizations	C-1
APPENDIX D:	Information Requirements for the Design of Rural Development Projects with a Women's Component: An Illustrative Case	D-1
APPENDIX E:	Bibliography	E-1

## TABLE OF CHARTS

Chart 1:	Percent Primary School Students Who are Female	31
Chart 2:	Percent Secondary School Students Who are Female	32
Chart 3:	Percent Vocational Training Students Who are Female	33
Chart 4:	Percent Teacher Training Students Who are Female	34
Chart 5:	Percent University Students Who are Female	35
Chart 6:	Population Growth Rates	37
Chart 7:	Number of Live Births	38
Chart 8:	Infant Mortality Rates	39
Chart 9:	Total Male/Female Population Distribution	40
Chart 10:	Percentages of Males and Females Who are "Economically Active"	42,
Chart 11:	Percent Male and Female by Economic Sector	43
Chart 12:	Percent of Sectoral Workers Who are Female	44
Chart 13:	Male/Female Decision-Making and Participation in Agriculture	48
Chart 14:	Male/Female Decision-Making and Participation in Family Care	77
Chart 15:	Male/Female Decision-Making and Participation in Other Rural Sector Production and Income Opportunities	89
Chart 16:	Male/Female Decision-Making and Participation in Community Projects	95
Chart 17:	Male/Female Decision-Making and Participation in Agriculture	115
Chart 18:	Decision and Participation Patterns By Continent	119

<b>Chart 19:</b>	<b>Male/Female Decision-Making and Participation in Family Care</b>	<b>122</b>
<b>Chart 20:</b>	<b>Male/Female Decision-Making and Participation in Other Rural Sector Production and Income Opportunities</b>	<b>122</b>
<b>Chart 21:</b>	<b>Male/Female Decision-Making and Participation in Community Projects</b>	<b>123</b>

**PREFACE**

The rapid preparation of this report was possible only because Development Alternatives, Inc. was already engaged in gathering field data (for the Agency for International Development) on the involvement of small farmers in development projects. As will become clear from the text, much of the information obtained was appended to the original objective of the research (which did not include a specific women's component). Mary Ann Riegelman directed the Washington research effort and coordinated all aspects of the report, ably assisted by Keith M. Moore. Dorothy J. Glancy provided expert advice and guidance, based upon her past experience with women's activities and organizations in 40 countries. Other staff members working overseas on the complementary AID research project made inputs at all stages of the report, and their specific contributions are noted.

The very short-fused survey required field research in each of the seven countries. Individual women field researchers in these countries provided the bulk of the usable information on women's role in the rural sector, and established the efficacy of this research/survey methodology. Christina Hussey Schoux, in Paraguay, devoted far more time and energy to the collection than the modest budget suggested was possible, and her field reports were read with interest and appreciation. Excellent reporting was also received from Sylvia F. Bolanos in Ghana and Achola O. Pala in Kenya. The Nigerian report, from Sole Adesina, although an original contribution, was hampered by the difficulties of obtaining data in that country. Bambi Eddy and Evelyn Barron (in Bolivia), Nancy Rodriguez and Mae Tyler (in Peru) made significant inputs on selected portions of the data-gathering questionnaires.

Insofar as this report is accepted as an initial, two-month effort in a complex and difficult field, we believe it represents a contribution to understanding the roles of women in rural development in seven Third World countries.

**Donald R. Mickelwait  
President**

## GUIDE TO THIS STUDY

The Table of Contents provides an overview of the structure of the report. The conclusions are presented in capsulized form in the Summary of Findings and Conclusions on the following page and can be found in the text in section IID beginning on page 114. Field reports from each of the seven countries were illustrative of the kinds of data which can be procured on short notice from existing sources, either published or obtainable from other researchers, change agents, government administrators, missionaries and the entire panoply of observers who live in and near rural societies in Third World countries.

Those specifically interested in data collection and analysis will be appreciative of the section written by Charles Sweet, on the activities of Shell Petroleum in a development undertaking in Nigeria. From everything we have seen, Shell seemed to do it right, and a summary of their procedures and data is presented in Appendix "D".

Appendix "A" is a summation of details on 17 development projects collected on a 33-page questionnaire. It has been condensed to allow reasonable presentation, so that readers may see the kind of data being obtained, if not the level of complexity and detail. The completed questionnaires will be primary data for the forthcoming Development Alternatives, Inc. report to the Agency for International Development on the determinants of successful projects which involve and benefit small farmers.

7

## SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

This is a composite report on current and potential roles of Latin American and African rural women based primarily upon field research in seven countries. The survey presents preliminary conclusions concerning project research required, if local-level rural development efforts are to succeed in drawing upon the skills and work patterns of women, as well as men, in mobilizing human and natural resources for progress. The report's findings and conclusions are based upon field study of existing rural projects and a preliminary survey of constraints and opportunities for women in the economies of Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Nigeria, Bolivia, Paraguay and Peru.

Research focused on rural women's active decision-making and participation roles in agricultural production, generally the source of discretionary income in rural areas. However, some attention is also paid to traditional women's concerns such as family care, family planning and education of children -- concerns which to date have absorbed the lion's share of developers' efforts aimed at rural women.

### Major Findings

1. Women today appear to play active roles both as decision-makers and participants in most rural development-related work.
  - a. Most importantly, in six of the seven countries studied, women take part equally with men in basic agricultural production. Despite this fact, external development projects designed to transfer technology to rural people seldom incorporate women as participants. Furthermore, women are rarely members of project planning groups.

- b. Rural women predominate, both for decision-making and participation, in petty trading, and make crucial decision-making inputs to male-dominated work, such as joining agricultural cooperatives, obtaining credit and selling cash crops.
  - c. In five of the countries, women are prime movers in self-help and government-sponsored projects, organizing and supplying most of the labor to construct water works, community centers and other facilities. They are also apt to commit their husbands to participate in some way.
  - d. In addition, rural women continue to prevail in the more traditional responsibilities of family care and handicraft production.
2. Social, cultural and legal barriers to broader roles for women are not as restrictive for the future as the past might indicate. When additional family income is available, changes occur which are non-linear, rapid departures from past practices.
3. In general, the integration of women into the rural economy will proceed more quickly if that integration takes place within the context of a development project rather than by means of women-only projects.
4. Home economics activities rank far below agricultural production projects involving women, as promoters of change and modernization. Major behavior changes by women occurred significantly faster through activities dealing with agricultural production than through family care projects.
5. Methods for involving women in development projects are not fundamentally different from methods for involving any local population target groups in the adoption of a technique or process. There must be sustained interaction between external agent and local population, as well as added incentives and repeated demonstrations of any new process' utility, when applied under local conditions and constraints.
6. The question of whether or not to integrate women into existing organizations or create new ones exclusively for women is complex and depends largely upon local circumstances. In the case of small farmer projects, creation of a separate women's association might weaken a growing small farmer movement, in some regions. In others, new women's associations, backed by educated urban women, might serve as a non-male-threatening agent for overcoming societal restrictions to an enlargement of women's roles.

7. Data collected on the roles of rural women is not merely country-specific, it is region-within-country distinct as well. What is true for one area of a country may not necessarily hold for another; this is particularly true in Ghana, Nigeria, Bolivia and Peru.
8. Truly relevant statistics on the involvement of women in the rural sector are generally not available. For most countries in our sample, national statistics cover only the commercial sector, omitting the subsistence economy in which the vast bulk of women's work is carried out. Male/female breakouts and rural/urban distributions were either incomplete or missing altogether. In addition, many studies of the rural societies under investigation are out of date and thus minimally relevant. While methodology and data consistency are a necessary subject for U.S. research, data on decision-making and participation can only be found in the field.

#### Information Requirements for Project Design

Research suggests that the following types of information, to be collected in the field, are necessary for design of projects with a women's component to accelerate rural development and income-generation:

1. Local Conditions and Environment. For the area in question, research should establish the local environmental conditions -- ethnic, economic, religious, cultural, social and political. How do these conditions impede women's full participation in the economy? Are they internal to the society or external? Must these conditions be considered as given, or are they susceptible to change at the local or regional level?
2. Current Roles in Agricultural Production. Planners must examine existing male and female production participation over a year's production cycle. Is the bulk of labor performed by family members, or by hired help? Participation roles must be established for corollary activities, such as obtaining credit, laying aside savings, use of modern inputs, marketing, etc. Male/female decision-making roles in production must also be scrutinized. Who makes what decisions based on what kinds of information?<sup>1</sup>

- 
1. An outstanding example of efficient planning for a development project with a women's component is Shell Petroleum's Uboma Project in Nigeria. Through an intensive, year-long study of farming patterns and local conditions, Uboma planners targeted women as having specific roles in agricultural production and community development. It became apparent that women had more influence on local decision-making than national government agencies had realized. Local cooperatives were established, staffed by both male and female leaders. This evolved into a series of development projects, some of which directly involved women -- e.g. oil palm processing and rural industry. See Appendix "D" of this report for details of Uboma project design.

3. Options for Project Design. Planners need information on the various ways in which women can and do become involved in entrepreneurial or wage-labor occupations, as well as self-help projects. What is women's actual and potential interaction in such project types as agricultural modernization, commercialization of small animal production, etc.? What are potential economic returns from alternative project designs?
4. Local Impact of Design Options. The impact of different options on family structure and local society must be examined. What are the effects of reducing women's role in the home and increasing it in the field? Change is not neutral, especially change induced by a potential increase in personal income. Particular attention must be focused on the potential effect of different options on fertility, birth rate and acceptance of family planning methods.
5. Potential for Support and Sustained Momentum. Research is needed on the potential for an integrated rural development project with a women's component to attract and respond to support from both official and unofficial agencies -- local, regional, national, religious, social and political. What are the resources indigenous to the target area which can be tapped, in addition to outside support?

### Information Requirements for Project Implementation

Our research has identified two aspects of project implementation which planners should take into account:

1. The structure of rewards and incentives for administrators and project managers, as concerns the introduction of women as a project component. Planners must investigate the various layers of project hierarchy (local, regional, national) to determine what persons in positions of authority will perceive as benefits, as a result of involving women in development projects.
2. Creation of an evaluation and monitoring system which will indicate the distribution of benefits to women in the project. While any good, ongoing information system will do more than evaluate (i.e. it should help project managers improve their operations), there will be no way to measure the success of women's involvement in the absence of an evaluation system. The system should closely monitor project inputs and measure project outputs and benefits by distributional impact.

## I. INTRODUCTION

### Focus of the Report

Within the last year, governments, international donors, and private citizens have begun grappling with the question of how best to tap the economic resource represented by third world rural women. To date, the scant research on women's roles in development has left this question largely unanswered. For its part, USAID, in response to the Percy Amendment, has launched an intra-agency effort to establish ways in which AID could better integrate women into the development process.

This report is a seven country<sup>1</sup> survey of women's roles in rural development, undertaken for AID by Development Alternatives, Inc. (DAI). In it, DAI will attempt to define guidelines for improving project design when women are considered as a semi-autonomous resource in the rural sector: that is, factors which must be borne in mind by project organizers who seek to effectively mobilize the economic resource that women represent. The key economic sector examined is agriculture, and this study supplements ongoing DAI research for AID on ways to get the benefits of development to small farmers.<sup>2</sup> The two research efforts are closely linked because women constitute a major part of the agricultural work force in most developing societies.

---

<sup>1</sup> Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Nigeria, Bolivia, Paraguay, and Peru.

<sup>2</sup> An eighteen-month research effort in 12 countries in Latin America and Africa on the determinants of effective local action, performed for the Technical Assistance Bureau, Office of Development Administration, Agency for International Development.

It should be noted that this report is a preliminary study of what is possible in project design and an estimation of the reliability of existing data. It is not original research but rather a survey of available literature on the subject, fleshed out with data collected by field researchers. The time constraints of the contract -- two months -- necessarily and adversely affected the thoroughness and completeness of the report.

For this study, we focused on three fundamental questions:

1. In what ways might women, as an economic resource, be more effectively utilized in the development process of third world countries?
2. Do women's roles follow consistent patterns across countries, or are there fundamental country-specific differences in the roles of women in the rural sector?
3. What does the data on the roles of rural women tell us that could be used to improve the design and implementation of rural development projects?

### Data Collection and Research Methodology

This is a piggybacked project, using knowledge of rural development projects in seven countries of Latin American and Africa as the basis for gathering further insights on the role of women in rural development. Data was collected in four ways:

- In the U.S., DAI researchers attempted to develop data on the roles of women in the rural sectors of seven countries from published sources and interviews with experts. This data is part of sections IIA and IIB.

- In the field, women researchers examined the same questions that had been posed to researchers in the U.S. to develop data on the roles of women in the rural sector in the seven countries from published sources, experts, interviews and very small sample surveys. This data is integrated into sections IIA and IIB.
- In the field, four researchers from DAI who were collecting data on rural development projects attempted to gather information on specific rural development projects, as they involved or affected women. This information is integrated into section IIC.
- In the field, in some instances, women researchers attempted to complete questionnaires identical to those employed by DAI staff, on the involvement of women in specific development projects. This information is integrated into section IIC.

The collection results were matched, U.S. against field, male researchers against female. Specifics of the collection effort were as follows:

<u>Researcher</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Rural Sector Data</u>	<u>Development Project Data</u>
Mary Ann Riegelman (DAI)	U.S.....	X	
Keith M. Moore (DAI)	U.S.....	X	
Dorothy Glancy	U.S.....	X	
John K. Hatch (DAI)	Latin America ...	X	X
Charles F. Sweet (DAI)	Africa .....	X	X
Donald R. Mickelwait (DAI)	Latin America ...	X	X
Elliott R. Morss (DAI)	Africa .....	X	X
Christina Hussey Schoux	Paraguay.....	X	X
Bambi Eddy	Bolivia.....	X	X
Evelyn Barron	Bolivia.....	X	X

<u>Researcher</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Rural Sector Data</u>	<u>Development Project Data</u>
Nancy Rodriguez	Peru.....	X.....	X
Mae Tyler	Peru.....	X	
Sylvia F. Bolanos	Ghana.....	X.....	X
Achola O. Pala	Kenya.....	X.....	X
Sole Adesina	Nigeria.....	X.....	X

Field data from Paraguay, Ghana and Kenya was rich and extensive. It was less complete from Bolivia, Nigeria and Peru. It was not possible to contact with a researcher in Lesotho; only DAI field data is available from that country. It should be noted that in several cases less than six weeks elapsed between the date of contract initiation and the due date of the report. Field reports will be submitted as a separate volume to complement this report. All information, data, tables and compilations of data should be viewed as suggestive, since the time and level of effort allowed for this report limited it to being a survey of the findings of others. However, within the limits of the constraints the data has been collected, analyzed and presented in a manner which will allow meaningful and useful comparisons.

### Data Synthesis and Analysis

Analysis of the data begins with a country-by-country examination of the current status of women in the rural sector,

with the following factors being considered: legal status, wealth and inheritance, education, marriage, use of income, opportunities for improving status, attitudes towards contraception and national population policy. Charts are provided on education, population, and labor force participation as statistical indicators of women's involvement in the modern economy.

This "positioning" of women in rural sector is followed by a consideration of the data points available on the decision-making and participation role of women in the rural economy. Data points have been grouped under functional development project types--that is, the data points believed to be useful in designing and implementing agricultural output projects have been grouped under the heading of "agricultural production"; those useful in assisting the design of health, education, nutrition, and family planning projects, under the heading of "family care" and so forth. This data is to be found in section IIB. Project-specific data (data obtained from a particular development project) has been treated in the same manner, with a view toward gleaning insights for improving the design and implementation of rural development projects. This information is to be found in IIC. Finally, we have assembled the basic rural sector data and compared it to the project-specific data in an attempt to offer recommendations for the future improvement of development projects in which a specific component of women's involvement is appropriate.

Other factors impacting on the potential involvement of women in the development process are the attitudes and roles of national governments and international donors. Wherever possible,

we have tried to assess the activities being undertaken by each government to integrate women into national development; in some cases, such information was not available. Also discussed are programs sponsored by various international donors, including USAID, the United Nations, the International Labor Organization, the Food and Agriculture Organization, UNESCO, UNICEF, the World Bank, and the Ford Foundation.<sup>1</sup>

Following the conclusions in II D on methods for improving the design of projects which should involve rural women, recommendations for further research are offered in Section III.

---

1. See Appendix "C" for attitudes and roles of governments, international organizations and women's voluntary organizations.

## II. APPLICATIONS OF THE DATA

### A. Position of Women in the Rural Sector

#### *Present Status*

This section of the report details the current status of rural women in each country, and is organized by such data points as legal status, wealth and inheritance, education, marriage, use of income, opportunities for improving status, and attitudes toward contraception. The intention here is to establish the position of rural women in each country on the overall continuum which runs from total dependence to full equality, as a preface to understanding their decision-making roles in society. Women's actual participation in the economy is not being treated in depth, since it will be explained in the following section.

GHANA -- A Preliminary Sketch

Rural women have traditionally played crucial roles in the functioning of the Ghanaian economy. Ghana is a country where the economic contribution which women can make is already recognized, if not yet exploited.

Women in southern Ghana appear to have reasonably firm landholding rights. Ownership by women of cocoa farming land in the south has become commonplace;<sup>1</sup> economist Polly Hill, writing as far back as 1963, states that among the Akim of southern Ghana, nearly half the farmers are women, and they often own the land they till.<sup>2</sup> Along the southern coast, Ga women occasionally own small plots of land, boats, and a few cattle.<sup>3</sup>

Female inheritance rights, both for land and personal property, vary according to region. In the south, daughters (usually unmarried) as well as sons inherit land on the death of their fathers; " but it is generally their brothers or their brothers' children who inherit land after they die. However, if a woman acquires land through her own efforts, it may pass to her daughters. In the conservative Muslim north, data is lacking on female wealth, although it is likely that northern women have far fewer property rights than their southern counterparts.

Marriage in Ghana is a family affair, with parents playing a dominant role in selection of a daughter's husband. Divorced women are discriminated against, the husband usually being the one to initiate proceedings. According to field data, an

ex-husband can retain custody of the children in either his parents' home or his second wife's household. If he gives custody to his former wife, only the children receive sustenance payments, not the wife. A widow is maintained by her husband's family for one year, at the end of which time, if she has not remarried, she must return to her own parental home.<sup>5</sup>

Although Ghanaian women have had increasing access to education over time, the situation for rural females is still bleak. In 1970, 66 percent of Ghanaian women had never attended school (down from 83 percent in 1960). What education is available to rural youngsters is generally not relevant to farm existence. Those who do become literate often forsake the countryside for urban life, while those who are left behind to work the land are resistant to change.

Women are socialized to have large families, and even with the advent of the pill, family size still averages around five children. However, there is evidence that family planning information and education is beginning to filter through to rural women, as the Ghana Family Planning Association continues to build more clinics and expand its activities.

There is a National Council of Ghanaian Women as well as a Market Women's Association, but the extent to which these groups represent rural women is unclear. According to field data, rural women rarely undertake political action to improve their economic status, women not having been conditioned to strive for upward mobility.<sup>6</sup>

1. *Area Handbook for Ghana*, American University, Foreign Area Studies, Washington, D.C., 1971, p. 306.
2. Polly Hill, *Migrant Cocoa Farmers of Southern Ghana*, Cambridge University Press, 1963, p. 116.
3. *Area Handbook for Ghana*, p. 115.
4. Polly Hill, p. 112.
5. Field data: Sylvia Bolanos.
6. Ibid.

KENYA -- A Preliminary Sketch

Although there are indications that the overall status of the Kenyan woman may soon improve, change is occurring more in theory than in practice. Laws recently proposed to improve women's legal status -- e.g. marriage and divorce rights -- have been quashed by the National Assembly. Also, the government seems unwilling to acknowledge other existing patterns of discrimination, judging by its response to a 1972 ILO/UNDP report<sup>1</sup> on employment in Kenya, which cited evidence on women's unequal access to education, training and jobs.<sup>2</sup> Beclouding the picture even more is the conflict among the several sets of family law: statutory, Muslim, Christian, and of course tribal.

Landholding rights and inheritance rights traditionally have not favored rural females. When a head of family dies, his land and animals are commonly divided among his sons.<sup>3</sup> In most cases, tribal law does not allow women to own or inherit land, although field data indicates that this situation is improving slowly in rural areas. Recent changes in land tenure, brought about by individualization of parcels of land, are enabling a number of rural women to become registered title holders. Many such titles have accrued to wives through subdivision of existing family holdings by husbands. A few women, particularly widows and unmarried mothers, have gained the right in some provinces to purchase land in their own names.

Women's personal property rights are generally unclear. Tribal law dictates that a married woman can retain property acquired before marriage although wealth obtained after marriage is usually considered as part of her husband's estate. However, customs vary greatly according to region. Complicating the situation further is the English Married Women's Property Act of 1882, which is applied generally in Kenya under the 1967 Judicature Act. By terms of this law (and under Islamic law as well), a married woman would have complete control of her own wealth as well as the right to obtain new wealth, unless there is evidence of agreement to the contrary. Another statute, the Registered Land Act, provides that women and men have equal say in transactions involving joint ownership of personal property. However, most rural Kenyans are ignorant of this law and thus do not benefit from its provisions. In a case currently before the courts, a husband is arguing that customary law should decide rights as to disposal of the family house, although his wife is a joint owner under terms of the Registered Land Act.<sup>4</sup>

By tribal customs, a woman must have her husband's permission to work, but the question of how she disposes of her own earnings is obscure. According to the ILO/UNDP report cited earlier, husbands are having less to say generally about how women spend what they themselves earn.<sup>5</sup> Women are usually permitted to keep income from handicraft sales, although how they dispose of agricultural earnings is uncertain.

A woman's ability to select her husband is often curtailed,

although her rights on this point vary by tribe and area. Polygyny is widely practiced and under customary law no legal divorce is permitted.<sup>6</sup> Single women, whether unmarried, divorced or widowed, are less protected than formerly; widows and divorcees have few support rights and often become dependents of their fathers or brothers.

Despite evidence that more and more Kenyan women are desiring smaller families, less than five percent of women of childbearing age have access to contraceptive methods.<sup>7</sup> And among those who do, nearly 80 percent of acceptors abandon contraception within two years, according to a recent pilot study.<sup>8</sup> On average, desired family size approaches actual family size -- i.e. six to seven children. Kenya was the first sub-Saharan African country to adopt an official national family planning program, with the goal of reducing fertility by as much as five percent in 10 to 15 years.

In 1969, over 90 percent of Kenyan women above 40 had never been to school; the figure was 75 percent for woman aged 25-49.<sup>9</sup> A. Maleche, a Kenyan sociologist, cites the following as reasons why parents hesitate to send their daughters to school: 1) education might lead to discontent and immorality; 2) girls are called upon earlier for domestic chores than are boys; 3) education for boys is a better economic investment, since boys are future heirs.<sup>10</sup> Nonetheless, Maleche and others feel that attitudes towards education of girls are changing if only because mothers increasingly want their daughters to enjoy more social and economic benefits than they themselves had.

Rural women in Kenya have only limited access to women's clubs and organizations, most of which are concentrated in urban areas and which focus on urban women's problems. The largest group, Mandaleo Ya Wanawake, seems more concerned with improving home economics education than in effecting meaningful social and political change.<sup>11</sup>

- 
1. *Employment, Incomes and Equality: A Strategy for Increasing Productive Employment in Kenya*, International Labor Office, Geneva, 1972.
  2. See report by Adrienne Germain and Audrey Smock, *The Status and Roles of Ghanaian and Kenyan Women: Implications for Fertility Behavior*, Ford Foundation, September, 1974, p. 15.
  3. *Area Handbook for Kenya*, American University, Foreign Area Studies, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1969, p. 447.
  4. Field data: Achola Pala
  5. ILO/UNDP report, *Employment, Incomes and Equality*, p. 143.
  6. Literature conflicts on this point. Angela Molnos writes that a Kikuyu wife is not at the mercy of her husband and may divorce him on any number of grounds (Angela Molnos, *Attitudes Towards Family Planning in East Africa*, Weltforum Verlag, Minich, 1968, p. 53). Adrienne Germain and Audrey Smock, (*The Status and Roles of Ghanaian and Kenyan Women*) p. 15, state, however, that in most tribes, women cannot initiate divorce.
  7. ILO/UNDP report, p. 126.
  8. Loc. cit.
  9. Ibid., p. 296.
  10. For this reference, see Adrienne Germain and Audrey Smock, p. 21.
  11. Ibid., p. 27.

LESOTHO -- A Preliminary Sketch

While all land in Lesotho is owned by the chieftainship each married man or widow has usufruct rights to land on which to plant crops, and this land may be held for as long as the tenant lives and continues cultivation. If a man dies, his widow may receive a portion of his land for her own use. If she leaves no heir, the land reverts to the chieftainship.<sup>1</sup> No data was available on the rights of daughters to inherit land.

Statistics on literacy and education for Basotho women vary widely; anthropologist Sandra Wallman asserts that high literacy figures are both inflated and misleading.<sup>2</sup> Most women receive some schooling, some as much as seven years; yet ability to read and write is difficult to assess, given the high dropout rate nationally and varying standards of literacy (40 to 70 percent). According to one estimate based on minimal literacy standards of four years schooling, just 10 percent of the village population is literate, and of that subset, only one-fifth are men.<sup>3</sup> Women and girls have a higher rate of primary school attendance than boys because boys are needed to work in the fields and to herd animals.

Partly because of the high male emigration rate (to South African mines), women perform a variety of agricultural tasks, the allocation of labor depending more on availability than on tradition. " At the height of the hoeing season, a conscientious woman will spend up to ten hours a day in the fields. When their men are absent, women herd and tend livestock, despite the Bantu prohibition against any contact

with cattle.<sup>5</sup>

Women too migrate to South Africa to seek employment, mainly as domestic servants. They total 25,000 or 10 percent of the female Basotho labor force.<sup>6</sup>

Lesotho's sociocultural and economic environment has traditionally encouraged a high birth rate (39 births per 1,000 population), although heavy male migration has kept it down, relative to other African countries. Women tend to view extended families as the surest form of social security. There are signs that the government's heretofore intransigent attitude toward family planning may now be softening. The Minister of Health recently indicated that advice on infertility must be regarded as an integral part of any family planning program's contribution to the national maternal and child care service.<sup>7</sup>

---

1. G. M. E. Leistner, "Economic Structure and Growth," *Communications of the Africa Institute*, #5, Pretoria, 1966.

2. Sandra Wallman, *Take Out Hunger: Two Case Studies of Rural Development in Basutoland*, Athlone Press, London, 1969, p. 43.

3. *Ibid.*, p. 43-44.

4. *Ibid.*, p. 50.

5. *Ibid.*, p. 44.

6. One international organization in a currently unreleased report, cites this statistic.

7. *Situation Report: Lesotho*, International Planned Parenthood Federation, April 1974, p. 3.

NIGERIA -- A Preliminary Sketch

Nigeria's ethnic diversity complicates an assessment of the status of its rural women. In the Muslim north, women are legally considered minors;<sup>1</sup> in the south, however, indications are that they enjoy the same civil rights as men. Divorce practices illustrate these regional differences: only husbands may obtain a divorce in the north, while in the south either partner can take the initiative.

Women's unequal status in the north is perpetuated by the educational system, which discriminates heavily against girls; very few girls in the Muslim north receive any formal education. Countrywide, about one-third of all primary and secondary school students are female.<sup>2</sup>

As wealth and inheritance usually remain inside the family, women when they marry forfeit the right to own property. They move from their father's family to that of the husband, bringing with them only their cooking tools. Occasionally, through successful trading, a woman may be able to purchase land, which in most cases will pass to her oldest son.<sup>3</sup>

Social status in rural Nigeria is largely measured by family size, a tradition which propagates polygyny and the bearing of many children. A woman who has or can bear many children is considered valuable. For this reason, efforts to expose women to contraceptive practices have met with little success to date. Although the government intends to start a

national family planning program within existing health channels, for the moment most external aid for birth control activities is coordinated by the Family Planning Council of Nigeria, a private service organization.<sup>4</sup>

Aside from child-bearing, a woman's status is a reflection of that of her husband. To increase her own stature, then, she may ask her husband to take another wife.<sup>5</sup> This raises family income, reduces the amount of work for the first wife and wins her status within the community where she may become an organizer of social activity. She is also free to conduct other outside activities such as trading. Yoruba women traders (mainly urban-based) have gained a considerable degree of economic independence from their husbands, who have no rights to their wives's income.<sup>6</sup>

Voluntary women's groups have existed for many years to increase capital and facilitate marketing, as well as for social functions and home improvement. Most groups are found in urban areas, but there is evidence that some benefit is filtering down to rural women. Among the larger organizations is a women's weaving cooperative which claims a membership of 80,000.<sup>7</sup>

- 
- 1 *Area Handbook for Nigeria*, American University, Foreign Area Studies, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1972, p. 282.
  - 2 ECOSOC document E/CN.14/SW/37, "The Data Base for Discussion on the Interrelations between the Integration of Women in Development, Their Situation and Population Factors in Africa," Addis Ababa, June 3-7, 1974

- 3 Paul and Laura Bohannon, *Tiv Economy*, Northwestern University Press, Evanston, 1968, p. 135.
- 4 *Country Profile: Nigeria*, The Population Council, New York February, 1973, p. 8.
- 5 *Area Handbook*, p. 142
- 6 *Ibid.*, p. 275.
- 7 *Ibid.*, p. 145-46.

BOLIVIA -- A Preliminary Sketch

Bolivia's government revised the official family code in 1973, and new laws on the books promise substantial increases in the protection of rights of rural Indian women.<sup>1</sup>

Specifically, the revised code establishes legal recognition of cohabitation, or trial marriage, an institution common in Andean areas of the country. Children of trial marriages are no longer considered illegitimate, and women separated from their common-law husbands can now demand child support payments. To date there is little feedback on the implementation of the new code, as it is still in the test stage. Among the more negative aspects of the code is a law providing that if a husband disapproves of his wife's obtaining employment outside the home, he can forbid her to work.<sup>2</sup>

Schooling is generally considered unnecessary for females in rural areas, where girls comprise only one-third of the rural school population, of which less than three percent complete primary school.<sup>3</sup> Virtually all secondary schools are located in urban areas.

There are indications that literacy in rural areas is twice as high for men as for women. Most literacy training is given in Spanish, not Quechua or Aymara, the Indian languages; since the indigenous Indian prejudice against education of females extends to learning another language, the Spanish-language barrier contributes most heavily to

illiteracy among Indian women.

Regarding marriage customs, it appears that most Indian peasant women do not have the right to choose their own husbands and that this is the responsibility of a young girl's parents. If a trial marriage fails, the husband pays a set amount of money to the woman to "restore" her honor. How the new family code will impact on this custom is unclear.

Once married, the rural woman is free to spend her own income as she pleases, without first having to gain her husband's approval. She also has charge of the family income, managing funds as she see fit for different family needs.<sup>4</sup>

Contraception is largely unknown among rural Indians, and in general is limited to the urban scene and to upper socioeconomic strata. Even in La Paz, the capital, lower class citizens are only now becoming acquainted with and receptive to birth control practices. Until recently, the government dragged its feet on family planning, but in 1973 it submitted a four-year proposal to the United Nations Fund for Population Activities to structure a national family welfare network of contraceptive services and supplies.<sup>5</sup>

Bolivian women won the right to vote in 1952, following the revolution. There are indications, though the data is sketchy, that even in rural areas more and more women are gathering to form committees to articulate their views on political and social issues affecting their interests.<sup>6</sup>

- 1 Field Data: Bambi Eddy
- 2 Our field researcher speculated that application of this law is unlikely, given the fact that most Bolivian women work out of economic necessity.
- 3 *Area Handbook for Bolivia*, American University Foreign Area Studies, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1974, p. 147.
- 4 Other data indicates that only "mestizo" women -- of mixed Indian and white blood -- control family pursestrings. Ibid., p. 122.
- 5 At the project level, a controversy rages as to inclusion of family planning in maternal and child care programs. See pp. 4 and 5, field report from Bambi Eddy.
- 6 Field Data: Evelyn Barron

PARAGUAY -- A Preliminary Sketch

Although rural women in Paraguay have nominal equality by law with men, in household affairs both partners recognize that the husband has the final word.<sup>1</sup> Divorce is legal in Paraguay and may be initiated by either partner. But divorced women face social discrimination, and anyone wishing to remarry must do so in another country.

Compared to other Latin American countries, educational standards for Paraguayan women are relatively high. In 1971, 41 percent of all graduates from the National University were women. Nearly all primary school teachers are women, and girls comprise roughly half of the primary school enrollment.<sup>2</sup>

Literature on women's rights to wealth or property is sparse. Some women heads-of-household do own land, but they do not enjoy the same access to credit and cooperatives as their male counterparts.

Women are conditioned from childhood to regard motherhood as their prime role in life. Most girls marry at 18, and for the majority, their parents choose their husbands. Once married, they serve their husbands and bear children. Given their culturally-perceived role and the dominance of the Catholic Church, it is not surprising that family planning has made little headway in Paraguay. Although the government does not officially sanction birth control, it has given de facto cooperation to the private family planning organization and

within the past year and a half, the Ministry of Public Health has assumed management of several clinics.<sup>3</sup>

Income from non-agricultural activities, such as handicrafts, is generally at the disposal of the woman, although she will normally spend much of it on family needs. Most rural women's earnings are tied to the farm and are pooled with their husband's income. Disposal of family income is the husband's responsibility.<sup>4</sup>

According to field data, Paraguayan women tend to avoid political or legal action to better their socioeconomic position. Women as a rule do not speak up, and on the rare occasion when they express their views, they are not taken seriously.

---

1 Field data: Christina Hussey Schoux

2 Ibid.

3 Situation Report: Paraguay, International Planned Parenthood Federation, July 1973, p. 6.

4 Field data: Christina Hussey Schoux

PERU -- A Preliminary Sketch

Although political developments over the past few years would appear to have improved the overall status of Peruvian women, the process of change is a slow and gradual one. Peru's national development plan now includes a section articulating the rights of women, but discriminatory statutes remaining on the books continue to impede women's full equality in society.<sup>1</sup>

Landholding laws amply demonstrate this dichotomy: before the institution of the new agrarian reform law, women in most peasant communities had the right to own land, although their parcels were smaller than those of male family members. Despite the national plan's guarantee of equality between the sexes, the new law locates land ownership within the family unit, and the male is recognized as the adjudicator and proprietor, if he is considered the head of the household. Women can be considered as proprietors only if they are unwed mothers, separated, widowed or divorced. Single women and women who carry out agricultural labor while their husbands work elsewhere do not have the right to be recognized as land owners.<sup>2</sup>

Data on women's rights of inheritance and personal wealth is meager. Available literature indicates that a daughter generally receives a smaller proportion of her father's inheritance than a son, because it is assumed that her husband will take over the role of protector and benefactor.<sup>3</sup> After

divorce, joint property is usually divided; alimony depends upon the income of the husband and needs of the family. Married women are usually engaged in some sort of subsistence activity, and any income earned is invested in items for family use or in savings.<sup>4</sup>

The average Peruvian female marries at age 23; this relatively high age is explained by the fact that many rural and lower class marriages begin as trial unions.<sup>5</sup> During the trial union period, many men go to the coast to seek better jobs, and the women are left behind to handle most agricultural tasks.<sup>6</sup>

On the national level, 46 percent of all students attending primary school are girls.<sup>7</sup> In rural areas, 24 percent of all females are literate, compared to 58 percent of all rural men.<sup>8</sup>

Women in rural areas are basically ignorant of contraceptive techniques, and the government's lack of an announced population policy is not speeding the spread of family planning education. Upper class and middle class men in the Sierra are now familiar with the condom, but its use is minimal compared to relative size of population, and its effect on limiting births infinitesimal. Contraceptive devices for women are little known and seldom used.<sup>9</sup>

---

1. Field data: Mae Tyler

2. Ibid.

3. Lourdes Carpio, "The Rural Woman in Peru: An Alarming Contradiction," *Women*, Dayton, Ohio, 1970, p. 104.

4. Field data: Mae Tyler

- 5 Nadia Haggag Youssef, Women and Work in Developing Societies, Population Monograph Series No. 15, University of California, Berkeley, 1974, pp. 103-104.
- 6 Carpio, p. 102.
- 7 UN Statistical Yearbook, 1973
- 8 Statistical Abstract of Latin America: 1972, Kenneth Ruddle and Kathleen Barrows (ed.), University of California, Los Angeles, 1974, p. 159
- 9 Richard W. Patch, "Attitudes Towards Sex, Reproduction and Contraception in Bolivia and Peru," American Universities Field Staff, West Coast South America Series 17:11, Hanover, New Hampshire, p.5

*Some Indicators of Change Over Time*

This section presents indicators of change in the status of women in the seven countries under study. The three sets of indicators are: education, population, and labor force participation. Because statistics for the rural sector are generally unavailable, data has been compiled on a country-wide basis only.

## Education

The accompanying charts suggest that over the past decade integration of women in the educational process has accelerated only slightly for countries as a whole. Indications are that when primary education is first introduced into a rural area outside the influence of the modern economy, boys are generally sent to school first. This seems to be true because education of boys is considered a better investment, as it is assumed that girls will marry and leave the family. In more advanced rural areas, however, girls are increasingly being allowed to attend school, because parents have become aware of the benefits of education for all their children.

Secondary school attendance by females appears to be generally on the increase, with some exceptions -- namely Ghana, Nigeria and Peru. For teacher training, there appears to be no consistent pattern across countries. (It should be noted that in Paraguay an unusually high proportion of teacher training students are female.) There seems to be a steady increase in the percent of university students who are women, with Kenya a notable exception.

Seemingly inconsistent fluctuations in the data are due partly to varying statistical collection methods; this makes detailed cross-national comparisons difficult to establish.

Data inconsistencies for vocational training are attributable in large measure to the temporary nature of many vocational training programs.

Chart 1  
PERCENT PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS WHO ARE FEMALE

	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
GHANA			37		42 <sup>1</sup>		43	43	43 <sup>1</sup>	43		
KENYA			31		37			40	41 <sup>1</sup>	41		43 <sup>5</sup>
LESOTHO <sup>2</sup>		62	62	61	61	62	61	60	60	60	60	
NIGERIA			39		38			24	37 <sup>1</sup>	37		
BOLIVIA	39 <sup>3</sup>				41		41		42			
PARAGUAY	47 <sup>3</sup>		46		47	47			47 <sup>4</sup>	47	47 <sup>3</sup>	
PERU	43 <sup>3</sup>			44			45	46				

SOURCES:

All data comes from U.N. Statistical Yearbooks for 1973, 1971, 1969, 1967 and 1965 except where noted; all percentages based on statistics taken from these sources.

<sup>1</sup> UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, 1972.

<sup>2</sup> Annual Statistical Bulletin for the Kingdom of Lesotho, 1971; p.73.

<sup>3</sup> Kenneth Ruddle and Kathleen Barrows, *Statistical Abstract of Latin America 1972*, University of California, Los Angeles, January 1974; p.176.

<sup>4</sup> *Area Handbook for Paraguay*, American University, Foreign Area Studies, United States Government Printing Office, 1972; p. 99.

<sup>5</sup> *Ministry of Education Annual Report 1972*, Republic of Kenya, Government Printer, Nairobi, 1973; p. 30.

Chart 2  
PERCENT SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS WHO ARE FEMALE

	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
GHANA			32		25 <sup>1</sup>		30	31	26 <sup>1</sup>	26		
KENYA			34		27			26	28 <sup>1</sup>	30		31 <sup>2</sup>
LESOTHO <sup>3</sup>		43	49	48	50	51	53	52	53	53	53	
NIGERIA			28		30			30	33 <sup>1</sup>	33		
BOLIVIA					36		55	36 <sup>4</sup>	40			
PARAGUAY			40		47				50 <sup>5</sup>	48	49 <sup>4</sup>	
PERU				39			41	41		39 <sup>4</sup>		

SOURCES:

All data comes from the U.N. Statistical Yearbooks for 1973, 1971, 1969, 1967 and 1965 except where noted; all percentages based on statistics taken from these sources.

<sup>1</sup> UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, 1972.

<sup>2</sup> Ministry of Education Annual Report 1972, Republic of Kenya, Government Printer, Nairobi, 1973; p. 50.

<sup>3</sup> Annual Statistical Bulletin for the Kingdom of Lesotho 1971; p. 74.

<sup>4</sup> Kenneth Ruddle and Kathleen Barrows, *Statistical Abstract of Latin America 1972*, University of California, Los Angeles, January 1974; p. 176.

<sup>5</sup> *Area Handbook for Paraguay*, American University, Foreign Area Studies, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1972; p. 99.

Chart 3  
PERCENT VOCATIONAL TRAINING STUDENTS WHO ARE FEMALE

	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
GHANA			14		22 <sup>1</sup>		24	19	21 <sup>1</sup>	29		
KENYA			.4									
LESOTHO		79				20	49			55	62 <sup>2</sup>	
NIGERIA			3		18 <sup>1</sup>			31	21 <sup>1</sup>	28		
BOLIVIA							78	71 <sup>3</sup>	71		80 <sup>4</sup>	
PARAGUAY			25	19	75	34		36		43	45 <sup>3</sup>	
PERU				60			40	42		42 <sup>3</sup>		

SOURCES:

All data comes from U.N. Statistical Yearbooks for 1973, 1971, 1969, 1967 and 1965 except where noted; all percentages based on statistics taken from these sources.

<sup>1</sup> UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, 1972.

<sup>2</sup> Annual Statistical Bulletin for the Kingdom of Lesotho, 1971; p. 75.

<sup>3</sup> Kenneth Ruddle and Kathleen Barrows, *Statistical Abstract of Latin America 1972*, University of California, Los Angeles, January 1974; p. 176.

<sup>4</sup> *Area Handbook for Bolivia*, American University, Foreign Area Studies, United States Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1974.

Chart 4  
PERCENT TEACHER TRAINING STUDENTS WHO ARE FEMALE

	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
GHANA			31		29 <sup>1</sup>		31	31		32		
KENYA			42		33			34	38 <sup>1</sup>	38		
LESOTHO		64				63	54	64 <sup>2</sup>		66		
NIGERIA			24		26			24	24 <sup>1</sup>	28		
BOLIVIA							52	41 <sup>3</sup>	40			
PARAGUAY			85			89	87		89 <sup>4</sup>	89	87 <sup>3</sup>	
PERU								34				

SOURCES:

All data comes from U.N. Statistical Yearbooks for 1973, 1971, 1969, 1967 and 1965 except where noted; all percentages based on statistics taken from these sources.

<sup>1</sup> UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, 1972.

<sup>2</sup> Annual Statistical Bulletin for the Kingdom of Lesotho, 1971; p. 73.

<sup>3</sup> Kenneth Ruddle and Kathleen Barrows, *Statistical Abstract of Latin America 1972*, University of California, Los Angeles, January 1974; p. 185.

<sup>4</sup> *Area Handbook for Paraguay*, American University, Foreign Area Studies, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1972, p. 99.

Chart 5  
PERCENT UNIVERSITY STUDENTS WHO ARE FEMALE

	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
GHANA	9		24		10	12	8.5 <sup>1</sup>	14
KENYA	18				15 <sup>2</sup>			
LESOTHO	25		36 <sup>3</sup>	17	25			34
NIGERIA	10		12		11 <sup>4</sup>	13 <sup>4</sup>	13 <sup>4</sup>	14 <sup>4</sup>
BOLIVIA		16			17		29	
PARAGUAY	30			40		37		44
PERU	27	27			34	29 <sup>5</sup>		

SOURCES:

All data comes from U.N. Statistical Yearbooks for 1973, 1971, 1969, 1967 and 1965 except where noted; all percentages based on statistics taken from these sources.

<sup>1</sup> Adrienne Germain and Audrey Smock, *The Status and Roles of Ghanaian and Kenyan Women: Implications for Fertility Behavior*, September 1974.

<sup>2</sup> ECA Country Report for Kenya, 1974.

<sup>3</sup> ECA Country Report for Lesotho, 1974.

<sup>4</sup> ECA Country Report for Nigeria, 1974.

<sup>5</sup> Consejo Nacional de la Universidad Peruana, Bulletin 4, 1970.

### Population

Population is increasing rapidly in all our countries with the exception of Lesotho where major male migration to South African mines appears to slow the growth rate.

The unusually large jump in growth rates for Nigeria, Bolivia and Paraguay may be explained by the change in 1967 in United Nations data collection methods, although increases in rates for the other four countries do not appear inconsistent.

The infant mortality and birth rates have remained relatively constant, although the vagueness of the data complicates analysis. Only recently have statisticians been able to do more than approximate these rates. Population data collection in these countries is all the more difficult because there has been little standardized record keeping, especially in rural areas where migration, on a temporary or permanent basis, has caused much confusion.

Chart 6  
POPULATION GROWTH RATES  
 (Percentages)

	<u>1964</u>	<u>1965</u>	<u>1966</u>	<u>1967</u>	<u>1968</u>	<u>1969</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1972</u>	<u>1973</u>
GHANA	2.7	3.5	2.7		2.6	2.5	2.9	3.0	2.9	2.9
KENYA	2.9	2.9	2.9		2.9	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.0
LESOTHO			1.7		2.0	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8
NIGERIA		1.4	2.0		2.5	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6
BOLIVIA	1.5	1.4	1.4		2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4
PARAGUAY	2.4	2.4	2.6		3.1	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4
PERU	3.0	2.8	3.0		3.2	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1

SOURCE: *Population Reference Bureau Data Sheet, Charts for 1964 through 1973, except for 1967 when the U.N. changed its data collection methodology.*

Chart 7  
NUMBER OF LIVE BIRTHS PER 1000 PEOPLE

	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973
GHANA	48-54	48-56	47-54		47-52	47	47	48	47	47
KENYA	46-54	48-55	48-55		48-55	50	50	50	48	48
LESOTHO					40	40	40	40	39	39
NIGERIA	45-53	46-53	47-55		45-53	50	50	50	50	40
BOLIVIA	41-45	41-45	42-46		43-45	44	44	44	44	44
PARAGUAY	45-50	45-50	42-46		42-45	45	45	45	45	45
PERU	42-48	42-48	42-46		44-45	42	44	43	42	42

SOURCE: *Population Reference Bureau Data Sheet, Charts for 1964 through 1973, except for 1967 when the U.N. changed its data collection methodology.*

Chart 8  
INFANT MORTALITY RATES  
 (Per 1000 Live Births)

	<u>1964</u>	<u>1965</u>	<u>1966</u>	<u>1967</u>	<u>1968</u>	<u>1969</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1971</u>	<u>1972</u>	<u>1973</u>
GHANA					150-170	156	156	156	122	156
KENYA						132				
LESOTHO						181	181	181	181	181
NIGERIA										
BOLIVIA		135-155				99				
PARAGUAY		110-120				80	52	52	67	
PERU		95-105				63	62	62	72	

SOURCE: *Population Reference Bureau Data Sheet*, Charts for 1964 through 1973, except for 1967 when the U.N. changed its data collection methodology.

Chart 9  
TOTAL MALE/FEMALE POPULATION DISTRIBUTION  
 (Population in Thousands)

GHANA	1960	M	3,400	50.6%
		F	3,326	49.4%
KENYA	1962	M	4,276	49.5%
		F	4,359	50.5%
	1969	M	5,482	50.1%
		F	5,460	49.9%
LESOTHO	1966	M	368	43.2%
		F	484	56.8%
NIGERIA	1963	M	28,111	50.5%
		F	27,558	49.5%
BOLIVIA	1950	M	1,326	49.0%
		F	1,378	51.0%
PARAGUAY	1962	M	894	49.2%
		F	924	50.8%
PERU	1961	M	4,925	49.7%
		F	4,981	50.3%
	1972	M	6,786	50.0%
		F	6,785	50.0%

SOURCE: *United Nations Statistical Yearbook*, for years 1973, 1971, 1969, 1967, 1965.

### Labor Force Participation

The accompanying charts provide a picture of the modern sector of our countries' economies; most data does not include petty traders or family workers, (An exception is the Ghanaian census data which accounts for both the traditional and modern sectors -- see chart/footnotes for further explanation.) Because data is not usually broken out by rural/urban distribution, cross national comparisons of rural sector employment are very difficult to establish. In addition, definitions of "economically active" vary from country to country; for some societies, women who do not carry out cash transactions are not considered economically active. Women in the modern sector appear to be most active in agriculture, commerce, industry, and services; they participate very little in the utilities and transportation sectors.<sup>1</sup>

- 
1. Agriculture: includes farming, hunting, fishing, and forestry.  
Commerce: buying and selling.  
Industry: includes manufacturing, mining, and construction.  
Services: domestic services, health and education.  
Utilities: includes electricity, gas, and water.  
Transportation: includes shipping, trucking, railroads, aviation.

Chart 10  
PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND FEMALES WHO ARE "ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE"

GHANA	1960 <sup>1</sup>	M	49.3%
		F	31.4%
LESOTHO	1946 <sup>1</sup>	M	63.5%
		F	65.0%
	1966 <sup>2</sup>	M	44.5%
		F	56.6%
NIGERIA	1952-53 <sup>1</sup>	M	54.4%
		F	41.7%
	1952-53 <sup>3</sup>	M	47.6%
		F	38.1%
	1963 <sup>2</sup>	M	49.4%
		F	16.0%
BOLIVIA	1950 <sup>4</sup>	M	58.8%
		F	42.2%
PARAGUAY	1962 <sup>2</sup>	M	50.7%
		F	14.4%
PERU	1961 <sup>2</sup>	M	49.6%
		F	13.6%

SOURCES:

<sup>1</sup> *Demographic Handbook for Africa*, UNECA, MARCH 1968; Table 25, p.109. Differences in activity rates may be due to cultural influences, differences in definition of activities and categories (especially family workers) and reporting errors.

<sup>2</sup> ESOSOC Document, E/CN.6/575 Add.3, "Study of the Interrelationship of the Status of Women and Family Planning," December 7, 1973. Definitions of "economic activity" vary widely. For Paraguay and Peru the Indian jungle populations have been excluded.

<sup>3</sup> *Population Census of Nigeria 1952-1953*, Department of Statistics, Lagos, Nigeria, 1953. Statistics are based on a survey of establishments employing 10 or more persons (some establishments fail to fill out and return their survey document to the government).

<sup>4</sup> Kenneth Ruddle and Kathleen Barrows, *Statistical Abstract of Latin America 1973*, University of California, Los Angeles, 1974. Figures based on 1.3% sample tabulation of census returns (the Indian jungle population is excluded).

Chart 11: PERCENT MALE AND FEMALE BY ECONOMIC SECTOR (a)

		<u>Agriculture</u>	<u>Commerce</u>	<u>Industry</u>	<u>Services</u>	<u>Utilities</u>	<u>Transportation</u>	<u>Total</u>
GHANA	1960 <sup>1</sup> M	64	6	17	8	1	4	100
	F	58	28	11	3	.1	.1	100
1960 <sup>2</sup>	M	17	9	35	24	4	10	100
	F	15	10	19	48	1	6	100
1965 <sup>2</sup>	M	13	9	35	31	4	8	100
	F	25	9	12	50	1	4	100
1969 <sup>2</sup>	M	11	9	36	32	5	8	100
	F	16	9	16	53	1	5	100
NIGERIA	1965 <sup>3</sup> M	10	7	35	35	3	10	100
	F	14	6	10	66	.3	3	100
BOLIVIA	1950 <sup>4</sup> M	69	4	12	2	Other		100
	F	75	5	9	9	13		100
PARAGUAY	1950 <sup>4</sup> M	63	6	15	10	6		100
	F	24	12	30	34	.5		100
PERU	1940 <sup>4</sup> M	66	5	13	3	12		100
	F	55	4	25	12	3		100
1961 <sup>4</sup>	M	55	8	16	10	11		100
	F	32	12	17	35	5		100
1971 <sup>5</sup>	M	49	10	13	12	1	5	100
	F	46	15	10	14	.5	1	100

(a) Data for Kenya and Lesotho not available; (b) Totals are approximate, percentages are rounded off.

<sup>1</sup> 1960 Census of Ghana, Vol. IV, Census Office; Accra, Ghana, 1964. All farmers are included in the agriculture percentage. The high commerce percentage is due to inclusion of all petty traders, who are predominantly women.

<sup>2</sup> 1960 Census Report for Ghana, 1974 (civil service not included). Apparently subsistence farmers & petty traders not counted.

<sup>3</sup> 1960 Census Report for Nigeria, 1973. The report notes that most labor surveys count only establishments employing ten or more employees, thereby excluding small business participation and small farms where women are most active, p. 50.

<sup>4</sup> 1940 and 1961 "Economic Activity of Women in Latin America" OAS. Data does not specify economically active population.

<sup>5</sup> 1971 "Economic Activity of Women in Latin America" OAS. Data does not specify economically active population.

Chart 12  
PERCENT OF SECTORAL WORKERS WHO ARE FEMALE (a)

		<u>Agriculture</u>	<u>Commerce</u>	<u>Industry</u>	<u>Services</u>	<u>Utilities</u>	<u>Transportation</u>
GHANA	1960 <sup>1</sup>	36	74	28	20	1	1
	1960 <sup>2</sup>	4	5	3	9	1	3
	1965 <sup>2</sup>	15	9	3	13	3	4
	1969 <sup>2</sup>	12	9	4	14	1	5
KENYA	1963 <sup>3</sup>	19	10	6	16		5
	1965 <sup>3</sup>	18	10	6	16		5
	1968 <sup>4</sup>	19	11	6	16		6
	1971 <sup>5</sup>	17	10	12	20	2	6
NIGERIA	1965 <sup>6</sup>	10	6	7	13	1	2
PARAGUAY	1950 <sup>7</sup>	10	39	NA	50	1	4
	1962 <sup>7</sup>	9	40	37	51	3	4
PERU	1961 <sup>8</sup>	11	27	15	49	5	5

(a) Data for Lesotho and Bolivia is not available.

<sup>1</sup> 1960 Population Census of Ghana, Vol. IV; Census Office; Accra, Ghana, 1964. All farmers are included in the agriculture percentage. The high commerce percentage is due to the inclusion of all petty traders, who are predominantly women.

<sup>2</sup> ECA Country Report for Ghana, 1974. Statistics do not include civil service employment. It appears that subsistence farmers and petty traders are not counted.

<sup>3</sup> Employment and Earnings, 1963-1967; General Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Finance and Planning, Statistics Division; Nairobi, Kenya. The data does not include the public sector.

<sup>4</sup> Unpublished data from the General Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Finance and Planning, Nairobi, Kenya. Data includes the public sector.

<sup>5</sup> Employment and Earning in the Modern Sector, 1971; General Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Finance and Planning, Nairobi, Kenya, 1973. The data was located in an ECOSOC document for the ECA, E/CN.14/SW/37. The data appears to include only wage employees; many countries still do not consider women as economically active.

<sup>6</sup> ECA Country Report for Nigeria, 1973. The report notes that most labor surveys count only establishments employing ten or more persons, thereby excluding small business participation where women are most active, p. 50.

<sup>7</sup> Area Handbook for Paraguay; American University, Foreign Area Studies, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1972. Data adapted from the Yearbook of Labor Statistics, International Labor Office, for the years 1960 and 1970. The ILO does not include family laborers or petty traders in its statistics.

<sup>8</sup> Censo Nacional de Población, Tomo IV, Características Económicas; Lima, Peru, 1961. Does not specify economically active population.

B. Application of Rural Sector Data to Basic Project Types  
by Country

This section will include cross-country comparisons of rural sector data grouped under four major project descriptions: agricultural production and income; family care; small industry and marketing; and community projects. Rural sector data was not collected on a project-by-project basis; we have elected to categorize it by broad project type to facilitate comparison. Project-specific data collection will be discussed in Section II, Part C.

Attention has been focused on the agricultural sector because this is the project area in which rural women now play their largest, yet least recognized role. This concentration in no way denigrates the importance of women in the other three project types, but these other types are regarded either as more traditional areas of female participation, or as being less crucial to the process of integrating women into national development.

Women's roles in decision-making and their participation in each activity (data point) are discussed -- e.g., use of credit, acceptance of modern inputs, membership in a farmer's cooperative -- as they necessarily bear upon new project design. In other words, these are the data points in regard to which project organizers must be cognizant of women's

influence, in order to most effectively tap women's economic potential.

The accompanying charts are suggestive illustrations of the proportionate contributions of rural men and women to participation and decision-making in the agricultural sector. Each judgment on participation or decision-making roles is based on data collected either at home or in the field, and is accordingly referenced.<sup>1</sup>

The cross-country analysis will also take note of data gaps -- i.e., areas requiring further research before a necessary input to project design can be supplied. Throughout, the analysis will point up what appear to be consistent patterns of decision-making and participation, as well as fundamental differences by country which must be taken into consideration by project designers.

---

<sup>1</sup>

We would stress that conclusions are based on rural sector data which clearly is both incomplete and region-within-country specific. Conclusions are indicative rather than definitive.

*1. Project Type: Increasing Agricultural Production and Income*

The accompanying chart reveals that women in all seven countries play key roles in agricultural production and marketing; however, their inputs into corollary activities -- i.e., cooperative membership, use of credit and modern inputs -- are more subtle. And these activities are often critical for the introduction of modern agricultural technology. In other words, for such activities, women make contributions to decision-making, but generally the husband is the one to articulate the decision and act upon it. Nevertheless wifely advice appears to be substantial enough to warrant serious consideration by project designers. Often a wife's influence is negative, due to lack of education; however, at other times she is the prime mover, and her input becomes the deciding factor.

Chart 13 MALE/FEMALE DECISION-MAKING AND PARTICIPATION IN AGRICULTURE<sup>1</sup>

		CARRY OUT AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION		USE MODERN INPUTS		JOIN COOPERATIVES		OBTAIN CREDIT		PETTY TRADING		SELL CASH CROPS		PUT ASIDE SAVINGS	
		D	P	D	P	D	P	D	P	D	P	D	P	D	P
GHANA	North	Hw	HW	H	HW	H	Hw	H	H	HW	hw	H	H	H	H
	South	HW	HW	Hw	HW	Hw	HW	Hw	Hw	W	W	HW	HW	Hw	Hw
KENYA		Hw	HW	HW	HW	Hw	HW	H	H	HW	HW	Hw	HW	HW	HW
LESOTHO		Hw	HW	Hw	hw	Hw	Hw	H	HW	HW	HW	H	HW	HW	HW
NIGERIA	North	H	Hw	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	HW	H	H	H	H
	South	Hw	HW	Hw	Hw	Hw	Hw	Hw	Hw	HW	hw	H	Hw	Hw	HW
BOLIVIA		HW	HW	HW	HW	Hw	H	Hw	H	W	W	Hw	H	hw	HW
PARAGUAY		Hw	HW	H	H	H	H	H	H	HW	W	H	Hw	Hw	H
PERU		HW	HW	HW	HW	Hw	H	HW	Hw	W	W	Hw	H	hw	HW

48

**KEY** H = Husband decides or participates in activity  
Hw = Husband decides or participates in activity with inputs from wife  
HW = Both husband and wife decide or participate in activity  
hw = Wife decides or participates in activity with inputs from husband  
W = Wife decides or participates in activity  
D = Decides how, when and what to do  
P = Participates actively once decision is made

<sup>1</sup> This chart is based primarily on data collected by women field researchers and DAI field staff. Some information was found in U.S.-based literature sources, but most of the data on which the chart is based was gathered in the field.

### Carrying Out of Agricultural Production

As the chart suggests, women are active in various phases of agricultural production in all seven countries; surprisingly, their role in deciding what crops to plant is larger than would perhaps have been anticipated. In northern Ghana, women manage all aspects of yam production, from planting and weeding to harvesting, and decide on the planting of maize and guinea corn. Husbands make decisions as to the growing of cash crops -- rice, tobacco and cotton. In the south, the situation varies somewhat, with husbands and wives more or less sharing agricultural labor. There are, however, women who own cocoa farms, and they take responsibility for planting decisions, as well as tilling the land. In Tiv areas of Nigeria, a more traditional division of labor prevails: women do light farming tasks, such as weeding, and men handle the heavy work and determine planting schedules, with minor inputs from their wives. Northern Muslim husbands in Nigeria dominate in both participation and decision-making, with women contributing slightly to farm production.

Division of labor in the fields has begun to break down in Kenya, thanks to the introduction of cash crops and the demand for male labor in heavily settled areas of the country. Kikuyu women have increasingly taken on farming responsibilities

formerly held by their husbands, including hoeing, sowing, weeding, and harvesting of cash crops, as well as family production. In pastoral areas too, females are becoming more active in farm activities; among the Masai and Somali peoples, women and girls have gradually assumed more responsibility for tending cattle, sheep and goats. Decision-making roles are also blurring, with Kenyan women determining, along with their men, the schedules of planting and crop care for both cash production and family crops. Women heads-of-household have charge of all decisions involving their farms.

A breakdown in division of labor similar to that in Kenya is occurring in Lesotho, where male migration to South Africa is so heavy that women perform traditionally male tasks out of economic necessity. Women herd and tend cattle and, as mentioned earlier, spend many hours a day hoeing during the season. However, decisions as to what crops to plant and when remain with the men, and designers of agricultural projects in Lesotho are realizing that extension workers must journey to South African mines to reach the males, if changes in farming habits are to be effected.

Indian campesinas in Andean Peru and Bolivia participate equally in farming with their men, with women carrying out activities not requiring great strength, such as planting,

spreading fertilizer, weeding, rotating crops, gathering produce, threshing, etc. In Peru, a rural woman may assume all agricultural chores during the early years of marriage, when her husband may migrate to the coast in search of greater economic opportunity. The same situation applies when a male migrates to join work crews of coastal haciendas or contracts work as a day-laborer on a neighboring plantation. However, Peruvian women, according to field data, have virtually no say in planting decisions. Their Bolivian counterparts, on the other hand, do share in determining planting schedules, especially for newly-introduced crops. There seems to be no set pattern for participation of Paraguayan females in agricultural production, their activities ranging from almost no farming tasks to tending of garden plots and planting and plowing with their menfolk. Decisions on planting are primarily the male's domain, with the wife making minor inputs.

CARRY OUT AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

		<u>D</u>	<u>P</u>
GHANA	North	Hw	HW
	South	HW	HW
KENYA		Hw	HW
LESOTHO		Hw	HW
NIGERIA	North	H	Hw
	South	Hw	HW
BOLIVIA		HW	HW
PARAGUAY		Hw	HW
PERU		HW	HW

GHANA (North and South)Decision-Making:

1. In Northern Ghana, particularly among Muslim tribal groups, there is a male-dominated society where the women grow and market (if there is excess) food crops. A proportion of the food is given to the husband who if wealthy may have as many as four or five wives. The women are allowed to receive a nominal amount of the proceeds. Field reporting of Charles Sweet, who collected data from Christian Service Committee's Agricultural Program and the Ghanaian Government/German Agricultural Project in the Northern and Upper Region, the UNDP/FAO Fertilizer Use Project and the Denu Shallots Project in the Volta Region, the Biriwa Project in the Cape Coast Region, and the IBRD Suhum Cocoa Rehabilitation Project.

Participation:

1. Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.
2. Field report of Charles Sweet.

KENYADecision-Making:

1. Field report of Charles Sweet, who collected data from Vihiga Special Rural Development Program, Tetu Special Rural Development Program, Lirhembe Project, and the Kenya Tea Authority Project.

Carry Out Agricultural Production (continued):KENYA (Continued)Participation:

1. Field report of Achola Pala.
2. Jomo Kenyatta, *Facing Mount Kenya*, Secker and Warburg, London, 1953, p. 53-57,175.

LESOTHODecision-Making:

1. Field report of Elliott R. Morss and Charles Sweet, who collected data from Thaba Bosiu Rural Development Project and the Leribe Rural Development Project.

Participation:

1. Sandra Wallman, *Take Out Hunger: Two Case Studies of Rural Development in Basutoland*, The Athlone Press, London, 1969, pp. 44, 50 and 54.

NIGERIA (North and South)Decision-Making:

1. Field report from Sole Adesina
2. Paul and Laura Bohannon, *Tiv Economy*, Northwestern University Press, Evanston, 1968, pp. 66-69, 136.

3. In northern Nigeria, particularly among Muslim tribes, there is a male-dominated society where the women grow and market (if there is excess) food crops. A proportion of the food is given to the husband who if wealthy may have as many as four or five wives. The women are allowed to receive a nominal amount of the proceeds. Field report from Charles Sweet, who collected data from Abeokuta Rice and Maize Company in the Western State, the Zaria Tomato Production Project in the North Central State, the Tiv Bam Program in the Benue Plateau State, and the Uboma Project in the East Central State.

Participation:

1. Bohannon, pp. 66-69.
2. Field report of Charles Sweet.

BOLIVIADecision-Making:

1. Field report from Evelyn Barron.

Participation:

1. Field report from Evelyn Barron.

Carry Out Agricultural Production (continued):PARAGUAYDecision-Making:

1. Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

Participation:

1. Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

PERUDecision-Making:

1. Field reports from Mae Tyler and Nancy Rodriguez.
2. Most decisions about when and what to plant are traditional and simply carried out by the male. However, when a new crop is to be planted both husband and wife make the decisions. Field report from John Hatch, who collected data from the VICOS and ORDEZA Projects.

Participation:

1. Lourdes Carpio, "The Rural Women in Peru: An Alarming Contradiction", *Women*, Dayton, Ohio, 1970, p. 120.
2. Field report from John Hatch

### Use of Modern Inputs

In the majority of our countries, men are the ones to make decisions as to use of modern inputs (e.g., fertilizer, insecticide, new seeds, tractors, etc.), because it is primarily men who benefit from agricultural extension training. Women, as a rule, know less about such technological advances, preferring to rely on tried-and-true natural substances for fertilizer. But once a decision has been made to invest in a modern input, women help in the actual farm activity -- e.g., spreading fertilizer, spraying insecticide, etc.

This appears to be the pattern for most of Africa, although women make major contributions to the decision-making process in Kenya and the cocoa regions of southern Ghana. According to field data, there is no indication that men and women in rural Ghana differ in their willingness to experiment with new seed varieties, use of plow or tractor, etc. Northern Nigerian women are not involved in determinations as to use of modern inputs, although their southern counterparts do help their husbands in arriving at and implementing the decision. Basotho women, again because of male migration, take prime responsibility for using new technology, although the husband remains the chief decision-maker.

Sheltered Paraguayan women have virtually nothing to say regarding the use of modern inputs.

USE MODERN INPUTS

		<i>D</i>	<i>P</i>
GHANA	North	H	HW
	South	Hw	HW
KENYA		HW	HW
LESOTHO		Hw	hw
NIGERIA	North	H	H
	South	Hw	Hw
BOLIVIA		HW	HW
PARAGUAY		H	H
PERU		HW	HW

GHANA (North and South)Decision-Making:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

KENYADecision-Making:

1. Field report of Achola Pala.

Participation:

1. Field report of Achola Pala.

LESOTHODecision-Making:

1. Field report from Elliott Morss and Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Elliott Morss and Charles Sweet.

Use Modern Inputs (continued):NIGERIA (North and South)Decision-Making:

1. Field report from Sole Adesina.
2. Field report from Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

BOLIVIADecision-Making:

1. Field report from Evelyn Barron.
2. All family decisions in Andean Bolivia regarding the use of modern inputs are made by both husband and wife. Field report from John Hatch, who collected data from the DESEC small farmer and potato production projects and the National Community Development Service communities.

PARAGUAYDecision-Making:

1. Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

Participation:

1. Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

PERUDecision-Making:

1. Field report from Nancy Rodriguez.

Participation:

1. Field report from John Hatch.

### Joining Agricultural Cooperatives

Joining an agricultural cooperative seems to be the prerogative of the husband although, as the chart shows, women have gradually gained the right to participate in three countries -- Ghana, Kenya, and Nigeria. For the three Latin American countries, membership in farming cooperatives continues to be strictly the male's domain.<sup>1</sup>

However, field data indicates that women do enter into the decision-making process in Latin America, although their inputs are made subtly, behind the scenes. Often, out of ignorance of the benefits of farming associations, Peruvian and Bolivian campesinas will exercise a negative influence on their husbands -- i.e., if the wife disapproves of her husband's plan to join a cooperative, he will in all likelihood stay out. Likewise, if she becomes excited about a certain cooperative project, she can probably persuade her man to participate. The point to be made is that although the husband is the one who publicly articulates the decision and acts upon it, the wife's influence is often decisive. Paraguayan women, though often equally as uninformed as their Bolivian and Peruvian counterparts regarding cooperative membership, appear to exercise minimal influence on their

---

<sup>1</sup> Widows in Bolivia and Peru apparently have the right to join farmers' associations, according to field data from John Hatch.

husbands one way or the other. Field data from Paraguay suggests that membership in cooperatives is strictly a masculine priority.

Southern Ghanaian women have formed farming cooperatives for the processing of palm kernels. Newly-acquired machines to press out oil from the kernels have freed women from this formerly arduous task, and have improved both the quality and quantity of palm oil. In the north, women have been permitted to join tobacco cooperatives. Field data from Nigeria suggests that in the southern part of the country women are beginning to join cooperatives with or without the knowledge of their husbands. In Kenya, women not only have some say in whether husbands should join cooperatives but are actually joining themselves.<sup>1</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup> Adrienne Germain and Audrey Smock, p. 27. It should be noted that Achola Pala in her field report states that in low potential areas, farming cooperatives are uncommon, and that therefore decisions on whether to join do not arise.

JOIN COOPERATIVES

		<i>D</i>	<i>P</i>
GHANA	North	H	Hw
	South	Hw	HW
KENYA		Hw	HW
LESOTHO		Hw	Hw
NIGERIA	North	H	H
	South	Hw	Hw
BOLIVIA		Hw	H
PARAGUAY		E	E
PERU		Hw	H

GHANA (North and South)Decision-Making:

1. Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.
2. Field report from Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. ECOSOC Document E/CN.6/583/Add. 1, "Status of Rural Women, Especially Agricultural Workers", December 17, 1973, p. 8.

KENYADecision-Making:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

LESOTHODecision-Making:

1. Field report from Elliott Morss and Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Elliott Morss and Charles Sweet.

Join Cooperatives (continued):NIGERIA (North and South)Decision-Making:

1. Field report from Sole Adesina
2. This represents a shift from when the men controlled the decision to join cooperatives or farmer associations. As Ms. Adesina points out, the men in rural areas of Western State still determine this decision, though the women in urban areas can make this decision without the knowledge or consent of their husbands. In the Ibo and Tiv areas visited by Mr. Sweet, the women are joining cooperatives and credit and farmer associations; this decision is normally made jointly by the husband and wife. Previously, the Ibo and Tiv men made this decision. Field report from Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Sole Adesina.
2. Field report from Charles Sweet.

BOLIVIADecision-Making:

1. Field report from John Hatch.

Participation:

1. Field report from John Hatch.

PARAGUAYDecision-Making:

1. Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

Participation:

1. Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

PERUDecision-Making:

1. Field report from Nancy Rodriguez.
2. All family decisions in Andean Peru on changing behavior patterns in order to adapt to modern society are made by both husband and wife. Field report from John Hatch.

Participation:

1. Field report from John Hatch

### Obtaining Credit

As a rule, procuring credit in agricultural enterprises is a male prerogative; however, women in parts of Africa are increasingly gaining access to credit as their contribution to agricultural production becomes more widely recognized.

Northern Nigerian women appear to make minimal inputs, both in credit decisions and participation. Their southern sisters, in particular Tiv and Ibo women, draw credit and assist their husbands to pay it back either in cash earned through their own efforts or through production of farm crops.<sup>1</sup>

In Kenya and Lesotho, particularly those areas where the men migrate to urban centers for employment, the women are left with the everyday production decisions. Recognizing this, the Kenyan government and the Institute for Development Studies recruited women specifically in the Tetu Agricultural Extension Project for training on the growing of hybrid maize. At the end of the training program, the participants were

---

<sup>1</sup> In Nigeria & Ghana, much has been written on the role of the market women. It should be noted that these women are primarily urban-based; in this discussion, we are focusing on the rural family decision-making process. The governments of both Nigeria and Ghana have made significant attempts to break the control of the urban-based market women on rural production and marketing. The way the system works is that the urban market woman will provide credit to the farmer in return for a guarantee that he will sell his crop through her at a price determined during the negotiations; the woman makes from 50% to 100% on her loan to the farmer, through her sale of his produce.

given the option to receive credit; provision had to be made so that the women could consult their husbands who made the final decision on whether to accept it.

In northern Ghana, borrowing is a male domain; however, in the south credit can be obtained by certain female landowners, notably women cocoa farmers.<sup>1</sup> Basotho males make all decisions with regard to credit, but due to the migration factor, the actual drawing of credit is often left to the wives.

As in the case of joining farm cooperatives, credit use decisions in highland Peru and Bolivia are formally the male's domain, but women often make the crucial input. Field data from Peru indicates that it may be the woman who goes out and solicits informal (non-institutional) credit for her husband -- in her name. Paraguayan females, largely through ignorance, take no part in credit decisions or the drawing of credit.

---

<sup>1</sup> They have access to credit from the World Bank Suhum cocoa rehabilitation project.

OBTAIN CREDIT

		<u>D</u>	<u>P</u>
GHANA	North	H	H
	South	Hw	Hw
KENYA		H	H
LESOTHO		H	HW
NIGERIA	North	H	H
	South	Hw	Hw
BOLIVIA		Hw	H
PARAGUAY		H	H
PERU		HW	Hw

GHANA (North and South)Decision-Making:

1. Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.
2. Women cocoa farmers and urban market women are the exceptions, they are allowed to obtain credit. Field report from Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

KENYADecision-Making:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

LESOTHODecision-Making:

1. Field report from Elliott Morss and Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Elliott Morss and Charles Sweet.

Obtain Credit (continued):NIGERIA (North and South)Decision-Making:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

BOLIVIADecision-Making:

1. Field report from John Hatch.

Participation:

1. Field report from John Hatch.

PARAGUAYDecision-Making:

1. Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

Participation:

1. Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

PERUDecision-Making:

1. Since credit is obtainable primarily through banks or the government it is necessary that the man obtain it. Women are not recognized as responsible debtors. It is only in rare cases that the woman may obtain credit from a bank in her name. Field report from John Hatch.

Participation:

1. Field report from John Hatch.

Marketing:<sup>1</sup> Petty Trading and Cash Crops

Rural women play a part in decisions and activities related to the marketing of agricultural produce in all seven countries. In southern Ghana, women not only determine which small crops to sell, but they carry out the major portion of the marketing. For sale of cash crops, both decision-making and participation is shared with husbands. Ghanaian fish mummies are reknowned for their business acumen, and handle the bulk of the country's fish trade. Northern Ghanaian women play a more restricted role in trading, with the men deciding upon and managing all cash crop sales. However, northern Muslim wives handle the bulk of petty trading -- eggs, chickens, yams, etc. -- and make major inputs into decisions as to what to sell.

Women in Nigeria generally have less to say about marketing decisions than their Ghanaian counterparts. Husbands in both northern and southern Nigeria decide what cash crops to sell, and carry out marketing activities. (Southern wives will on occasion help with trading.) Both husbands and wives determine what petty crops will be sold, but wives do the majority of marketing; in some areas, husbands consider it beneath their dignity to engage in petty trading. In the

---

<sup>1</sup> The agricultural production chart breaks out marketing by sale of cash crop and petty trading. For the sake of brevity and clarity the two will be treated together in this section.

conservative Muslim north, men determine the selling of small crops, while women help in the actual trading.

Kenyan women play active roles in marketing, both for cash production and petty cropping. Chances are that a wife will consult her husband before selling produce that they have farmed together; otherwise, she has a fairly free hand in marketing decisions.<sup>1</sup>

Lesotho's situation is unique, as marketing decisions, like agricultural activities, depend on availability of labor, due to the male emigration factor. Decisions on sales of cash crops are handled strictly by males, but women make inputs into petty trade decisions and aid their husbands in the sale of both small and cash crops. When the men are away in South Africa, wives take charge of all marketing activities.

It would appear that Bolivian and Peruvian Indian women handle all aspects of petty trading, determining what to sell and taking the produce to market. It is also women's work to trade in small animals such as chickens, ducks, turkeys and guinea pigs. Husbands, however, make decisions on marketing of cash crops and livestock, and usually are responsible for their sale. In both countries, women are active as street vendors and predominate in town street markets.

---

<sup>1</sup> A Kenyan wife, according to field data from Achola Pala, may not sell cattle, sheep or goats without consulting with her husband or with his male kin. She may, however, make her own decisions on sales of chickens and other small animals.

Paraquayan rural wives usually market family production, such as chickens and manioc, although husbands are chiefly responsible for deciding on what and when to sell. Men market cash crops and livestock, with women occasionally taking part.

PETTY TRADING

GHANA	North	HW	hW
	South	W	W
KENYA		HW	HW
LESOTHO		HW	HW
NIGERIA	North	H	HW
	South	HW	hW
BOLIVIA		W	W
PARAGUAY		HW	W
PERU		W	W

GHANA (North and South)Decision-Making:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet

Participation:

1. *Area Handbook for Ghana*; American University, Foreign Area Studies, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1972, p. 329.
2. Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.
3. Field report from Charles Sweet.

KENYADecision-Making:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Achola Pala.
2. Jomo Kenyatta, *Facing Mount Kenya*, Secker and Warburg, London, 1953, pp. 53-55, 175.

LESOTHODecision-Making:

1. Field report from Elliott Morss and Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Elliott Morss and Charles Sweet.

Petty Marketing (continued):NIGERIA (North and South)Decision-Making:

1. Field report from Sole Adesina.
2. There is an inconsistency in the reporting of Sole Adesina and Charles Sweet. In Western State, both Ms. Adesina and Mr. Sweet agree that the major sales of family goods are determined by the husband. However, on food crops, Mr. Sweet found in the Abeokuta area that women were permitted to sell small portions of food crops. Also, he found that the women in the Tiv and Ibo areas were gaining greater control of decision-making over the sale of food crops as the men became more involved in expanding production of cash crops such as palm oil and rice.

Participation:

1. Field report from Sole Adesina.
2. Field report from Charles Sweet.

BOLIVIADecision-Making:

1. Field report from Evelyn Barron.

Participation:

1. Field report from Evelyn Barron.

PARAGUAYDecision-Making:

1. Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

Participation:

1. Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

PERUDecision-Making:

1. Field report from John Hatch.

Participation:

1. Field report from Nancy Rodriguez.
2. In Andean Peru, since the wife controls the cash flow for the family, she decides if there is an excess to be sold from the food crop. Field report from John Hatch.

SELL CASH CROPS

		<i>D</i>	<i>P</i>
GHANA	North	H	H
	South	HW	HW
KENYA		Hw	HW
LESOTHO		H	HW
NIGERIA	North	H	H
	South	H	Hw
BOLIVIA		Hw	H
PARAGUAY		H	Hw
PERU		Hw	H

GHANA (North and South)Decision-Making:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.
2. In southern Ghana, the women often purchase cash crops from their husbands and then sell them in markets several hundred kilometers from their home area. In northern Ghana, the men make the decisions regarding the sale of tobacco, cotton, and rice -- the major cash crops. Field report from Charles Sweet.

KENYADecision-Making:

1. Field report from Achola Pala.

Participation:

1. Field report from Achola Pala.

LESOTHODecision-Making:

1. Field report from Elliott Morss and Charles Sweet.

Sell Cash Crops (continued):Lesotho (continued)Participation:

1. Field report from Elliott Morss and Charles Sweet.

NIGERIA (North and South)Decision-Making:

1. Field report from Sole Adesina.
2. Field report from Charles Sweet.
3. Paul and Laura Bohannon, *Tiv Economy*, Northwestern University Press, Evanston, 1968, p. 136.

Participation:

1. Bohannon, p. 136.
2. Field reporting from Charles Sweet.

BOLIVIADecision-Making:

1. Field report from John Hatch

Participation:

1. Field report from John Hatch.

PARAGUAYDecision-Making:

1. Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

Participation:

1. Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

PERUDecision-Making:

1. Field report from John Hatch.

Participation:

1. Field report from John Hatch.

### Putting Aside Savings

Women would appear to make marginally bigger inputs to decisions on putting aside savings, compared to decisions on credit. Although in the Muslim north of Ghana savings are handled only by the husband, in southern Ghana wives share in deciding how much of the family income should be laid away. Kenyan women too enter into family decisions on savings; although, according to field data, few savings develop in rural areas because farms are too small and too poor to yield more than subsistence earnings. However, insofar as livestock can be considered savings, the husband generally must be consulted before sale, even when the animals in question were purchased by the wife with her own funds.

In northern Nigeria savings, like credit, are the man's affair. But southern Nigerian Tiv women are actively participating in Tiv "bams"<sup>1</sup> and accumulate surplus yams as savings, to be used in times of emergency and distributed to daughters-in-law according to custom.

In Peru, small animals are considered a form of savings; and women are in charge of their management. The same situation prevails in parts of highland Bolivia. In Paraguay, women display more of a proclivity to save, although when it comes to actual influence on husbands, women's inputs are minimal. Also, in many rural families, the question of savings is moot since so little cash is involved.

---

<sup>1</sup> See project-specific write-up in Appendix "A".

## PUT ASIDE SAVINGS

		<u>D</u>	<u>P</u>
GHANA	North	H	H
	South	Hw	Hw
KENYA		HW	HW
LESOTHO		HW	HW
NIGERIA	North	H	H
	South	Hw	HW
BOLIVIA		hW	HW
PARAGUAY		Hw	H
PERU		hW	HW

GHANA (North and South)Decision-Making:

1. Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.
2. Field report from Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.
2. Field report from Charles Sweet.

KENYADecision-Making:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

LESOTHODecision-Making:

1. Field report from Elliott Morss and Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Elliott Morss and Charles Sweet.

Put Aside Savings (continued):NIGERIA (North and South)Decision-Making:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

Participation:

1. Field report from Charles Sweet.

BOLIVIADecision-Making:

1. Field report from John Hatch.

Participation:

1. Field report from John Hatch.

PARAGUAYDecision-Making:

1. Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

Participation:

1. Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

PERUDecision-Making:

1. Field report from Mae Tyler.
2. Field report from Nancy Rodriguez.
3. Control of the cash flow is the responsibility of the woman in Andean Peru. As a result, the woman makes the decision to save and ensures that her husband contributes his share. Field report from John Hatch.

Participation:

1. Field report from Mae Tyler.
2. Field report from Nancy Rodriguez.
3. Field report from John Hatch.

## **2. Project Type: Family Care**

This functional project type can be said to describe development programs in family health, nutrition, child care and education, and family planning. Relevant data points include: health, nutrition, education of children, home economics (and vocational) training, and attitudes towards contraception. Data points have not been broken down by decision-making inputs and participation, since in most cases, the female is the prime mover in family care activities.

Chart 14  
MALE/FEMALE DECISION MAKING AND PARTICIPATION IN FAMILY CARE<sup>1</sup>

	Health	Nutrition	Education of Children	Number of Children	Home Economics Training	Willingness to Use Contraception
GHANA	W	W	Hw	HW	W	p
KENYA	W	W	HW	Hw	W	p
NIGERIA	hW	W	HW		W	NP
BOLIVIA	W	W	Hw	H	W	NP
PARAGUAY	hW	W	Hw	H	W	NP
PERU	W	W	HW	H	W	NP

KEY

H = Husband decides and participates in activity.  
Hw = Husband decides and participates in activity with inputs from wife.  
HW = both husband and wife decide and participate in activity.  
hW = Wife decides and participates in activity with inputs from husband.  
W = Wife decides and participates in activity.

p = Little participation  
NP = No participation.

NOTESHEALTH

GHANA -- Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.  
KENYA -- Field report from Achola Pala.  
NIGERIA -- Field report from Sole Adesina.  
BOLIVIA -- Field report from Evelyn Barron.  
PARAGUAY -- Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.  
PERU -- Field reports from Nancy Rodriguez and Mae Tyler.

NUTRITION

GHANA -- Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.  
KENYA -- Field report from Achola Pala.  
NIGERIA -- Field report from Sole Adesina.  
BOLIVIA -- Field report from Evelyn Barron.

<sup>1</sup> Data not available for Lesotho.

Male/Female Decision-Making and Participation in Family Care -- Notes  
(continued)

Nutrition (continued)

PARAGUAY -- Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.  
PERU -- Field reports from Nancy Rodriguez and Mae Tyler.

EDUCATION OF CHILDREN

GHANA --

1. Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.
2. Bruce T. Grindal, *Growing Up in Two Worlds: Education and Transition Among the Sisala of Northern Ghana*, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., New York, 1972, pp. 80-82.

KENYA --

1. Jane Wills, "A Study of Time Allocation by Rural Women and Their Place in Decision-Making: Preliminary Findings from the Embu District," Makerere University, 1967.
2. Field report from Achola Pala.

NIGERIA -- Field report from Sole Adesina.  
BOLIVIA -- Field report from Evelyn Barron.  
PARAGUAY -- Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.  
PERU -- Field report from Nancy Rodriguez.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN

GHANA -- Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.  
KENYA -- Field report from Achola Pala.  
NIGERIA -- No data  
BOLIVIA -- Field report from John Hatch.  
PARAGUAY -- Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.  
PERU -- Field report from Nancy Rodriguez.

HOME ECONOMICS TRAINING

GHANA -- Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.  
KENYA -- Achola O. Pala, "The Role of Women in Rural Development: Research Priorities," paper for *Workshop to Explore Establishment of National Socio-Economic Research Capabilities Relating to Agriculture*, Nairobi, February 25-28, 1974.  
NIGERIA -- Field report from Sole Adesina.  
BOLIVIA -- Field report from Bambi Eddy.  
PARAGUAY -- Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.  
PERU -- Henry F. Dobyns, Paul L. Doughty, Harold D. Laswell, Editors, *Peasants, Power, and Applied Social Change: VICOS as a Model*, Sage Publications, Beverly Hills, 1964, p. 145.

Male/Female Decision-Making and Participation in Family Care -- Notes  
(continued)

WILLINGNESS TO USE CONTRACEPTION

GHANA --

1. Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.
2. Walter Birmingham, I. Neustadt, and E. N. Omaboe, Editors, *Some Aspects of Social Structure in Ghana*, Northwestern University Press, Evanston, 1964, p. 73.

KENYA --

1. *Employment, Incomes and Equality in Kenya*, International Labor Organization, Geneva, 1972, pp. 125-126.
2. Field report from Achola Pala.

NIGERIA --

1. "Nigeria: Cultural Barriers to Family Planning Among the Yoruba," *Studies in Family Planning*, #37, The Population Council, New York, January 1969, p. 13.
2. *Country Profiles: Nigeria*, The Population Council, New York, February 1973, p. 8.

BOLIVIA -- Field report from Evelyn Barron.

PARAGUAY -- Field report from Christina H. Schoux.

PERU -- Field report from Nancy Rodriguez.

Health

As the accompanying chart suggests, responsibility for the health and medical care of the family rests with the female in all countries for which field reports were received. It is she who cares for the children and other family members when they fall sick, except perhaps in Paraguay and southern Nigeria where men must be considered if a surgical operation seems necessary. Our field researcher in Paraguay reported that in many local health centers only women and children were ever seen, except for emergency cases.

### Nutrition<sup>1</sup>

For nutritional care and dietary planning, again it is the female who is the decision maker in all countries for which field reports are available. "Nutrition care" may be a misnomer, as rural females in the majority of our countries are not aware that substandard eating habits are a prime cause of health problems. In several countries, adherence to traditional family likes and dislikes as well as taboos of cooking foods cause the woman to eliminate from the family diet foods with high nutritional value. Most home extension development projects now in progress in these countries (e.g., Ghana, Bolivia, Nigeria, Paraguay, and Peru) include a nutrition education program for the female as a prime component.

---

<sup>1</sup> It was not the intent in this section to discuss actual dietary practices in our seven countries. Much well-documented research has been done on this subject.

### Education of Children

Field data was both sparse and undetailed for education of children; nevertheless, for countries where data was received, a pattern of joint decision-making prevails. In southern Ghana, generally the husbands determine how many and which of the children will attend school; however, in the Sisala area of northern Ghana men decide on schooling for sons and women for girls.<sup>1</sup>

Data from Kenya indicates that women make major inputs to decisions on educating children, although other literature suggests that men take responsibility for sending children to school where decisions involving money are concerned. In southern Nigeria, both parents have a hand in the decision, with women perhaps taking a more active role in the struggle to give their children an education.

In Latin America, decisions on educating the children are a joint affair, with the husband taking the upper hand in Bolivia and Paraguay. If Paraguayan rural youngsters are not needed to work in the fields, the father may give his permission for them to attend school, but it is the mother who will enforce his decision. Field data indicates that female children in Paraguay are often held back, because they are needed

---

<sup>1</sup> This observation does not necessarily apply for the rest of northern Ghana.

in the home and because parents fear that girls will leave the countryside if they become too educated.

Indian fathers in rural Bolivia are the principal decision-makers as to whether their children will attend school, although it is the wife who has responsibility for helping children with their school work at home and for preparing them for classes. In highland Peru, the decision to educate the children appears to be a joint one, according to field data.

### Attitudes Towards Contraception and Number of Children

Family planning programs are beginning to affect rural areas in our seven countries, but the process is slow, and the vast majority of rural women continue to lack access to birth control education and methods.<sup>1</sup>

According to field data from Paraguay, family planning is almost unheard of in many rural areas. Peruvian and Bolivian wives in rural communities have little or no access to birth control methods, and most babies arrive unplanned.

In southern Ghana, some wives go so far as to return to their parental homes for long periods, having exhorted their husbands to have relations with other women. Field data suggests that family planning education is at last reaching rural women, with some women spacing births beyond the traditional two and a half to three year interval.

While an increasing number of rural Kenyan women have begun questioning the traditional propensity to have large families, Kenyan parents on the whole prefer to have many children as a

---

<sup>1</sup> For individual country policies towards family planning and more details on attitudes towards contraception, see the "Present Status" section of this report in part IIA.

hedge against high infant mortality and as a form of social security in old age.<sup>1</sup>

The question of which parent decides as to optimal family size is complex; most field researchers suggested that in the absence of contraception, the husband's preoccupation with continuous sexual relations produced many and unplanned births. It appears reasonable that future family planning education programs must be directed at the husband (as well as the wife) if he prevails in decision-making with regard to family size.

---

<sup>1</sup> Field data: Achola Pala

### Home Economics Training

This is the area of development assistance most directly aimed at rural females in virtually all third world countries. Home economics training can be defined as education in such activity skills as: sewing, cooking, dietary planning and nutrition, backyard gardening, kitchen and home improvement, and in some cases handicraft production.

Rural women in all seven countries under study here are profiting from such projects, often (but not always) instituted under a country's home extension program which is usually situated in the government's Ministry of Agriculture. For examples of projects including a home economics training component, see project-specific descriptions in the separate appendix to this report.

Vocational training available to rural women in schools outside the community generally focuses on home economics skills, with a minimum of emphasis on teaching women better methods of agricultural production. Ester Boserup points up the dangers inherent in limiting women's vocational training possibilities to education in home crafts and family skills;<sup>1</sup> one such danger is the higher rate of migration to cities, as rural females seek more remunerative jobs. Boserup implies

---

<sup>1</sup> Ester Boserup, *Woman's Role in Economic Development*, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., London, 1970.

that a greater emphasis on agricultural training for girls would both stem the flight-from-the-countryside trend, as well as increase rural women's productivity on the farm. She also notes that there are very few agricultural training facilities for women anywhere in the third world.<sup>1</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup> Boserup, p. 221. Field data from Christina Mussey Schoux suggests new non-formal education projects in Paraguay will offer women the chance to participate in farming courses. Also, see project-specific write-up for the Pillapi training school in Bolivia, where limited courses in small plot agriculture are available to rural women, Appendix "A".

*3. Project Type: Other Rural Sector Production  
and Income Opportunities*

Development projects described by this functional type include those in handicraft production and other on-farm employment. Miscellaneous small farm production and marketing have been dealt with in the first project type section, "Increasing Agricultural Production and Income." Relevant data points are handicrafts: production and sale, and the use of women's own income. Here again, no delineation has been made between decision-making and participation.

Chart 15  
MALE/FEMALE DECISION-MAKING AND PARTICIPATION  
IN OTHER RURAL SECTOR PRODUCTION AND INCOME OPPORTUNITIES

	Handicraft Production	Marketing of Handicrafts	Use of Women's Own Income
GHANA	HW	HW	W
KENYA	HW	W	W
LESOTHO	HW	HW	W
NIGERIA	HW	HW	W
BOLIVIA	W	W	W
PARAGUAY	W	W	Hw
PERU	HW	W	W

KEY

- H = Husband decides and participates in activity.  
 Hw = Husband decides and participates in activity with inputs from wife.  
 HW = Both husband and wife decide and participates in activity.  
 hw = Wife decides and participates in activity with inputs from husband.  
 W = Wife decides and participates in activity.

NOTESHANDICRAFT PRODUCTION

GHANA -- Cloth making, woodcarving and some weaving are done by both men and women.  
 Field report from Charles Sweet.

KENYA --

1. Field report from Achola Pala.
2. Jomo Kenyatta, *Facing Mount Kenya*, Secker and Warburg, London, 1953, pp. 53-55, 175.

LESOTHO -- *ECA Country Report for Lesotho, 1972*, p. 7.

NIGERIA -- Leather goods and skins, ebony carvings, paintings and weaving are made by both men and women. Field report from Charles Sweet.

BOLIVIA -- Field report from Evelyn Barron.

PARAGUAY -- Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

PERU --

1. Field report from Nancy Rodriguez.
2. Lourdes Carpio, "The Rural Women in Peru: An Alarming Contradiction," *Women*, Dayton, Ohio, 1970, pp. 102-103.

Male/Female Decision-Making and Participation In Other Rural Sector  
Production and Income Opportunities -- Notes (continued)

MARKETING OF HANDICRAFTS

GHANA -- Field report from Charles Sweet.  
 KENYA -- Field report from Achola Pala.  
 LESOTHO -- Field report from Charles Sweet.  
 NIGERIA -- Field report from Charles Sweet.  
 BOLIVIA -- Field report from Evelyn Barron.  
 PARAGUAY -- Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.  
 PERU -- Carpio, p. 103.

USE OF WOMEN'S OWN INCOME

GHANA --

1. Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.
2. "The Employment and Conditions of Work of African Women," Table 8, International Labor Organization, Geneva, 1964.

KENYA --

1. "Women in Developing Countries: Case Studies of Six Countries," Swedish International Development Agency, 1973, p. 25.
2. Adrienne Germain and Audrey Smock, *The Status and Roles of Ghanaian and Kenyan Women: Implications for Fertility Behavior*, September 1974, p. 16.

LESOTHO -- Field report from Elliott Morss and Charles Sweet.

NIGERIA --

1. Field report from Sole Adesina.
2. *Area Handbook for Nigeria*, American University, Foreign Area Studies, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1972, p. 275.
3. Ester Boserup, *Woman's Role in Economic Development*, George Allen and Unwin, Ltd., London, 1972, p. 60.

BOLIVIA -- Field report from Evelyn Barron.

PARAGUAY --

1. Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.
2. *Area Handbook for Paraguay*, American University, Foreign Area Studies, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1972, p. 62.

PERU --

1. Field report from Nancy Rodriguez.
2. Field report from Mae Tyler.

### Production and Sale of Handicrafts

Handicraft production is a chief occupation for women in many countries. It includes such activities as basket-weaving, pottery, lace-making, blanket-weaving, and leather crafting. Husbands participate in craft-making as well, but it appears to be a female-dominated activity.

In Kenya, women specialize in making baskets and pottery, although in certain districts, manufacture of baskets is a male activity. Many are collected by Mandaleo, the national women's organization, for sale and display in Nairobi shops. As the result of a visit to Lesotho in 1964 by an ILO small industry expert, the Village Industries Development Organization was set up to help craftsmen and rural women launch cottage industries. According to one source, in 1967, 440 women were trained in handicrafts and over \$11,000 worth of goods were sold. In Ghana, both men and women produce and sell cloth, woodcarvings and woven goods.

In Peru, also, both men and women join in production of handicrafts, with men turning out artisan crafts and women making goods for family use. Marketing of handicrafts is carried out by wives. Bolivian women manage both production and sale of artisan goods, operating frequently through handicraft cooperatives. Paraguayan women are well known for their

production of indigenous lace called "nanduti" and are responsible for its sale as well.

### Use of Women's Own Income

Women in virtually all our countries have unquestioned control over use of income accruing from their own efforts. In most cases, however, a sizeable chunk of wifely earnings is spent on family subsistence needs and this is the pattern for Ghanaian and Nigerian women. It appears that Kenyan women are usually allowed to keep proceeds from sales of surplus crops, although the literature is not completely clear on this point.<sup>1</sup>

Like their Nigerian and Ghanaian counterparts, Peruvian and Bolivian campesinas invest their own earnings in family needs, purchasing articles without any questioning by husbands. But in Paraguay, the husband remains the chief arbiter of family welfare, making most decisions regarding the spending of his wife's personal income. A strong wife can influence her husband, but she will only suggest, not dictate. In most instances, her earnings will be spent on family necessities.

---

<sup>1</sup> According to Women in Developing Countries, Case Studies in Six Countries, (Swedish International Development Authority, 1973), surplus crop income belongs to the woman (p. 25). But Adrienne Germain and Audrey Smock maintain that women may keep income only from sales of non-agricultural products (p. 16).

#### 4. Project Type: Community Projects

This functional project type is to include all activities in which the community as a whole benefits (public goods), whether from the profits of self-help projects or government-sponsored development undertakings. (Farming cooperatives are not included here, since they were discussed in the first project type section, "Increasing Agricultural Production and Income.") Data points to be examined are: temporary self-help projects and government-sponsored development projects.

Chart 16  
MALE/FEMALE DECISION-MAKING AND PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY PROJECTS

	<u>Self-Help Projects</u>		<u>Government Projects</u>	
	<u>D</u>	<u>P</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>P</u>
GHANA	HW	HW	HW	HW
KENYA	W	W	W	W
LESOTHO	HW	hW	W	W
NIGERIA	HW	HW	H	HW
BOLIVIA	hW	HW	Hw	W
PARAGUAY	H	Hw	H	Hw
PERU	W	hW	H	H

KEY

H = Husband decides or participates in activity.  
Hw = Husband decides or participates in activity with inputs from wife.  
HW = Both husband and wife decide or participate in activity.  
hW = Wife decides or participates in activity with inputs from husband.  
W = Wife decides or participates in activity.

NOTESSELF-HELP PROJECTS

## GHANA--

Decision-Making: Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.

Participation: Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.

## KENYA --

Decision-Making: Field report from Achola Pala.

Participation:

1. ECOSOC Document, E/CN.14/SW.37
2. Field report from Achola Pala.

## LESOTHO --

Decision-Making: Field report from Charles Sweet.

Participation: Field report from Charles Sweet.

## NIGERIA --

Decision-Making: Paul and Laura Bohannon, *Tiv Economy*, Northwestern University Press, Evanston, 1968, pp. 70-71.

Participation: Field report from Sole Adesina.

Male/Female Decision-Making and Participation in Community Projects  
Notes (continued)

BOLIVIA --

Decision-Making: Field report from Evelyn Barron.  
 Participation: Field report from Evelyn Barron.

PARAGUAY --

Decision-Making: Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.  
 Participation: Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

PERU --

Decision-Making: Field report from Nancy Rodriguez.  
 Participation: Field report from Nancy Rodriguez.

GOVERNMENT PROJECTS

GHANA --

Decision-Making: Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.  
 Participation: Field report from Sylvia Bolanos.

KENYA --

Decision-Making: Field report from Achola Pala.  
 Participation: Field report from Achola Pala.

LESOTHO --

Decision-Making: Field report from Elliott Morss and Charles Sweet.  
 Participation: Field report from Elliott Morss and Charles Sweet.

NIGERIA --

Decision-Making: Field report from Sole Adesina.  
 Participation: Bohannan, p. 72.

BOLIVIA--

Decision-Making: Field report from John Hatch.  
 Participation: Field report from Evelyn Barron.

PARAGUAY --

Decision-Making: Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.  
 Participation: Field report from Christina Hussey Schoux.

PERU --

Decision-Making: Field report from Nancy Rodriguez.  
 Participation: Field report from Nancy Rodriguez.

### Temporary Self-Help Projects

In the majority of our seven countries, women make major inputs to decisions involving their own or their husbands' participation in self-help projects. Field data indicates that in Ghana, Nigeria, Kenya, Bolivia and Peru rural women are prime movers in self-help work; Kenyan women carry out 80 percent of all self-help labor, building nursery schools, constructing water supplies, raising community centers, etc.<sup>1</sup> In Bolivia, women not only work along with their husbands on projects but control family contributions to community self-help efforts. For yam production, Nigerian Tiv women organize themselves into small work parties of three or four; they share storage facilities and pool their labor for other activities, such as cooking. Ghanaian women, too, divide up self-help labor according to sex: a rural community will have a recognized woman leader who organizes her sister workers, while the men group similarly around a male leader for work projects. In Peru, if a woman cannot convince her husband to join a self-help work project, she will work in his place.<sup>2</sup> Paraguayan

---

<sup>1</sup> For details on how female self-help projects operate, see field report from Achola Pala,

<sup>2</sup> A prime example of this phenomenon is the community-operated restaurant at Chavin, Peru. The restaurant site had to be cleared of debris before construction could begin, and male community members refused to do the work. DAI's researcher, Nancy Rodriguez, organized the wives at a night meeting; they proceeded to clear the rubble, thus shaming their menfolk into rejoining the project. For further details, see project-specific write-up under ORDEZA project, Appendix "A".

women, according to field data, lack public-spiritedness, and thus shun voluntary service work.<sup>1</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup> Paraguayan women will occasionally join community efforts when the project involves their homes -- e.g., latrine construction, milk distribution, vaccinations, etc.

### Government-Sponsored Development Projects

There seems to be no distinct pattern of female involvement in government-sponsored work projects, the degree of participation varying from country to country. Data from the field suggests that women are prime participants in government projects in Bolivia.<sup>1</sup> Basotho women too are exceptionally active in government projects, carrying out about 90 percent of road construction work funded by government-allocated, U.N.-sponsored monies.

Field data suggests that in Ghana, it is "common knowledge" that members who refuse to work on government development projects (as organized by the community) are sent to court, fined or imprisoned. Everyone, male and female alike, is obliged to cooperate out of fear, and normally works ten hours a week.

Paraguayan women, according to field data, will exercise a positive influence regarding participation in government projects if they perceive that Paraguayan President Stroessner is somehow involved. Otherwise, participation seems to be minimal. Peruvian women, the field data suggests, make virtually no decision-making or participation inputs regarding government work projects, and many projects fail as a result. Nigerian women follow their husbands' lead, cooperating in government work if their men show an interest. Rural wives in Kenya will participate in government projects depending on how they assess the attitudes of project managers and how the project fits in with their own work schedule.

---

<sup>1</sup> One possible explanation for this may be that husbands are apparently reluctant to take part in efforts which do not directly benefit the community.

*Project Types 1-4:*

*Considerations Which Apply When Women are Heads-of-Household*

Perhaps the only generalization to be made regarding a change in the status of rural women who are heads-of-household is that there is no consistent pattern across countries. In some countries, widows have equal rights with male landowners, but in others, they are considered second-class citizens, with even fewer privileges than married women.

Though Nigerian women heads-of-household preside at family meetings like their male counterparts, they lack the male's authority. A woman head may not inherit family property because of her family's fear that the land might be lost to other families, should she remarry. When heads-of-household convene as a body, her views are not respected, and on some occasions a male representative may be requested.

The situation appears somewhat improved for Ghanaian heads-of-household, who, if strong-minded individuals, may achieve high status relative to men. A female head's ability to obtain credit depends on how the community regards her capacity to pay back or invest the money borrowed.

In Lesotho, where nearly 30 percent of heads-of-household are female, it appears that their status in the agricultural

sector is not enhanced. Even the fact that there are some female village chiefs does not increase women heads' inputs to farming production decisions.<sup>1</sup>

The status of women heads-of-household in rural Kenya appears to be changing for the better, as women become increasingly involved in agricultural sector activities. Where women own substantial acreage, a woman head-of-household can often obtain credit. But difficulties often arise when a woman is de facto head, because her husband has migrated to the city in search of better employment.<sup>2</sup> Heretofore, such women have had to procure their absent husband's consent before embarking on new agricultural ventures. Now; however, as more and more women are being left behind to make basic farming decisions, farming cooperatives are having to deal with women directly, without involving the husband.<sup>3</sup>

In Bolivia and Paraguay, widowed heads-of-household apparently enjoy equal rights with men, a woman's participation

---

<sup>1</sup> See project-specific write-up #11. Mathata Village, Leribe District, Lesotho, in Appendix "A"

<sup>2</sup> The 1969 census indicated that 525,000 rural households were headed by women; of these, 400,000 (or one-third of all rural households) were ones in which the husband had migrated to town. *Employment, Incomes and Equality in Kenya*, International Labor Organization, p. 47.

<sup>3</sup> At the Lirhembe Multi-Service Cooperative in Kenya (project-specific write-up #8), many female heads-of-household were involved in setting up the agricultural cooperative. At first males made all credit decisions, but gradually women began making inputs regarding the purchase of grade cattle. Women have also become active in the marketing of the cash crop. For an example of the less progressive mentality, see the description of the Tetu Agricultural Extension Project, in the "Obtaining Credit" section of this report, II B.

in community activities remaining unaffected. Female heads-of-household in rural Paraguay, however, are not accorded the same rights and credibility as their male counterparts, and apparently cannot participate in traditionally male-dominated organizations, such as agricultural cooperatives.

C. Application of Project-Specific Data from Local Action Questionnaires

1. *The Sample*

There were two sources for the data collected on specific development projects in the seven countries under study. First was DAI's staff which has been continuously collecting data on 25 development projects in the seven countries, by means of an extensive 33-page questionnaire. This questionnaire was modified to include male/female breaks at all major points, and to ask for the details of the involvement of women in the projects as they were identified, designed and then implemented. Of these 25 projects, 11 were chosen which offered the most insights into the involvement in and benefits to women in the seven countries. This data has been greatly condensed, and the summaries are presented in Appendix One.

The second source of data consisted of the woman field researchers who completed portions of the same questionnaire used by the DAI staff. The questionnaire was directed specifically at projects in the agriculture sector. Those projects which have traditionally involved women (family planning, health, nutrition, child care, etc.), have been given less attention, and the questionnaires, not specifically designed for such projects, were not

as helpful in obtaining comparable data on these activities. The six project-specific summaries prepared by, or assisted by, the women field researchers are included in Appendix One.

Clearly, neither the DAI staff nor the women collectors were choosing projects randomly. DAI target projects were those which had involved and benefited the small farmers at the bottom of the social and economic structure in the rural areas.<sup>1</sup> Some of the projects, although successful for small farmers, had no discoverable component targeted at or involving women. The women researchers were asked to examine those rural sector projects with the heaviest involvement of women in their design, execution, and participation; wherever possible, agricultural sector projects were emphasized with a view to answering questions about the production process in the rural sector. Through examination of what has been accomplished in non-randomly-selected projects in the agricultural sector, we can extract data which is suggestive of what can be achieved in the future. The actual projects examined at the project level and then generally at two sub project levels (specific instances of the project in several localities) were:

---

<sup>1</sup> As will be clear in the summaries in Appendix One, not all the projects examined are unqualified successes.

<u>Country</u>	<u>ID No.</u>	<u>Project Name</u>	<u>Collector</u>
Ghana	1	Home Extension Program	Sylvia Bolanos
	2	Christian Mothers Association	Sylvia Bolanos
	3	Denu Shallots	Charles Sweet
Nigeria	4	Small Holders Tobacco Production	Charles Sweet
	5	Tiv Bams	Charles Sweet
	6	Uboma Development Project	Charles Sweet
Kenya	7	Ahero Pilot Project (Rice)	Achola Pala
	8	Lirhembe Multi-Service Cooperative	Charles Sweet
	9	Masai Rural Training Center	Elliott Morss
Lesotho	10	Thaba Bosiu Rural Development	Elliott Morss
	11	Leribe Pilot Agricultural Scheme	Charles Sweet
Bolivia	12	Ministry of Health, Rural Extension	Bambi Eddy
	13	National Community Development Service (NCDS)	John Hatch
	14	Rural Women's Department (NCDS)	Evelyn Barron Bambi Eddy John Hatch
Peru	15	VICOS	John Hatch
	16	ORDEZA/Rural Development Division	Nancy Rodriguez John Hatch
Paraguay		In spite of the determined efforts by Christina Hussey Schoux, no development project in the rural areas directly involving women (except population) has surfaced, as yet. According to her last communication, she was still searching for an instance of organized women's involvement. Neither of the two projects researched by DAI staff appeared to have any rural women's involvement or benefit	
The Gambia (a bonus project)	17	Mixed Vegetable Scheme	Charles Sweet

## 2. The Data Points

Out of the mass of information collected on each project, data has been grouped under four functional categories for the individual write-ups of projects examined (see Appendix "A").

These categories are:

- The project's focus and aim, with the details of the dynamics of design and implementation.
- The circumstances of the local area, with data points (where available) at the sub-project level on percent female functional literacy, migration patterns, land holding (tenure and size).
- How women were involved in the process of identification and design of the project (or subproject) as well as the operations of the project once it was implemented.
- The benefits to women, to the development process, and to the project.

### 3. Project Activities

The following table summarizes the projects by type and activity, i.e., projects oriented toward women (PW), to men (PH), or mixed men and women (PHW).

<u>ID No.</u>	<u>Country</u>	<u>Agricultural Production and Income Projects</u>	<u>Family Care Projects</u>	<u>Miscellaneous Income Projects</u>	<u>Community, Self- Help, and Cooperative Projects</u>
1	Ghana (Home Ex- tension)	Vegetables, fertilizer, seeds, fruit trees (PW) (WL) (WX)	Nutrition, food prepa- ration & preservation, vegetable gardens (PW) (WL) (WX)	Rabbits, chickens, sewing (PW) (WX)	
2	Ghana (Christian Mothers)	Backyard gar- dens (PW) (WL) (WX)	Nutrition, food prepa- ration, lit- eracy, health (PW) (WX)	Poultry, sewing handicrafts (use of credit to buy fabric) (PW)	
3	Ghana (Denu Shallots)	Shallots (grow, harvest, market) cash for labor, fertilizer (PHW)			
4	Nigeria (Tobacco)	Grade tobacco (PW) obtain credit (PHW) grow tobacco (PHW) flue-curing (PH)			

---

WL = significant women leadership; WX = women extensionists or change agents; WHH = significant number of women heads-of-household

<u>ID No.</u>	<u>Country</u>	<u>Agricultural Production and Income Projects</u>	<u>Family Care Projects</u>	<u>Miscellaneous Income Projects</u>	<u>Community, Self- Help, and Cooperative Projects</u>
5	Nigeria (Tiv Bams)	Non-institutional local savings/ loan for agricultural production (30%) consumption (70%) (PHW) (WL)	Profits used to purchase meat for group (PHW) (WL)		Profits used for some community projects (PHW) (WL)
6	Nigeria (Uboma)	Improved rice; hybrid maize; fertilizer (pesticide); vegetables; new crops-oil palm (PHW) (WL)	Nutrition; health; vegetable garden (PW) (WX)	Hogs (PH), poultry; <u>weaving</u> (PW)	Community projects (PHW) cooperative (WL)
7	Kenya (Ahero)	Improved rice; fertilizer; seed; technology (PHW)			Self-help projects (PHW)
8	Kenya (Lirhembe)	Hybrid maize; grade cattle; fruits & vegetables; agricultural credit; (PHW) (WX) (WL) (WHH)	Sewing; health; knitting; nutrition (WX) (PW)		Cooperative; women association (WL) (PHW)
9	Kenya (Masai)	Improved grade cattle; training in livestock management (PH)	Dispensary (PW)	Vocational training; tannery; (PH) handicrafts (PW)	Women's cooperative for handicrafts (PW) (WL)

<u>ID No.</u>	<u>Country</u>	<u>Agricultural Production and Income Projects</u>	<u>Family Care Projects</u>	<u>Miscellaneous Income Projects</u>	<u>Community, Self- Help, and Cooperative Projects</u>
10	Lesotho (Thaba Bosiu)	Land conserva- tion; new crops; input delivery; distribution centers; market- ing (PHW) (WL) (WHH)			
11	Lesotho (Leribe)	New crop tech- nology; (PH) conservation program; fish ponds, etc. (workers) (PW) (WHH)	Home economics; health; nutri- tion; sewing (PW) (WX)		
12	Bolivia (Rural Extension)		Health; nutri- tion; family planning (PW)		
13	Bolivia (NCDS)				Community development projects (PHW)
14	Bolivia (NCDS-Rural Women)		Cooking; sew- ing; health; nutrition; child care (PW) (WL) (WX)	Handicraft training (PW) (WL) (WX)	Women's association (WL) (WX)
15	Peru (VICOS)	Land reform; potatoes (PHW)	Education; health (PHW)	Sewing (PW)	Community control of old hacienda (PHW)
16	Peru (ORDEZA)			Restaurant (not in hands of local population)	Community income genera- tion projects; artisan coop (PHW) (WL)

<u>ID No.</u>	<u>Country</u>	<u>Agricultural Production and Income Projects</u>	<u>Family Care Projects</u>	<u>Miscellaneous Income Projects</u>	<u>Community, Self- Help, and Cooperative Projects</u>
17	The Gambia (bonus) (Mixed Vegetable)	Onion production; (PHW) Land preparation; planting & weed- ing; thinning; harvesting & <u>bundling (PW)</u> 32 villages, 960 women (WL) (land held by com- munity, given by chief)			Cooperative (PHW)

#### 4. *Project Dynamics and Approach*

The following dynamic approaches to development are used to analyze the 17 projects and are further elaborated in Section D2:

- A. Projects aimed solely at the traditional woman's role as mother and wife: the family care projects.
- B. Projects which may have begun as "A" above, but which backed into agricultural production by women, generally as a consequence of a backyard garden program; or into nonagricultural income-generating projects for women.
- C. Projects aimed at the economic development of an area, in which specific production roles for women may have developed. (Family care services may be ancillary to the main project.)
- D. Agricultural production projects aimed at economic advances for women.

The projects can be generally grouped as follows<sup>1</sup> (by identification number and name):

- A. 12 -- Ministry of Health, Rural Extension
- B. 1 -- Home Extension Program  
2 -- Christian Mothers Association  
14 -- Rural Women's Department (NCDS)

<sup>1</sup> The symmetric distribution is misleading. Project 12 is included even though the research did not seek this kind of project and there are dozens unaccounted for. Project 17 is a true anomaly, and can only occur with an unusual set of circumstances.

- C. 3 -- Denu Shallots
  - 4 -- Small Holders Tobacco Production
  - 5 -- Tiv Bams
  - 6 -- Uboma Development Project
  - 7 -- Ahero Pilot Project (rice)
  - 8 -- Lirhembe Multi-Service Cooperative
  - 9 -- Masai Rural Training Center
  - 10 -- Thaba Bosiu Rural Development
  - 11 -- Leribe Pilot Agricultural Scheme
  - 13 -- National Community Development Service (NCDS)
  - 15 -- VICOS
  - 16 -- ORDEZA
- 
- D. 17 -- Mixed Vegetable Scheme

## 5. The Results of the 17 Projects

The results of 17 projects are given, along with some indication of their impact on agricultural production, miscellaneous income and/or home economics as a consequence of the involvement of women. Suggestive indications of benefits will be grouped by:

### Women's Benefits

Project Benefits, if the project includes both women and men as the target population.

Development Process Benefits, which attempts to capture the impact of the women's newly-acquired knowledge on the other producers in the local area. This could be a demonstration effect by which other women adopt new agricultural techniques, or the impact of women's newly-acquired technology on their husbands' agricultural production.

Self-Sufficiency Benefits, which attempts to estimate whether the project itself can become self-sustaining, or whether it will necessarily continue to be dependent on outside resources.

Data on each project has been assembled in Appendix "B".

D. Conclusions: Project Design Recommendations

At this point, it would be well to repeat the three main questions outlined earlier in the "Focus of the Report" section:

1. In what ways might women, as an economic resource, be more effectively utilized in the development process of third world countries?
2. Do women's roles follow consistent patterns across countries, or are there fundamental country-specific differences in the roles of women in the rural sector?
3. What does our data on the roles of rural women tell us about improving project design and implementation of rural development projects?

1. *Insights from the Rural Sector Data*

Much of this report involves descriptive detail on the diversity of roles women fill. While our data is admittedly incomplete (and perhaps inaccurate in some instances), it is useful to assume for the moment that it is correct as a means of assessing how useful it would be to have accurate data on a number of countries. Let us take the chart on Male/Female Decision-Making and Participation in Agriculture (Chart 17) as containing reasonably reliable and suggestive data on the various roles played by men and women in the agricultural sector. Let

Chart 17: MALE/FEMALE DECISION-MAKING AND PARTICIPATION IN AGRICULTURE

		CARRY OUT AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION		USE MODERN INPUTS		JOIN COOPERATIVES		OBTAIN CREDIT		PETTY TRADING		SELL CASH CROPS		PUT ASIDE SAVINGS		COEFFICIENTS	
		D	P	D	P	D	P	D	P	D	P	D	P	D	P	D	P
GHANA	North	Hw	HW	H	HW	H	Hw	H	H	HW	hw	H	H	H	H	-3.1	-1.7
	South	HW	HW	Hw	HW	Hw	HW	Hw	Hw	W	W	HW	HW	Hw	HW	- .6	0
KENYA		Hw	HW	HW	HW	Hw	HW	H	H	HW	HW	Hw	HW	HW	HW	-1.4	- .6
LESOTHO		Hw	HW	Hw	hw	Hw	Hw	H	HW	HW	HW	H	HW	HW	HW	-2	0
NICERIA	North	H	Hw	H	H	H	H	H	H	H	HW	H	H	H	H	-4	-3.1
	South	Hw	HW	Hw	Hw	Hw	HW	Hw	Hw	HW	hw	H	Hw	Hw	HW	-2.0	- .9
BOLIVIA		HW	HW	HW	HW	Hw	H	Hw	H	W	W	Hw	H	hw	HW	0	-1.1
PARAGUAY		Hw	HW	H	H	H	H	H	H	HW	W	H	HW	Hw	H	-2.9	-2
PERU		HW	HW	HW	HW	Hw	H	HW	Hw	W	W	Hw	H	hw	HW	.3	- .9
<b>COEFFICIENTS</b>		-1.4	- .1	-1.7	- .7	-2.6	-2.6	-2.9	-2.9	1.1	2.3	-3.0	-2.1	- .6	-1.3	-1.6	-1.1

**KEY** H = Husband decides or participates in activity  
Hw = Husband decides or participates in activity with inputs from wife  
HW = Both husband and wife decide or participate in activity  
hw = Wife decides or participates in activity with inputs from husband  
W = Wife decides or participates in activity  
D = Decides how, when and what to do  
P = Participates actively once decision is made

Numerical coefficients for involvement in decision-making or participation are:

- 4 = H
- 2 = Hw
- 0 = HW
- 2 = hw
- 4 = W

In the case of Ghana and Nigeria each coefficient is divided by two for each section when calculating across countries by data point.

us then simplify further by assigning numerical indicators to the HW symbols and averaging. Horizontally, both the decision-making and participation data points are summed, and averaged to show the relative equality in decisions and participation in the rural sector for any one country. Vertically, the columns are summed and averaged to indicate the equality in decision-making and participation for all countries along one data point (e.g., joining cooperatives). With the arbitrarily chosen scale, equality would be measured by zero, with a positive number indicating relatively more female inputs, and a negative number indicating more male inputs in either decision-making or participation.

The first observation is that women today appear to play active roles, both as decision-makers and participants in most rural development-related activities. More specifically, and perhaps most dramatically, our data suggests that except in northern Nigeria, women have complete equality, regarding participation in basic agricultural production.

Looking horizontally across the chart one sees that for agricultural production overall, northern Ghana and northern Nigeria, both Muslim areas, rate lowest marks for equality, and the relatively equal participation of women in southern Ghana (somewhat less in southern Nigeria) suggests that the data on women as an economic resource is not merely country-specific, it is region-within-country distinct; what is true of one area

in a country may be countered by an opposite example in another area. Since Bolivia and Peru have not been broken down geographically by mountains, coast or tropical Amazon basin areas, clearly the data cannot represent all areas accurately. Since the majority of the information on those two countries was available for the Sierra, the Altiplano and other high-altitude rural population centers probably predominated as the differences were aggregated.

In five of the countries, the low grades in decision-making are evened somewhat by greater equality in participation. However, in Bolivia and Peru this trend is reversed, suggesting that in these countries women have decision-making power (for example, to join cooperatives or to obtain credit) but do not actively participate. A project designer unaware of this situation might conclude, erroneously, that only men are important in certain kinds of development projects. A concentration on men, or attempts to convince only men of the worthiness of cooperatives, credit, the use of modern inputs, savings and investment would seriously weaken the effectiveness of a development project. There is only one positive number added horizontally (although Bolivia's zero gives an indication of equality in decision-making), and that is for Peru. As will be noted in the project-specific analysis, this fact has not been used to design or implement projects in Peru, undoubtedly for the worse. Paraguay follows the pattern for Muslim portions of Ghana and Nigeria, as a country in which males predominate in decision-making.

A vertical view of the chart suggests that there are obvious areas where women predominate, and that is in the decision-making and participation in petty trading. If the women are the petty traders, and generally keep control of their own income from such activities, the possibility exists for a conflict of interest when large marketing schemes are proposed. Few women are likely to be enthusiastic (at least initially) about a 10,000-chick commercial poultry farm if they receive a large portion of their daily expenses from sales of eggs from scrawny, stringy family chickens. Since women do have crucial decision-making roles, their existing economic interests should obviously be considered when planning a rural development project. As a data point, "credit" is more male-dominated than any other, suggesting that the use of credit depends, in large part, upon landholding. In these seven countries (although not in all countries), land is generally passed to and controlled by the male heirs, a tradition which prevents women (except heads-of-household) from exercising credit privileges. Women have the next least say about sales of cash crops, although in agriculture which is basically subsistence, the dividing line between cash crop and petty trading is often blurred. Whatever the arithmetical solution, the numbers indicate most clearly that women have important roles. Projects need to be designed and implemented with the substance of the women's input -- actual or potential -- clearly defined.

Further suggestive insights are offered by aggregating the numerical data by continent. This data is presented in Chart 18.

Chart 18 DECISION AND PARTICIPATION PATTERNS BY CONTINENT\*

	<u>Overall Continent Averages</u>		
	<i>Total</i>	<i>Africa</i>	<i>Latin America</i>
D	-1.557	-2.075	-.867
P	-1.071	-.875	-1.333
	<u>Production and Finances</u>		
	<u>Both Continents</u>		
	<i>Production</i>	<i>Finances</i>	
D	-1.400	-1.350	
P	-.100	-1.000	
	<u>Africa</u>		
D	-2.000	-1.938	
P	-.250	-1.000	
	<u>Latin America</u>		
D	-.667	-.333	
P	0.000	-1.000	

The results can be interpreted as follows. On overall decision-making (-2.075 and -.867), husbands prevail significantly in Africa, as compared to Latin America. However, for participation, (-.875 and -1.333), Latin American husbands dominate.

---

\* D = Decision-making  
P = Participation

Division of the data points into "production" (from column 1) and "finances" (from a summation of the last four columns) reveals other differences between the two continents. First, Africa has more "H" dominance in production than does Latin America, particularly with regard to decision-making; the slight difference between the continents for production participation (-.25) is due to less than equal activity by women in northern Nigeria. Financial decision-making roughly approximates production decision-making, for each respective country. Husbands dominate in financial activity to the same extent in Africa and Latin America (-1.0).

At first glance, it seems surprising that the husband appears to play a more important role for many of our entries in Africa than in Latin America. There is, however, a plausible reason for this result. It should be remembered that this is not a continent comparison, but rather one of four countries in Africa against three countries in Latin America. The choices in Latin America, and the data used, make the comparisons not between a Spanish-culture society in Peru and Bolivia, but between African societies and indigenous high-altitude Indian cultures in Latin America.

Another point should be made about the charts: they represent a static picture. The positioning along a continuum of dominance to equality at one point in time should not be confused with the potential rates of change of dominance and equality. While the cultures in Peru and Bolivia show more equality in many decisions, they are not rapidly changing societies,<sup>1</sup> and forward progress (defined as more women's involvement in the economy) may well be slow. In Africa, where the husband appears to clearly dominate, it is possible that the rate of change is much faster than in Latin America. Evidence of success of development projects, in a few short years, suggests that the role of women in rural societies can and does undergo rapid change when economic opportunity exists.

The other charts offer even clearer pictures of the women's roles in family care, handicrafts and marketing, use of own income, and self-help and community development projects (see Charts 19, 20 and 21). Perhaps most interesting is the relative clarity of decision-making and participation in health and nutrition, as well as education of children and home economic training. These are areas of traditional women's participation. However, the data breaks down when attempting to analyze the question of who decides the number of children. Most field researchers, in answer to this question, suggested that in the absence of contraception the male's continuing interest in sexual relations produced large families, with no conscious

---

1. Peruvian and Bolivian societies are not modernizing rapidly in rural Indian areas; on the national political scene, however, change is occurring at a fairly rapid rate.

Chart 19MALE/FEMALE DECISION MAKING AND PARTICIPATION IN FAMILY CARE

	<u>Health</u>	<u>Nutrition</u>	<u>Education of Children</u>	<u>Number of Children</u>	<u>Home Economics Training</u>	<u>Willingness to Use Contraception</u>
GHANA	W	W	Hw	HW	W	P
KENYA	W	W	HW	Hw	W	P
NIGERIA	hw	W	HW		W	NP
BOLIVIA	W	W	Hw	H	W	NP
PARAGUAY	hw	W	Hw	H	W	NP
PERU	W	W	HW	H	W	NP

Chart 20MALE/FEMALE DECISION-MAKING AND PARTICIPATION  
IN OTHER RURAL SECTOR PRODUCTION AND INCOME OPPORTUNITIES

	<u>Handicraft Production</u>	<u>Marketing of Handicrafts</u>	<u>Use of Women's Own Income</u>
GHANA	HW	HW	W
KENYA	HW	W	W
LESOTHO	HW	HW	W
NIGERIA	HW	HW	W
BOLIVIA	W	W	W
PARAGUAY	W	W	Hw
PERU	HW	W	W

KEY

- H = Husband decides and participates in activity.  
 Hw = Husband decides and participates in activity with inputs from wife.  
 HW = both husband and wife decide and participate in activity.  
 hw = Wife decides and participates in activity with inputs from husband.  
 W = Wife decides and participates in activity.

- p = Little participation  
 NP = No participation.

Chart 21

MALE/FEMALE DECISION-MAKING AND PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY PROJECTS

	<u>Self-Help Projects</u>		<u>Government Projects</u>	
	<u>D</u> <u>HW</u>	<u>P</u> <u>HW</u>	<u>D</u> <u>HW</u>	<u>P</u> <u>HW</u>
GHANA				
KENYA	W	W	W	W
LESOTHO	HW	hw	W	W
NIGERIA	HW	HW	H	HW
BOLIVIA	hw	HW	Hw	W
PARAGUAY	H	Hw	H	Hw
PERU	W	hw	H	H

KEY

- H = Husband decides or participates in activity.  
Hw = Husband decides or participates in activity with inputs from wife.  
HW = Both husband and wife decide or participate in activity.  
hw = Wife decides or participates in activity with inputs from husband.  
W = Wife decides or participates in activity.

decision involving size of family. Data from Kenya suggests that both husbands and wives want large families, although for different reasons. Clearly, the question of who decides on the number of children is only applicable when there is a difference of opinion between male and female. The parent who prevails in decision-making with regard to size of family should then become the chief target of family planning education. Our data, collected in only a few areas within each country, can add little to the massive studies by population researchers on attitudes towards family planning. We included the data primarily for comparison with other decision-making points.

Information on self-help projects suggests a strong female role.<sup>1</sup> Only in Paraguay is the male a dominant force in decisions to work on self-help endeavors; the difference between government projects and self-help projects is largely unexplained. Government projects undoubtedly employ conscripted labor, for example on roads or other work not directly involving the local village. In some countries, such as Bolivia, self-help undertakings are very firmly organized by a syndicate operating at the community level and run by locally-elected officials. Once the local leadership has decided to undertake a project it is no longer an individual decision to participate; the syndicate insists on participation, with fines and sanctions for noncompliance. However, this activity is close to self-taxation, and appears to fall within the responsibility of local government, which in this case is elected and responsive. Government projects are unlikely to have this strength of local commitment. The fact that women appear to be such a willing available source of labor for self-help and government projects suggests the need to plan recruitment efforts with their potential participation in mind. Reasons for this apparent willingness include their desire to effect local improvements, as well as the opportunity presented by such projects for enjoyable social gatherings with other community members.

---

<sup>1</sup> See Chart 21.

Women, then, represent economic resources of labor, management and decision-making in the rural sector. Although they dominate only in petty trading and handicraft sales, they make major inputs to the other critical decisions affecting the agricultural production function. And they are underutilized, in the sense that when more attractive economic alternatives are presented, they have been able to respond and to increase their own as well as family income. How best to mobilize the female economic resource is the subject of the next section.

## 2. *Insights from the Project-Specific Data*

Inclusion of women as a specific resource adds a level of complexity to the design of rural development projects. If there were a well-conceived model for rural development projects, the only requirement would be a breakout of male and female roles -- past, present, and potential. However, such is not the case. Projects directed at smallholders, with the goal of delivering benefits to farmers with one or two hectares, have often failed, allowing development resources to be captured by the larger and more powerful segments of the rural sector. If a project has a distributional objective targeted at the lowest 40 percent (e.g., farmers with less than the median local average land holding), then there is no proven model of success.<sup>1</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup> Not yet at any rate. The research under way by DAI for TA/DA, AID on the determinants of effective local action for small farmers should provide much of the information needed to construct such a model.

In the absence of a model, the best that can be done is to specify the critical elements and data necessary for project design and implementation, and the methods which should be used to obtain the necessary information. This will be done with reference to the 17 projects examined in depth, with other information from observed projects included when applicable.

Using the Project Dynamic Approach groupings, the 17 projects can be categorized and analyzed as follows:<sup>1</sup>

**Approach A:** Projects aimed solely at the traditional women's roles as mother and wife: Family Care projects.

Project No. 12, Mothers' Clubs and Mother-Child Services in Bolivia, Ministry of Health, Rural Extension Services. This project is described sympathetically by Bambi Eddy (Field Reports), as filling a real need in rural Bolivia. The distribution of food and clothing was used as a door-opener for health, child-care and family planning education and services. There is some attempt to include indoctrination on the possible roles for women within the community, but no direct (or observable indirect) linkage to agricultural production, or income-generating projects for women or families. This project requires continued external assistance, both in finances and management.

**Approach D:** Agricultural production projects aimed at economic advances for women.

Project No. 17, The Gambia. Agricultural production projects targeted exclusively at women are likely to be rare. There is a need for joint

---

<sup>1</sup> Approaches A, D, and B are treated first; Approach C has received the most attention.

production efforts in almost all rural societies, and the exclusion of family team members is unlikely in most cases to increase overall farm output. In addition, in areas where land is not available, or where female labor is already committed, there is an opportunity cost to the women-only projects which require extensive use of women's time. The projects under this category which are more likely to be generally useful are those which attempt to provide more incidental cash income for women from a series of part-time tasks which can be sandwiched between other necessary farm chores. The raising of rabbits and chickens, and the tending of garden plots, are examples. These are considered in Approach B.

**Approach B:** Projects which may have begun as traditional family care, but which have developed into income-generating endeavors, either in agricultural production (backyard gardens, poultry and rabbit-raising, fruit trees) or handicrafts.

Project No. 1. Ghana. The work of the Home Extension Service of the Ministry of Agriculture appears, from long distance, to be a model of what can be accomplished in introducing women to new techniques in the agricultural sector. There are costs, which should be considered. If agricultural extensionists are a scarce commodity, then their use in a women's program must deliver more returns than the same use in a program targeted at men. This may be the case, since in parts of Africa, women are being introduced to new ideas, and are serving as successful change agents. Since the women in this culture appear to have uncommitted time, this may be a cost-effective program.

Project No. 2. Ghana. The Christian Mothers' Clubs illustrate the potential for the involvement of more educated urban women in assisting the process of change in the rural sector. They also illustrate an inherent problem -- urban women are unlikely to have the knowledge and skills most needed in the agricultural sector.<sup>1</sup> The transferability of the

---

<sup>1</sup> The non-transferability of general education is often misunderstood. In Ecuador, 12 well-educated Peace Corps Volunteers, with farm backgrounds in the U.S., were assigned to assist farmers' cooperatives. None of the 12 lasted a year -- they simply did not come equipped with the knowledge of local conditions, weather, diseases, and technological potential for change necessary to help the illiterate subsistence farmers.

improvement in family care to increased production in the rural sector is diminished when necessary skills are not available from rural extensionists.<sup>1</sup>

Project No. 14. Bolivia. The Rural Women's Development Division of the National Community Development Service (NCDS). The difficulties of running a development service for women in a society controlled and administered by men are well illustrated by the field report from Bambi Eddy, who has had direct contact with the different programs now under this one organization. Bolivia has a well-publicized and innovative system of training programs for rural women leaders, based upon the individual change agent approach. These women are taught to take over the operation of women's community associations and carry forward the work begun by women extensionists (promoters) who originally organized the women's groups. There is definite evidence of leadership by women who have been through the program. In village interviews, they are consistently cited as the most helpful and appreciated of all of the representatives of the NCDS. A program of partial salary payments for male para-professionals living in rural villages has been discontinued, mainly because the women, at no pay, seem to do a better job of coalescing community support behind NCDS-assisted self-help projects. In other dimensions, however, there is little evidence that the training or the field work is directed at or seriously impacts upon the woman's role in the production process, or the rural economy.<sup>2</sup> |

---

<sup>1</sup> It should be clear that in many cases the expert's recommendations (new technology for crops) are unsuited to local circumstances. This presents a further problem for the layman -- whom and what to believe.

<sup>2</sup> It should be noted that rural Bolivia -- especially the high plateaus -- is particularly resistant to change. In such cultures and local circumstances it may be a wise policy to build a women's training component and national-regional-local organization on a base which does not threaten males, with the possibility of shifting to more involvement of women in fundamental decision-making and participation when the climate is better.

**Approach C:** Projects aimed at the economic development of an area, in which specific production roles for women may have developed.

This is the major grouping of projects, and should be divided between those in which there are useful approaches, and those in which, either for data or for design reasons, there is little to be learned. First, the less successful projects, vis-a-vis a women's component:

Project No. 17, Kenya. Ahero Pilot Project in Kenya. This project has no portion aimed significantly at women.<sup>1</sup>

Project No. 9, Kenya. Masai Rural Training Center. This project has a successful handicrafts operation as an ancillary activity to the livestock improvement project. The women in the handicraft production scheme have formed an association that controls the quality of their output and applies continuing pressure to obtain a fair price from the center for their products. There appears to be little or no female involvement in the livestock improvement plan.

Project No. 10, Lesotho. Thaba Bosiu Rural Development. If there is little sensitivity to the local circumstances or local conditions, and a less-than-satisfactory interaction between project administration staff and local participants, it will be difficult to identify roles for either men or women in the project at the local level. This is the situation in Thaba Bosiu.

Project No. 13, Bolivia. National Community Development Service. This project, containing the Rural Women's Development Division (see project no. 14), uses women community leaders to promote self-help

<sup>1</sup> This may be due to misunderstanding by the data collector, and an absence of documentation on this point.

projects. Each self-help undertaking has an equal number of men and women contributing labor. Apart from the Rural Women's Development Division it has identified no specific role for women, and makes no attempt to encourage such a role in the projects which are supported by the NCDS.

Project No. 15, Peru. Vicos.<sup>1</sup> This Sierra community has become famous as the model for sensitive outside involvement in the process of modernization and change, through the efforts of Cornell University. Begun in 1951 it seemed to include women only in family care projects, although the women traditionally share in farm production. Nearly 25 years after its beginning, Vicos has reverted to a subsistence Indian community, democratically administered by local leaders, none of whom are women. While there is a great deal to be learned from Vicos, there is apparently little in the way of increasing involvement of women in the rural economy.

Project No. 16, Peru. ORDEZA/Rural Development Division. In this project, income-generating potential is identified in communities, and ORDEZA/RDD provides the design and loan for the construction. There is no obvious women's component, although some of the projects have depended upon the willingness of the women to provide labor when the men refused to cooperate. There is minimal interaction, in the implementation stage, between ORDEZA-funded sub-project managers and the local population.

It is the African projects which offer clear insights into improved design and implementation. Two phenomena are apparent: either the projects were adaptations of local production patterns (Denu Shallots No. 3, or Tiv Bams No. 5), or they are planned and deliberate interventions into the rural

society. The local adaptations, supported by external funding assistance and/or extension services, developed new roles for women as a consequence of an increased demand for human resources. In the modernization of shallot production, women represented a labor force potential which could be trained for specialized tasks, and perform them with dependability. This division of the production process increased overall output and provided the women with expanded decision-making and responsibility. In the Nigerian Tiv Bams, women for the first time were formally accepted in the administration of the savings and lending program, and acquired leadership positions in the operations of community projects springing from the Bams. Increased opportunity was followed by increased participation, and the acceptance and performance of newly-defined roles in the local economy. Both these processes, however, were responses, rather than planned change by external development agencies.

The structured projects number four, and all have in common the initial study and survey work which identified past, present, and potential roles for women in the production process. This led in some instances to specific training courses, in others to production roles not previously undertaken by women. Specifically the introduction of new women's roles proceeded as follows:

Project No. 4, Nigeria. The Nigerian Tobacco Company. Before introducing flue-curing of tobacco through farm family units (which is highly labor intensive), the Nigerian Tobacco Company had its instructors determine the availability of family labor, including the division of responsibilities among men and women. Once the availability of women workers was established, the new flue-curing process could be initiated. While 10 percent of the women were recognized as heads-of-household most of the tobacco leaves were grown on family plots by a combination of male and female labor. With the establishment of the curing operation, the women helped prepare the racks, and assumed major responsibility for the grading of tobacco, a skill requiring diligence and application. With this new income source, both the women and the family prospered, and the women's alternative source of income (off-farm employment which took the women away from the family) declined. Improved tobacco production methods, in which the women are a recognized important part of the process, have been applied to traditional agricultural practices in other crops.

Project No. 6, Nigeria. Uboma Development Project. Planning for the Uboma Project was based on a detailed socioeconomic survey carried out by Shell Petroleum Company and the University of Ibadan in 1964. Through an analysis of the traditional patterns of cooperation and existing local institutions, the farming calendar for a year (broken out by male and female tasks), the average work days of men and women, and the sources of farm family income, it became clear that women had specific roles in agricultural production and community development. Moreover, it became apparent that women had more influence on local decision-making than the Nigerian government agencies had recognized. Because of the importance of women in the rural sector, the project staff encouraged the establishment of local cooperatives, run by male and female leaders. This has evolved into a series of development projects. Oil palm processing and rural industry, as well as a community development effort, carried out by traditional age groupings. Training in traditional family care projects complemented women's direct involvement in rural production, savings and credit activities.

Project No. 11, Lesotho. Leribe Pilot Agricultural Scheme. The initial step in the Leribe project was an area survey conducted by J. Jenness, an FAO sociologist, and his Basotho counterpart, H.L. Khethisa. The inventory took six months and focused on the local institutional and power structure and existing agricultural production practices, land tenure, and farm family decision-making. It became apparent that women were normally responsible for carrying out agricultural production, though they did not control decision-making. Further, the study revealed the most effective ways for intervening at the village level. Once the project was initiated, women participated in, and assumed leadership in the conservation program, working as day labor and managing the work forces to construct fish ponds, contour banks, and feeder roads. The introduction of new agricultural packages was hindered in part by the absence of males (who were working in South African mines), and the traditional reluctance of women to make agricultural production decisions. In addition, the technological packages were too complicated and expensive for the area farmers to comprehend and adopt so there was little increased output in agriculture. The contrasting results in the conservation and agricultural production components of the project appear to have been due to the priority which the conservationists placed on involving the local population, in particular the women, in the planning process.

Project No. 8, Kenya. Lirhembe Multi-Service Cooperative. An informal survey (similar to the research efforts which preceded the Uboma, Leribe and Tetu projects) was done by a Member of Parliament, a Dutch economics professor, and their associates, who then launched the Lirhembe Multi-Service Cooperative. They found that there was a high percentage of households where women were making production decisions. Through local meetings, all the men and women in the area were included in the decision to move ahead with the integrated development project. Women were also elected to the cooperative's board of directors. The direct introduction of women into leadership roles in the cooperative, and the concentration upon women as agents of change and modernization, resulted in new female roles in agricultural production (hybrid maize), use of credit for grade cattle, and increased marketing responsibilities. Family health, nutrition and child care services

complemented the newly-acquired women's roles, but were not the major focus of the project. It should be noted that the process of change was accelerated by the fact that significant numbers of women became heads-of-household because their husbands were working in Nairobi.

In the Tetu Agricultural Extension Project,<sup>1</sup> the Institute for Development Studies from the University of Nairobi conducted a major socioeconomic survey as a means for determining how to reach the less progressive farmers in the area. One mechanism identified was to include women in the courses (designed to introduce hybrid maize) at the Farmer Training Center, and to concentrate follow-up extension efforts on assisting women. Of the 796 participants in the program, over 50 percent were women. The effects of the program were examined in a later study which showed that for each male or female trained, an average of 5.1 untrained farmers (those who did not attend the course) had adopted the new techniques. This is a significant spread effect for the introduction of new technology.

### 3. *Conclusions to the Analysis --*

#### *Recommendations for Project Design*

If all necessary limitations on incomplete and non-representative data, and on selection of projects are accepted, the following conclusions appear valid for the projects reviewed:

- A. In general, the integration of women into the rural economy and the economic process of change and modernization will proceed more quickly if that integration takes place within the context of a development project (as one necessary and important part of that development project), rather than by means of women-only projects, or services to women.

---

<sup>1</sup> Although not one of the 17 projects, the Tetu project in Kenya had a specific women's component.

- B. A detailed study of an agricultural area is necessary before projects are initiated, in order to determine the existing roles of men and women in the rural production process. Once these existing roles have been identified, then projects can be designed which will provide for changes and an increase in the contribution of women in the rural sector.
- C. The problems of how to get women involved in development projects are not fundamentally different from the problems of how to get any local population involved in the adoption of a new technique or process. There is the necessity for sustained interaction between external agent and local population, and for repeated demonstrations of the utility of the new process when applied to the local participants' land under local conditions and constraints.
- D. The social, cultural and legal barriers to broader roles for women are not as restrictive, for the future, as the past might indicate. When additional family income is available, changes take place which are non-linear, rapid departures from past practices. However, a knowledge of the local constraints or restrictions on roles for women is necessary to design the optimal methods for replacing old behavior with new.
- E. Home economics activities may provide women with training that is useful for them in filling their current roles. However, as promoters of change, modernization and development, such courses rank far below other types of activities. In several African projects, and in particular, Uboma and Lirhembe, it has been found that major behavior changes by women came about significantly faster through activities dealing with agricultural production than through family care projects.

- F. The question of whether further efforts should be made to integrate women into existing organizations, or whether new organizations should be created exclusively for women is difficult, with the answer depending largely on local circumstances. For example, one of USAID's objectives is improving the lot of small farmers. The creation of a separate women's organization might result in the weakening of a growing small farmer movement. In other circumstances the creation of women's associations, supported and backed by educated urban women, might be necessary to overcome societal restrictions to having women achieve their most meaningful role in rural development.<sup>1</sup>

---

1. For example, in Latin America, a combination of land constraints and traditional *machismo* conditioning inherited from the colonial period impedes efforts to move women into the mainstream of the rural sector. Since there are well-educated women in urban Paraguay, our field researcher there suggested the creation of women's associations, supported and backed by educated urban women, to help overcome the societal restrictions on women's full involvement in the agricultural sector.

### III. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

#### A. Limitations of the Study

While our study uncovered some interesting and diverse role patterns for women in rural development, it also pointed up serious data gaps and other important considerations relevant to future research approaches in this field. Some of these are summarized below:

- Generalizing from the Seven Country Study. The restrictive sample of countries and projects within countries limits the general applicability of the findings. This is particularly true, as demonstrated in Section II.D. if the countries in the sample are used as proxies for conditions found in the two continents of South America and Africa.
- The availability of qualitative and quantitative data. Truly relevant statistics on the involvement of women in the rural sector generally were not available. In most countries in our sample national statistics cover only the commercial sector, ignoring the subsistence areas of the economy. In others, the male/female distributions are incomplete or missing. Although there was more data available for national capitals, it was not significantly better than what could be obtained in this country. Qualitative data (coming from anthropological studies of rural villages) was very interesting and offered some insights, but contained few hard data points which could be used for cross-cultural comparisons. Many of the best studies are now out of date. In addition, only a limited number of studies are available, and it is a fortuitous coincidence when research has been conducted on a particular region of special concern to development planners.<sup>1</sup> In spite of extensive bibliographic references, and long bibliographies on the roles of women,<sup>2</sup> little of the referenced material was useful; it simply could not answer the hard

---

1. An extensive search through the reference file of completed Ph.D. dissertations produced nine studies of potential value, of which three were actually useful in providing information on our seven countries.

2. Christina Hussey Schoux tells of receiving a bibliographic reference on women in Paraguay, perhaps the only available reference in the published literature. She hurried to the local library to find the document was written in the 1940's by an army colonel on the wifely qualities (obedience, charm, attractiveness, home-making, etc.) of Paraguayan women.

questions about women's decision-making and participation in the principal activities of the rural sector. For the purposes of our research, the conclusions were clear. While methodology and data consistency are a necessary subject for U.S. research, the data is in the field. Further research should insure a data-generating capability for the region of the country under study.<sup>1</sup>

Much of the material for this report was drawn from researchers in the countries studied. We found that in developing countries a limited number of highly qualified and motivated women researchers exist who could be mobilized for longer, more controlled and systematic data collection on the roles of women in the development process.

- The Precision of the Conclusions. Neither a larger sample nor harder data would have seriously affected the major limitation of this initial survey. There is no specification of the details of programs involving women, beyond the general proposition that income-generating projects produce significantly more change than traditional family care projects. What kinds of income-generating programs, and the details of their design and implementation, remain as a subject for further research.

Specifically, there are four major sets of data required in the second stage of a research program. These are: 1) the parameters of local circumstances which promote or retard the involvement of women in the rural sector economy; 2) the design options available for various ways of involving women; 3) the impact of the different design options on women, the family and the local society; and 4) the local institutions, agencies, societies, and movements which can support more direct roles for women. These data requirements are addressed in Recommendations for Future Research, below.

- The Cooperation of Local Governments and International Assistance Agencies. We are unable to be very specific about the interests -- much less the capability -- of local governments, external donors and international assistance agencies in carrying out projects with a specific women's component. This is not from neglect, and Appendix "C" offers what information we could obtain. However, as the field report from Bambi Eddy points out with great

---

1. There are two necessary qualifications. First, we did not investigate extensively the "motivational" literature concerned with the underlying reasons why decisions are made and actions taken in the rural sector. Although we are skeptical, this might be a fruitful source of data on women's roles. Second, and perhaps due to our lack of concentration on this subject, we did not locate solid research results on decision-making in questions of fertility, family planning and family size. In this critical field in development, we assume the work has been done or is ongoing. As our data indicates, we have no definitive conclusions on either the number of children desired by each parent, or the conditions which would make one parent prevail should a difference occur. Our data is equally skimpy on attitudes toward and participation in family planning activities.

clarity, there is a major gap between the pronouncements of intent to support programs which will more directly involve women in productive activities, and the launching of programs which actually do so. Even with good faith there is no easy way of transforming agreed policy into programmatic response. This is as true for the involvement of the rural poor (the bottom 40 percent, the small landholders) as it is for women. We have accepted such pronouncements as statements of intended policy, if time and circumstances allow. Few projects sponsored by governments or international agencies have specific women's components that are not in traditional family care areas. While government and international donor attitudes towards women's involvement in development must be ascertained, priority should be given at this point to creation of a clearly defined model of project design and implementation to include women. With this model, it would be possible to approach host governments and external donors with a request for specific training. Those governments who "buy in," establish their willingness to work in this field. We can see no other convincing way to tell serious intent from propaganda.

#### B. Recommendations for Further Research

Alternative One: Subsume the problems of women's involvement in the rural economy under the more general problem of designing development projects which bring benefits to small farmers and the rural poor. Under this approach, women constitute just one more category to be considered in the incidence of development benefits: small farmers, rural poor, men, women, etc. Considering the flurry of ongoing research directed at these problems, policy-makers and project design officers could wait until results allow the specification of a development model in which women are analyzed as a factor in labor/management and which can be generally applied, and then insist that AID use the model in

such a manner that women are fully integrated into the project.<sup>1</sup>

Insofar as work would be ongoing on development models, further effort could be expended in examining the more traditional women's projects for linkages to the rural economy. There seem to be three areas which could be productively investigated:

- Projects originally designed to modernize family care activities could be examined for linkages to rural production decisions and work participation. Our sample of projects includes a few which had this potential, and more could be identified in other developing countries. The impact on the involvement of women would undoubtedly be a secondary purpose of the project.
- AID or other international donors could assist host country voluntary organizations to develop a program which impacts not only on the countryside, but also on male decision-makers in the cities. For example, a National Women's Council could be assisted to develop a research proposal on the involvement of women in the rural sector, with the goal of identifying concrete policy actions which could be taken to overcome constraints on full participation. The research might not meet high academic standards, but it might be possible to tie in the voluntary women's groups to research organizations, or universities; this would require positive interaction and a feeling of involvement and commitment on the part of the voluntary organizations, or the results would not have the desired policy-level impact.
- More resources could be devoted to examining the various mechanisms for linking urban-educated women and rural peasant women. Clearly there are serious problems in understanding, role assumptions, and norm changes, as well as a general lack of the skills most needed to effect changes in the

---

1. There is a theory that when small farmers or the rural poor receive benefits from development, women will also benefit. This is analogous to the "trickle-down" approach and might well be called the "trickle-across" process. There is some reason to believe it will work, since the peasants on the bottom of the economic structure in the rural areas share work assignments, and divide production responsibilities. A general increase in production opportunities for the family might bring with it a specific increase for the involvement of women in the rural economy. There is no research on the dynamics of role redistribution comparable to ongoing work on the dynamics of income distribution (e.g., H. Chenery, et al., Redistribution with Growth, World Bank).

rural sector. However, other programs in population, education, nutrition, and more traditional family care programs have attempted to make use of voluntary women's organizations from the cities to promote change in the countryside. A better knowledge of how to accomplish this linkage, perhaps backed by research into past successful programs, could provide a useful basis for AID policy recommendations regarding new program support in the future.

Alternative Two: Attack directly the problem of women's lack of integration in the rural sector by a combined action and research program. This approach would attempt to answer the fundamental questions of design and implementation posed in the section on data gaps. Such an undertaking should have the following two components:

#### *COUNTRY-SPECIFIC AND REGION-SPECIFIC RESEARCH*

The primary purpose of this research would be first, to determine what steps should be taken to more effectively involve women in rural development; and second, to determine the most effective way of accomplishing the desired role changes. This can best be done by examining development efforts which are under way, to identify recent changes in society and the roles of women within that society. Such work will establish yardsticks for measuring further desired changes in the role of women, and indicate the best ways to accomplish these changes. This will entail a comparison of conditions which promote or inhibit role changes for women and the reasons why changes occur in one society but not in another. One approach would be to conduct a three-country study, with several regions within each country as "experiments," (in Latin America, Africa, and Asia.)

The research should be carefully prepared, with standardized data points and collection instruments. The field work would require a combination of U.S. specialists in the development process and local researchers, primarily women, studying the details of the particular region and project. For each of the areas to be studied, the research design should include the following four components:

- Local conditions and environment. Research should establish the local environmental conditions -- ethnic, economic, religious, cultural, social and political. Planners need to know how these conditions impede women's full participation in the economy, as well as which ones seem to promote their full inclusion. Are these conditions internal to the society or external? Must they be considered as given, or are they susceptible to change at the local or regional level?
- Options open to project designers. This would examine the options open, under a variety of local circumstances, for the inclusion of women in the development process. Agricultural modernization schemes (e.g. the introduction of irrigated rice) will have one type of interaction, commercialization of chicken production another. Part of the research must focus on the different ways that women can and do become involved in entrepreneurial or wage-labor occupations. Handicrafts and cattle-breeding may be different options for some African women; for others they will be mutually exclusive. Other options can exist in relative harmony with a number of piecework occupations. These need to be categorized, by type of development effort and by type of interaction between the "new" occupation and the cash economy.
- Impact of these involvement options. Impact of these options on women, children, husband/wife relations, family structure, and local social structure must be examined. Change is not neutral, particularly change induced by a potential increase in personal income. Since women are the traditional carriers of much of a culture's history and mores, as well as the prime educators of children, occupations which take women from the home, or separate them from the family may have strong secondary effects. Research should uncover these effects, as they relate to the local circumstances and the particular development project being investigated. One major element of this portion of the study should be an examination of the effect of different options for women's involvement on fertility, the birth

rate and acceptance of family planning practices.<sup>1</sup>

- Potential for support and sustained momentum.  
Research is needed on the potential for a project with a women's component to attract and respond to support from both official and unofficial agencies -- local, regional, national, religious, social and political. What are the resources indigenous to the target area which can be tapped, in addition to outside support? Some institutions (e.g. the church, in some cultures) may have many women constituents, and may be (or have the potential to be) promoters of change and increased women's involvement. These possible allies, and ways to strengthen their commitment, need to be included in the research study.

Careful choice of the countries to be studied, based upon actual projects which have strong women's components, could lead to a research project which would fill the data gaps outlined in the first portion of this section and provide a greatly improved model for the involvement of women in development projects. Such information will be useful for implementation of projects with a women's component. This subject is elaborated upon in the following section.

---

1. In this study we have consistently referred to the development process as one involving income, output, and employment. However, in a broader context, the question of population growth must be considered. There is likely to be no more important determinant for the growth of income, output and employment than the population growth rate. Any project design which could significantly lower this rate through the involvement of women would be a major contribution to development goals.

**PROJECT DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION**

From the viewpoint of the project manager, there are three important elements which should be taken into account in the design and implementation of a women's component.<sup>1</sup> These include the information required for project design; methods of implementation; and information systems to monitor, evaluate, and improve project performance. Each of these three elements is discussed below:

1. There is a need to develop operationally-useful and cost-effective methods of collecting the data necessary for the design of a specific development project. Traditional survey techniques are unlikely to be the best solution, and experimentation with data collection and analysis will speed the introduction of a woman's component into other development projects. In addition to the previous-specified data on local circumstances which might hinder or promote more involvement of women in the economy, and the suggested catalog of institutions and local resources which could assist in the introduction of women in projects, project designers should concentrate on acquiring the following sets of data:

---

1. It is possible to add a women's component to AID's development programs about to be launched, and to use these as experimental models for future programming. There are inherent problems with such an approach, since research has not yet been undertaken which specifies the impact of changes on women's roles. However, prior consideration of potential effects could maximize the knowledge to be gained by such an endeavor.

- The existing production process in the rural area, broken out by male and female, own-family and hired labor, with all necessary pieces of the rural economic system -- credit, savings, marketing, technology -- scheduled over a yearly production cycle.
- The existing production-process decision-making: who makes what decisions based upon what kinds of information, broken out by males and females, scheduled over a yearly production cycle.

This data is obtainable, and has been obtained and used to design and implement projects with a women's component. There is a logical sequence of questioning which delivers answers which allow the existing economic system to be matched with economic potential, the existing social structure to be compared to the changes in behavior necessary to make the development project function. While this is a somewhat specialized field, it is critical to the successful specification of how a rural development project should be organized and run if women, as well as families, local institutions, etc. are to benefit. The Yboma Development Project in Nigeria has been documented as an example of how this process should proceed. The details of their methods for data collection and use of the information elements recommended above are shown in Appendix "D".

2. Implementing projects with a women's component, insofar as the inclusion of the women's component has enough significance to change relative status and decision-making roles, may be difficult. Most project managers, ministers of agencies, heads of state, and so forth are male, and there will need to be a set of motivating conditions (above and beyond a belief in equality of the sexes) to insure that the operations are undertaken as designed.

Other work by DAI staff involving information systems to support project managers suggests that the "how to" of implementation is at least as complex and difficult to learn as the "how to" of project design.<sup>1</sup>

3. It is necessary to create an evaluation and monitoring system which will indicate the distribution of benefits to women in the project. While any good, ongoing information system will do more than evaluate (that is, it will assist project managers in improving their operations). There will be no way to measure the success of women's involvement in the absence of an evaluation system. As is noted in Appendix "D", even the highly successful Uboma project, which involved a great deal of upfront research on the local circumstances facing men and women in the production process, could not tell who (by income class) was receiving the benefits of the project. If there are large and small farmers, or large and small entrepreneurs, as well as males and females in the project, success in involving women will depend upon a system which closely monitors project inputs, and measures project outputs and benefits by distributional impact. This is also a highly complex area which requires the assistance of information specialists;<sup>2</sup> but it is an area which must not be omitted if there is to be any "testing" of projects design to involve women, as well as to bring them the benefits of the development process.

---

1. A development project generally has a number of levels. There is need to find reasons why the newly-designed project will assist the project manager (generally male) in doing something which is important to him, or the new ideas will not be implemented. Reasons why women should be involved in development projects, and the benefits that they will bring to the project manager are not obvious. The attempt to make women's involvement in a project work will bring forth a great many insights that will be helpful in expanding these concepts when better designs become available.

2. DAI, under contract to TA/DA, AID is assisting in the design and implementation of information systems in Peru and Bolivia.

APPENDIX A

PROJECT-SPECIFIC DATA ON 17 DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS



PROJECT: Home Extension Program

COUNTRY/REGION: Ghana, Greater Accra Region, Volta Central Region, Eastern and Northern Region

AGENCY: Ministry of Agriculture

OBJECTIVES: Bring about improvements in:  
Nutrition in diets  
Production of high-protein crops  
Improved food preparation, storing, and preservation  
Improved health and sanitation practices

ORGANIZATION: National, with regional offices and district offices

PROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

Activities

Project was originally identified by the head of the Home Extension Division of the Ministry of Agriculture. The design was undertaken by the Head and three senior staff (female)

Interaction

A survey in each district of major problems. Three months of full-time field work, for 3 regions in 1971

Organization

A national and regional staff (all women) composed of 9 members

Implementation

Activities

Field extension workers trained by District Supervisors 6 times a year (total of 12 days) prepare lesson plans for field extension workers

Interaction

Staff meetings

Organization

District Supervisor and field extension workers (35 women)

Activities

Conduct demonstrations and training courses in villages, offering new technology in:

- planting and food production
- testing new high-protein recipes
- improvements in family care, health, sanitation and food preservation

Interaction

Regular visits to villages to meet women in groups or in their homes

Organization

35 field extension workers for 140 villages, approximately 1800 participants

SUBPROJECT: Ghana, Greater Accra, Amrahia, Bangbeshai,  
Extension Program

YEAR INITIATED: 1971

NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS: 20

% FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: 28

FEMALE MIGRATION: None

FEMALE LANDHOLDING TENURE: Both men and women own land

FARM SIZE: Average 3 hectares

SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
2 visits by a male extension worker to the village chief to secure his approval of the female home improvement program	Personal visit	Village Chief
Survey of the village	Personal visits	Unstructured
Lesson plans delivered to female extension workers from Headquarters in Accra	No interaction	
Interest-arousing group meeting	Discussion of program with women	Village meeting of females

## Implementation

ActivitiesInteractionOrganization

Appointment of group leader,  
(female)

Extension worker to  
village chief to  
group meeting of  
females

Appointment  
authority by  
village chief

Use of lesson plans to give  
demonstrations and training  
courses for:

Home visits as well  
as group meetings,  
once a week for 4  
hours by one exten-  
sion worker (female)

Structure of  
group meetings  
unknown

- improved kitchen and  
home arrangements
- backyard gardening
- food and nutrition
- use of fertilizers
- rabbit production
- chicken production
- fruit tree production
- food preservation

SUBPROJECT: Ghana, Greater Accra, Ga-rural, Dome, Extension Program

YEAR INITIATED: 1972

NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS: 25

% FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: 10%

FEMALE MIGRATION: None

FEMALE LANDHOLDING: TENURE: women own 20% of the land.

FARM SIZE: each project participant has received from her husband an average of one acre (prior to and independent of project identification)

SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Two visits by extension worker to convince village chief and elders of project's merit	Personal visit	Village chief and elders
Survey of the village	Personal visits	Unstructured
Interest-arousing group meeting	Discussion of program with women	Village meeting of females
Lesson plan designed in Accra	Meetings at headquarters	No interaction

Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Appointment of group leader and assistant group leader (females)	Extension worker to village chief to group meetings of females	Appointment authority by village chief

Activities

Use of lesson plans to give demonstrations and training courses for:

- improved kitchen and home arrangement
- food and nutrition
- crop production
- rabbit production
- use of seeds and seedlings
- use of fertilizer
- backyard gardening
- food preservation

Interaction

Home visits as well group meetings, once a week for 4 hours by one extension worker (female)

Organization

Structure of meetings unknown

PROJECT SUCCESS INDICATORS:

Women's Own Behavior Changes:

- changed food production and family eating habits
- increased use of fertilizer and insecticides on family garden plots
- increased use of water purification and food preservation
- increased food production allowing family food budget to be reduced (purchased food)
- increased sales of garden produce over and above family use

Influence on Joint Male/Female Production:

Project participants receive the only extension service available for improved agricultural techniques. There is no comparable service for males. Thus the female is able to transmit newly-acquired knowledge of food production to her husband which may result in an increase in family output from agriculture.

Self-Sufficiency:

While the project has appointed female group leaders and assistance leaders who are supposed to be assuming leadership roles which will reduce dependency on the extension worker, at this point in the project, meetings will not take place if the extension worker misses the weekly visit. The group self-help motivation is not yet fully developed.

PROJECT: Christian Mothers' Association

COUNTRY/REGION: Ghana, Nationwide

AGENCY: Christian Mothers' Associations

OBJECTIVES: Formation of local group  
in sewing, cooking, literacy, health,  
nutrition and handicraft selling

ORGANIZATION: National with cities, town and village groups

PROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Project guidelines drawn up in Accra by a Christian professional female who gathered core group of six Ghanaian women with inputs from an American professional and German women lawyer	Group discussions	Committee
German lawyer & Ghanaian teacher talked with Christian groups and Muslim chiefs in preparation for forming town and village groups	Group discussion and personal visits	Committee

Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Womens' group formed in each locality; Local leader selected	Group discussion	Accra Committee and local group (10 groups in Accra; 5 groups in various towns; 85 groups in villages; Average of 25 participants per group)

Implementation

Activities

Project programs, weekly courses in:  
•sewing  
•literacy  
•health  
•nutrition  
•cooking  
district seminars on civic and social education;  
monthly newsletter (from Accra); annual conference on household improvement demonstrations

Yearly training weekend for 200 project participants; evaluation of project and planning for new year's activities

Interaction

Demonstrations  
lectures, and  
discussions

Discussions

Organization

Local groups and local area supervisors and organizers ( 9 female professionals)

Select group

SUBPROJECT: Ghana, Eastern Region, Ntronang, Christian Mothers' Association

YEAR INITIATED: 1969

NUMBER FEMALE PARTICIPANTS: 350 (13 villages)

%FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: 4%

FEMALE MIGRATION: N/A

FEMALE LANDHOLDING: 10 acres per household

SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

Activities

Interaction

Organization

Senior CMA officer met with parish priest and Christians to discuss CMA project guidelines

Personal visits

CMA and local Christians

CMA staff visits women in each target village three times a year to promote project

Discussion of program with women

Village meeting of females

Implementation

Activities

Interaction

Organization

Demonstrations and lectures on sewing, cooking, soap making, cloth dyeing, improved house care, poultry raising, backyard gardening

Group meetings once a week

Women instructors

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Discussions of social issues and community activities	Group meeting once a week	Structure unknown
Leadership course with skills demonstration	Accra conference once a year	Headquarters staff
Newsletter	Translated and read aloud once a month	Headquarters staff

SUBPROJECT: Ghana, Northern Region, Tamale, Gumbehini-Choggo

YEAR INITIATED: 1972

NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS: 20 women in two villages

% FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: None

FEMALE MIGRATION: N/A

FEMALE LANDHOLDING: In the northern region the land is usually held by the village chiefs or village elders

SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

Activities

Interaction

Organization

A local mission sister conducted interviews with local teachers, parish priest, village elders and women leaders in the villages

Personal visits

Community leaders

Elders permitted 8 women to receive home improvement training in their own houses

Individual visits

Village elders

Regional organizer and local sister visited women at their homes to determine needed areas of training

Personal visits (twice a week) and word-of-mouth

Project staff

Implementation

Activities

Interaction

Organization

Demonstrations in:

- sewing baby clothes
- embroidery
- bag making

Home visits; after one year, women allowed to attend classes as a group (once a week; 6 hours)

Project staff (four females)

ActivitiesInteractionOrganization

Taking out and paying off  
of loan (with interest) to  
buy fabric

Personal visit

Nuns and ILO  
consultant

Training participants as  
leaders who can pass on new  
skills to neighbors

Classes

Project staff

Collecting old clothes to  
repair

Informal

Informal

PROJECT SUCCESS INDICATORS:

Women's Own Behavior Changes:

- Participants accepted more responsibilities as members of group
- Increased income from sales of baked goods, clothes, vegetables, and handicrafts
- Changed family eating habits, improved child care
- Increased civic consciousness and community involvement
- Increased decision-making and leadership roles

Influence on Joint Male/Female Production:

- Increased division of labor on the farm, thereby contributing to production efficiency
- Husbands upon occasion attend group meetings and presumably benefit from farm improvement demonstrations

Self-Sufficiency:

- Muslim women pass on project-derived skills to their neighbors thus perpetuating the program
- Most groups establish their own weekly schedules and long term projects, such as a yearly pilgrimage to Accra

**PROJECT:** Denu Shallots Project

**COUNTRY/REGION:** Ghana, Volta Region, Denu District

**AGENCY:** Indigenous effort, with recent support from the Agricultural Development Bank and the Ministry of Agriculture

**OBJECTIVES:** Crop-specific effort designed by local people to:

- turn sandy strip (which constitutes Denu District) into productive land
- improve family income, primarily from fishing, through the introduction of shallot growing for domestic market
- create local cooperatives capable of increasing the profitability of shallot growing and of receiving external loans for expanding production

**ORGANIZATION:** One main cooperative, with six village branches

**YEAR INITIATED:** Cooperative formed in 1956; shallot growing began 75 years ago.

**NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS:** 417 farm families involved, with an average of 2 women per family working on shallot growing, or 834

**% FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY:** 7%

**FEMALE MIGRATION:** Minimal, though educated tend to move to larger cities

**FEMALE LANDHOLDING:** **TENURE:** Women heads-of-household have reasonable security

**FARM SIZE:** Average holding is 1.8 acres.

PROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Introduction of shallot growing from Togoland	Migration	None
Continuing experimentation with land improvement (both men and women involved).	Informal cooperation, including credit system	None

## Identification and Design

ActivitiesInteractionOrganization

Formation of the Anloga Cooperative V.G. Marketing Society (male decision)

Government officials with most progressive male farmers

Ministry of Cooperatives

## Implementation

Development of Scientific method for shallot growing which includes use of natural fertilizers (cow and swallow dung and dried fish) and chemical fertilizers

Experimentation by men and women in area

None  
(Ministry of Agriculture provides chemical inputs)

Introduction of tomato and maize production between shallot crop cycles

Extension worker assistance to cooperative members and wives

Ministry of Agriculture

Loan to expand production and purchase tractors for land preparation and transport of crop to market (reduced labor requirement primarily for women)

Government officials working through cooperative

Agricultural Development Bank  
Anloga Cooperative

Transition from voluntary farm labor contribution by women to wage employment where the women were able to keep major portion of payments <sup>1</sup>

Increased cash from loan and commercialization of shallot growing led to male/female decision for wage employment

None

---

<sup>1</sup>The loan from the Agricultural Development Bank had a positive impact on women by reducing the burden on them for carrying crop to market and for helping prepare land (through the introduction of tractors) and by insuring that they would receive cash income. However, the cooperative has run into serious trouble paying off the loan, for only 20% was used to expand production. Moreover, the cooperative members view the loan as a government grant, particularly since the Nkrumah regime seized the assets of the cooperative in the mid-1960s. The military may intervene to insure repayment.

PROJECT SUCCESS INDICATORS:

Women's Own Behavior Change:

- . experimentation with new land improvement techniques
- . adoption of new crops such as maize and tomatoes
- . commercialization of shallot growing, with wage employment for women

Influence on Joint Male/Female Production:

Over the years, the market demand for shallots in Ghana has increased significantly. Therefore, shallot growing has become a major source of family income. In the transition, the women have become more actively involved in the local area experimentation and decision-making, though the cooperative is male dominated. Further, there has been a transition to wage employment for women. In addition to planting, weeding and fertilizing the crops (maize, and tomatoes), the women bundle and market the shallots (which has been facilitated by the tractors).

Self-sufficiency:

Being a totally indigenous effort, shallot growing was a totally viable effort until the granting of the Agricultural Development Bank loan. This was an ill-conceived move by the government, for there was a local credit system functioning. In spite of the unwillingness of the farmers to pay back the loan, the proceeds from the three crop cycles (yearly) of shallots appear to be sufficient to pay off the loan.

**PROJECT:** Small Holder Tobacco Production and Flue Curing

**COUNTRY/REGION:** Nigeria, Western State, Iseyin Division

**AGENCY:** Nigerian Tobacco Company and the British American Tobacco Company

**BACKGROUND:** The Nigerian Tobacco Company was started by the British American Tobacco Company in 1933. Gradually production increased, and the major plant was constructed in Ibadan in 1948. Initially, the company introduced the growing of green leaves by peasant farmers. The company bought the green leaves and then flue-cured them for processing. In 1954, NTC decided that the company would get higher quality leaves if the small farmers did the curing and grading of the leaves themselves. Moreover, this innovation would substantially increase the profitability to small farmers of tobacco production. The Western State Ministry of Agriculture contended that the process of curing and grading was beyond the capabilities of the farmers. Women had established roles in the growing of green leaves which included planting, weeding, and harvesting.

**OBJECTIVES:** Introduction of flue-curing by small farmers to:

- . improve the quantity and quality of tobacco at less cost to the NTC
- . improve farm family income from the production of tobacco

**ORGANIZATION:** Division-level operation of the NTC which supervises 7,000 small farmers

### PROJECT DYNAMICS

#### Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Green leaf growing (90% by male and 10% by female heads-of-household)	NTC leaf instructors provide strict extension supervision; initially weekly and then monthly	Nigerian Tobacco Company
Introduction of flue curing by small farmers (Women were hired and trained to assist with the grading.)	NTC assisted farmers to form cooperatives or companies; larger farmers initially involved	NTC

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Because larger farmers were getting most of the benefits, NTC introduce Farm Family Unit approach	NTC supervision of cooperatives and companies	Nigerian Tobacco Company

(Farm Family Units consisted of three families headed by blood-related heads-of-household, almost always male.)

#### Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Procurement of credit and construction of barns (Credit decision made jointly by males and females.)	FFU or Association and NTC/Barclay's Bank. Initiative usually from small farmers to leaf instructors	Nigerian Tobacco Company (technical assistance) Barclay's Bank (credit)
Growing of tobacco (women assist in planting and weeding)	Extension visits by Leaf Instructors	Nigerian Tobacco Company
Harvesting of tobacco (primarily done by women)	Timing of harvest supervised by leaf instructors	Nigerian Tobacco Company
Training of small in flue-curing (done by male and grading done primarily by women)	Extension visits; demonstrations	Nigerian Tobacco Company

SUBPROJECT: Nigeria, Western State, Iseyin Division, Otu,  
Ilero Road Farm Family Unit (FFU)

YEAR INITIATED: 1971

NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS: 3 Brothers control FFU;  
7 Female relatives involved in  
growing and curing of tobacco

%FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: 0%

FEMALE MIGRATION: None

FEMALE LANDHOLDING: TENURE: Male control of the land  
FARM SIZE: Average holding per family: 4 acres;  
Average holding in area: 2.1 acres

SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Head-of-household heard about FFU approach; contacted NTC	Meeting with Leaf Instructor	Nigerian Tobacco Company
Formed group and opened bank account; constructed barn (male-female joint decision on accepting credit)	Leaf Instructor supervision	Nigerian Tobacco Company

Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Grew 6 acres of tobacco yearly (Women assisted with planting, weeding, and harvesting) to forming FFU, grew 3 acres	Weekly extension visits by leaf instructor	FFU and Nigerian Tobacco Company
Began flue-curing (male operation, though women helped prepare racks of green leaves)	Short training course and weekly visits by NTC leaf instructors	Nigerian Tobacco Company
Grading and marketing to NTC (grading is primarily done by women)	Weekly visits by leaf Instructors who train women	Nigerian Tobacco Company

**SUCCESS INDICATORS:**

**Women's own behavior changes:**

- developed new skill (grading) which directly increases family income through employment or work on family venture
- reduced family dependence on women's off-farm employment, mainly petty marketing
- provided enough income so all children can be educated

**Influence on Joint Male/Female Production:**

The introduction of flue-curing has increased the profitability per acre of tobacco production from about 34N (\$56) for growing green leaf to about 86N (\$140). There have been several side effects. For example, the family is no longer dependent on credit from the urban-based market women, thus avoiding interest charges which run as high as 100%. The women in the FFU families have gained a skill which allows them to contribute on a yearly basis to providing higher family income, without seeking opportunities away from the family. Further, if the husband dies, the woman will inherit his portion of the FFU operation. Another effect is that the use of improved inputs such as fertilizer has produced better crop yields.

**Self-sufficiency;**

The FFUs have proven to be commercially viable. The loans from Barclay's Bank (which are given at regular commercial rates) are normally paid off within two to three years. The only subsidies in the program are the seeds which NTC provides and the technical assistance, the requirement for which becomes less as the FFUs gain experience. Moreover, the family unit has proven to be a cohesive local-level operating organization.

**SUBPROJECT:** Nigeria, Western State, Iseyin Division, Otu.

**YEAR INITIATED:** 1964

**NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS:** 26 members of Association (none female  
40 women (wives or employees) involved  
in grading  
200 small holders, of whom about 20  
are women, sell green leaves to  
association

**% FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY:** 5%

**FEMALE MIGRATION:** Rare, except for the well-educated

**FEMALE LANDHOLDING: TENURE:** Land owned primarily by men; in case  
of Association 100% male owner-  
ship

**FARM SIZE:** Association members: Average 8 acres  
Local area: Average 2.1 acres  
under cultivation

### SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

#### Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Policy decision by NTC to introduce flue curing by small farmers; formation of Otu - 1 Association	NTC and larger farmers--frequent negotiations	Nigerian Tobacco Company
Training of some of Association members in flue-curing	6 month course	Nigerian Tobacco Company
Purchase of NTC barns	NTC and leaders	Association and Nigerian Tobacco Company

#### Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Flue-curing operation initiated	Strict supervision by frequent inspection visits	Association and Nigerian Tobacco Company
Training of women in the grading operation (provided employment opportunities)	Informal training by NTC and members of association who attended course	Association and Nigerian Tobacco Company

PROJECT: Tiv Bams

COUNTRY/REGION: Nigeria, Southern Benue Plateau State, 3 Tiv Divisions

AGENCY: Totally indigenous; developed by traditional leadership

OBJECTIVES: Saving/Credit program designed to:

- provide production and consumption credit
- establish basis for community development efforts
- establish basis for local agricultural development efforts

ORGANIZATION: 5,000 independent Bams throughout Tiv Land, with an average membership of 50-60 (men and women)

PROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Idea originated because government tied availability of credit to political support	Traditional tribal leadership met and decided (no female involvement)	Traditional structure
Design took account of credit needs, the traditional social structure, the need for developing local organization, and strict discipline of people imposed by Dutch Reform Church	Traditional leadership with experiments in few villages (1949-50)	Traditional structure

Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
People at local level formed own group and elected leadership	Non-traditional leaders normally provided initiative	Use of traditional patterns of cooperation

Activities

Bi-weekly meetings were held, at which people are required to deposit savings; Finance Committee determines who should receive loans. Community problems are discussed and, at times, communal activities planned.

At end of the year, Bam is dissolved and return from interest and fines used to purchase meat for group or contributed to community endeavor. More progressive Bams have longer duration, and use fund for purchase of tractor or development of agribusinesses .

Interaction

Members of group on bi-weekly basis

Organization

Bam

Bam

SUBPROJECT: Zaki-Biam Women's Bam

YEAR INITIATED: 1969

NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS: 54 (out of 92)

% FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: 10%

FEMALE MIGRATION: Little, except for better educated

FEMALE LANDHOLDING: TENURE: 12 out of 92 own land, or have reasonable security on the land

FARM SIZE: Average Female Holding 4 acres  
Average Male Holding 5 acres

SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
School master (male) and women teachers decided to initiate Bam in 1969	Informal meetings	Taught at church-sponsored school
Modified design which had been used in other areas	Meeting of potential members-- first year	Informal
Elected leadership, with woman as chairman and women filling 40% of leadership positions	Meeting of members	Bam

(It should be noted that the inclusion of women in the bams is a major step; traditionally men have controlled family income.)

Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Deposits made every 2 weeks, normally amount to 500N (\$820)	Bi-weekly meeting	Bam
Funds loaned out for <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• school fees</li> <li>• production inputs</li> <li>• taxes</li> <li>• land purchase</li> <li>• funerals or weddings</li> </ul>	Finance Committee	Bam
Loans range from 20 to 30N (\$50) at an interest rate of 10% per month		

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Loan repayment enforced by Bam judicial boards and supported by Government	10 elected judges	Bam
Total collection and loans for year 20,000N (\$32,800), of which 30% went for production and 70% for consumption credit	Bi-weekly meeting	Bam
Total interest collected was 150N (\$2,460) which went for the purchase of meat and payment of salaries of Bam leadership	Determination by entire Bam	Bam
Several small community development projects carried out since 1969, mainly road repair	Group, communal efforts	Bam

SUCCESS INDICATORS:

Women's own behavior change:

- . started process by which women (other than heads-of-household) could receive and control a portion of the family income;
- . provided women with opportunities to assume leadership roles in the community and have a voice in decisions;
- . provided badly needed credit to families for production and consumption.

Influence on joint female/male production:

Little effect except that women began assuming larger role in family income decisions.

Self-sufficiency:

The Tiv Bams are totally self-sufficient. The chief problem (and potential) is the transition from being an annual affair to having organizations with a longer life, so that more major productive ventures can be launched. This process is occurring.

An outgrowth of the Bam movement has been the Tiv Farmer Associations, jointly developed by the Tiv leadership and Ministry of Agriculture officials. Through these, innovations are spread throughout Tiv land. Even though they are primarily male, women over recent years have become directly involved.

The government supports the Bam movement because it has facilitated tax and school fee collection.

PROJECT: Uboma Development Project

COUNTRY/REGION: Nigeria, East Central State, Bende Division,  
Uboma Local Council

AGENCY: Shell/BP Petroleum Company

OBJECTIVES: Integrated rural development program to:

- . provide increased quantity and improved quality of food-stuffs to adequately meet family needs, as well as to create surplus for sale
- . increase farm family income from permanent crops and other cash crops;
- . stimulate the development of rural industries;
- . improve social services--health, road networks--and other infrastructure priorities.

ORGANIZATION: Project unit to provide technical assistance in 25-square-mile Uboma area

INITIATED: 1964

NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS: Approximately 5,000

% FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: 10%

FEMALE MIGRATION: Migration into area; population grew from 34,000 to 45,000 over past ten years. Educated males tend to leave so female/male ratio is high

FEMALE LANDHOLDING: TENURE: Land distribution controlled by traditional chiefs and heads of households; about 15% of women are heads of households and hold land.

FARM SIZE: Average holding 5 acres

### PROJECT DYNAMICS

#### Identification and Design

#### Activities

Search for area in East Central State to carry out development program (1963).

#### Interaction

Agronomist spent 3 man-months; no interaction with local population.

#### Organization

Shell

127

## Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Selected Uboma area and held two meetings with local leaders (male and female) to get approval to do socio-economic survey	Agronomist held two meetings with local leaders	Shell
Socio-economic survey carried out	Agronomist and academics conducted survey over nine months. Lengthy interviews carried out with families.	Shell (University of Ibadan)

[Survey identified activities which would have high impact on local population and traditional patterns of cooperation on which to build. It was found that women were important in several groups including churches (which had done much to improve women's education in the area), Isusu (credit associations), age-sets (Ibo traditional organizations by age), as well as having their own associations. Further it was determined that women were responsible for arable crops and increasing family income through petty marketing and cooking, tailoring, and basket weaving.]

### Implementation

Introduction of improved techniques for food crops and of new crops, to include <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>. irrigated and dry land rice</li> <li>. hybrid maize</li> <li>. use of fertilizer and pesticides</li> <li>. dry season vegetables</li> </ul>	Use of extension visits, demonstrations and field days, announcements in church and community meetings (directed in large part at women)	Shell agronomist and 2 agricultural extension workers
Introduction of improved oil palm, pineapple and citrus grown for cash	Same as above, though directed primarily at men	Shell agronomist and agricultural extension workers
Introduction of poultry (women) and hog (male) production	Provision of livestock, and technical and management assistance	Shell agronomist and 2 agricultural extension workers

## Implementation

Activities

Formation of 17 multi-purpose cooperatives, joined together as the Uboma Farmers' Cooperative Union (2 to 1, male/female ratio) Activities include small rural industries (2 rice mills and several oil palm presses) savings and credit, weaving for commercial purposes.

Community development activities to include construction and maintenance of road and path network through area

Training in nutrition, health, sewing, and vegetable growing

Interaction

After determination of traditional patterns of cooperation local leaders (male and female) were encouraged to establish cooperatives through meetings with project staff

Carried out by age-sets which include women

Period of 1 and 1/2 years; weekly meeting

Organization

Shell project unit

Village decision Shell project unit support.

Shell home economist

SUCCESS INDICATORS:

Women's own behavior change:

- adoption of new techniques for arable crops which led to increased family income from sales of surplus (and which women basically controlled)
- expanded role for women in community development decision-making
- reduced reliance on petty marketing for family income
- improved nutrition through the introduction of poultry and dry season vegetables (both primarily through women)
- increased family savings and credit because of women's direct participation in cooperatives

Influence on joint male/female production:

The project approach was to increase production through the mobilization of local human and financial resources, without an infusion of external funding. From the outset, it was recognized that this meant working directly with the women in the area, and through this work, the women's role in family production decision-making was enhanced. The project has lessened dependence on off farm employment or marketing activities, so that more time is devoted by the women to farm activities.

Self-sufficiency:

In recent years, Shell/BP has calculated that there is a five to one return in income over technical assistance costs. The area will not for the time being be able to cover the costs of the technical assistance. However, the creation of the cooperative movement combined with the strengthening of the local institutional structure suggest that they would continue if the project unit were withdrawn. Moreover, the technical innovations have proven successful enough so that the farmers are willing to invest own funds without subsidies.

PROJECT: Ahero Pilot Project (Rice Scheme)

COUNTRY/REGION: Kenya, Nyanza Province, Kisumu District, Kano Plains

AGENCY: UNDP/FAO, Ministry of Agriculture

OBJECTIVES: Increase income and output of small farmers by the introduction of modern techniques in rice production. Project includes social services and housing, health, etc. New land tenure patterns tested.

ORGANIZATION: Regional and Local

### PROJECT DYNAMICS

#### Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Irrigation Survey of the Nile Basin	None	COK (Colonial)
Preliminary survey of region		Private Organization
Re-survey of the Nile Basin		Private Organization
FAO contract organization designs Project, drawing upon experience with similar project-Mwea Tzabare Rice Scheme	None/Little	Group under contract to FAO
Design shaped to local area requirements	Open village meetings, and extension visits	Traditional community/tribal structure, with concentration on elders

#### Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Leadership positions occupied by Ministry of Agriculture Personnel	Open meetings and extension visits	No indication of special organizations other than traditional groupings
Introduction of commercial agriculture		
Introduction of new rice technique		
Introduction of renewable 4-acre land grants, with housing, health, etc. provided		
Operate an irrigated agriculture research station		
Obtain credit, pay back from proceeds of crop which is marketed by project		

**LAND TENURE:** All participants are licensed land-holders, given 4-acre plots on a renewable lease. There are 5% women heads-of-household, out of a total of 519 farm households.

**MIGRATION:** No data

**PERCENT FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY:** No data

PROJECT SUCCESS INDICATORS

Women's Own Behavior Changes:

- women directly involved in production process for rice. This includes planting (and probably transplanting), as well as harvesting, winnowing, threshing, etc.
- Some women work off-farm on other rice plots
- Provision of social services, health, etc. may have improved child-care, nutrition practices, etc.

Influence on joint Male/Female Production:

- Modern rice technology is profitable under most circumstances, and women are a necessary part of the own family labor applied to the irrigated land
- Incomes should go up as a result of joint production effort

Self-sufficiency:

- No data on the ability of this project to carry itself

PROJECT: Lirhembe Multi-Service Cooperative

COUNTRY/REGION: Kenya, Shitoli Subdivision, Central Division,  
Western Province

AGENCY: NOVIB (Dutch private agency), Government of Kenya

OBJECTIVES: Area development program to:

- . improve agricultural planning and production in poor, less progressive area
- . improve the welfare of the local people through the provision of social services
- . accomplish the above through a community center, where local people can meet, discuss problems and plans, and receive training and services
- . build viable local organization

ORGANIZATION: Multi-service cooperative directed at specific geographic area of 1000 acres; supporting services provided by the Division level government agencies

PROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Member of Parliament met with Dutch professor to discuss how to promote development in poor area of his constituency	None	None
MP held meeting with local leaders (primarily male and female teachers) to discuss possibilities	Meeting of leaders	Informal
MP held meetings with local people (primarily heads of households who are female) to work out plan for setting up cooperative	Discussion of cooperative and people's willingness to participate (two meetings)	Barazas
Initial decision-making controlled by males, even though high percentage were working in cities		

## Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Formation of cooperative in early 1972, and election of Board which includes 3 women and 4 men.	MP/local leaders with local population	Several Barazas
Construction of the cooperative center, with women providing major portion of local labor contribution	Board members and local population; weekly meetings for five months	Cooperative
Introduction of agricultural plan	Survey by Division Ministry of Agriculture staff. Some interaction with local population to determine current practices and reaction to possible innovations (with male and female heads-of-household )	3 Ministry of Agriculture officers
Agricultural plan includes: •introduction of hybrid maize •introduction of grade cattle •introduction of passion fruit and vegetables	Extension visits about once a week (first time effort directed at women)  Field Days/Demonstrations (every two mos.)	2 Junior Ag. Assistants; 1 Animal Health Assistant; 1 Home Economics Assistant
Agricultural Credit provided for grade cattle and maize	Cooperative Board and members; during the initial stages, males made all decisions to accept credit, though as innovations began to work, women started making decisions to accept credit for purchase of grade cattle (major shift)	Cooperative
Building community cooperation	Weekly social gathering at center: movies and discussion about problems and plans	Cooperative

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Cooperative management	Meeting every two months (male and female participation)	Cooperative
Social services (directed at women) include:		Women's Association arm of the Cooperative and home economics assistant
•Home economics (primarily sewing)	30-50 women per week	
•Community health	Training of 3 women as health workers to staff clinic and day care center	Cooperative and "Flying Doctors"
•Machine knitting	Training of 3 women for commercial production	Cooperative and Technical School (nearby)

YEAR INITIATED: 1972

NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS: 400 families involved with 200 having female heads-of-household

% FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: 60%

FEMALE MIGRATION: Some better educated females have left; significant that males leave area for employment so women in essence become heads-of-household

FEMALE LAND HOLDING: TENURE: Both men and women may hold land or titles to land; 95% of both have reasonable security rather than titles; 10-20% female owners or holders

FARM SIZE: average 2.5 acres

PROJECT SUCCESS INDICATORS:

Women's Own Behavior Changes:

- increased role in production decision-making which led to the spread of hybrid maize (about 100%), the growing of vegetables, and adoption of passion fruit
- women made major decision on the acceptance of credit (for grade cattle) for the first time
- increased marketing by women because of shift from pure subsistence production to a proportion for cash
- improved family health services, nutrition, and clothing because of training programs carried out by women's association
- formalization of women's role in community decision-making

Influence on Joint Male/Female Production :

Because the program was for area development, it was necessary to deal with both male and female heads-of-household; as a consequence, the extension service of the Ministry of Agriculture focused on women so that changes would be made throughout the area. During the initial stages of the project, the husbands who were located in Nairobi or areas of the project, made all the production decisions. As the profitability of maize and grade cattle became apparent, the women assumed a major decision-making role, even to the extent of getting credit for grade cattle without the approval of their "absentee" husbands.

Self-Sufficiency:

The input from NOVIB was \$140,000, broken into four payments. After the first payment, the remainder was only given if progress had been made in developing a viable local organization and improving family income. The cooperative functions on a revolving fund, and as a result of this initial funding from NOVIB plus return from the marketing and other services of the cooperative, will become financially viable. The innovations in agriculture and social services have been successful so will be continued; one reason for their success was the local involvement of the target population in deciding what to do.

**PROJECT:** Masai Rural Training Center

**COUNTRY/REGION:** Kenya, Kajiado District, Insinya

**AGENCY:** National Christian Council of Kenya

**OBJECTIVES:** Reduce risk to Masai cattle from climatic conditions and integrate the Masai into Kenya's cash economy through literacy and vocational training, and commercial activities

**ORGANIZATION:** District-level planning

PROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Masai tribal chiefs identified need for project in 1961 after having lost many cattle in a drought. The National Christian Council designed an integrated program of activities.	Committees set up; representatives from NCCK, tribe, local, and national governments, met to discuss program.	Local and national governments, NCCK, and tribe.

Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Elementary school	Class	Center staff
Training Activities:		
• Adult literacy	Periodic courses during the year	Center staff
• Vocational training in farming techniques	Classes	
• Ranching (cattle breeding to improve livestock resistance)	Class	Local males and project staff
Village Polytechnic		
Classes in:		
• Animal husbandry and vaccines	Class	Local males and project staff
• Masonry		
• Carpentry		
• Metallurgy		
• Auto mechanics		

Activities

Interaction

Organization

Tannery

Small industry

Tribal mem-  
bers

Dispensary for children

Clinic

Local women  
and children

SUBPROJECT: Kenya, Kajiado District, Insinya, Tannery

YEAR INITATED: 1970

NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS: over 200 women

%FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: 10%

FEMALE MIGRATION: None

FEMALE LANDHOLDING: Nomads, wealth in terms of cattle; average  
cattle holding per family is about 200 head

SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

Activities

Interaction

Organization

National committee got a grant from the NCKK to hire 12 male workers for tannery; Women loaned beads, thread, needles, and leather to make handicrafts

Group discussion

National committee and NCKK

Implementation

Activities

Interaction

Organization

The handicrafts sold at the tannery shop and also at a shop in Nairobi

Customer-Merchant

British wife of Masai Center Managing Director oversees project

Women's quality control cooperative sees that women get proper prices for their goods and that the quality of product is maintained

Meets as a group once a week

Women's governing board

PROJECT SUCCESS INDICATORS:

**Women's Own Behavior Changes:**

Increase of income by 50-100%. No new skills were acquired. Women do discuss problems in the cooperative. They have a feeling of self-worth and independence--especially from the piece-work arrangement for sale of their handicrafts (i.e. a woman gets paid per item produced, thus there is no limit to the amount of money she can earn).

**Influence on Male/Female Production:**

Women are very concerned with cattle-raising because of the availability of hides for leather handicraft production. Difficult to gauge the exact impact of the project on cattle-raising.

**Self-Sufficiency:**

Eighty percent self-sufficiency with guaranteed funding. The management is primarily native with the exception of the British couple. The tannery pays for itself.

PROJECT: Thaba Bosiu Rural Development Project

COUNTRY/REGION: Lesotho, Thaba Bosiu

AGENCY: USAID/IDA

OBJECTIVES: Increase agricultural income and output by improving existing production techniques, introducing new crops, improving on input delivery and marketing systems, and land conservation

ORGANIZATION: Regional project, administration by ex-patriates, quasi-independent

### PROJECT DYNAMICS

#### Identification and Design

##### Activities

World Bank and USAID decided to launch project; they put together a project team which was approved by the Lesotho government. Local Basutos with technical competence were recruited.

##### Interaction

Minimum interaction between project team and Lesotho government

##### Organization

World Bank, AID

#### Implementation

##### Activities

Demonstrations to improve yields by use of fertilizer and new seeds

Introduction of new crops by selecting a small number of farmers, providing them seeds and technical assistance on a credit basis. They participate in two-day courses

Distribution centers for fertilizer and seeds. Local person chosen by community meeting to run a retail outlet. Goal of 80 centers

##### Interaction

Group meetings

Group demonstration

Group discussion

##### Organization

Project staff and local populace

Project staff

Community meeting

Activities

Land conservation program --  
planning for reduction of  
erosion. Bulldozers re-  
structure land surface.

Interaction

Ex-patriate en-  
gineers draw up  
plan, and present  
it to chief and his  
committee.

Organization

Local committee

SUBPROJECT: Lesotho, Thaba Bosiu, Ntsane Distribution Center

YEAR INITATED: 1973

NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS: 29

%FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: 15%

FEMALE MIGRATION: 6% of females work part of the year in South Africa

FEMALE LANDHOLDING: TENURE: 20% own land

FARM SIZE: 5 acres

SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

Activities

Interaction

Organization

Ex-patriate team settled on locations for centers

Group discussion

World Bank/AID--sponsored team

Female chief of Ntsane set up committee elected a distribution center manager (female)

Group discussion

Local committee

Implementation

Activities

Interaction

Organization

Manager works out of locally-provided hut; keeps books, spends every afternoon there, hands out brochures on fertilizer to prospective buyers, and sells fertilizer

Manager sells to individual farmers

Distribution Centers

SUBPROJECT: Lesotho, Thaba Bosiu, Ratau Land Conservation Project

YEAR INITATED: 1973

% FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: 27%

FEMALE LANDHOLDING: TENURE: 20% of women own land

FARM SIZE: average 5 acres

SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

Activities

Interaction

Organization

Central ex-patriate staff undertook design through engineering aerial surveys, general scientific land planning approach.

Planning Sessions

Ex-patriate consultant staff

Design plans presented to local committee appointed by Ratau chief. Plans changed slightly, and approved (unclear if populace at large aware of projects implications).

Local committee sessions

Ex-patriate staff and local committee

Ratau area split into two tribal districts, one headed by former chief one by his wife. His area was selected for the conservation project-- she was upset, and could potentially undermine project effectiveness

USAID provided a female rural sociologist who advised against selection of Ratau as the site of the first soil conservation project because of tribal chief complexities. She was seconded by local district administrator. Their advise was ignored.

Staff meetings

Ex-patriate staff

Implementation

Activities

As of summer, 1974, bulldozing was just getting underway. Unclear as to method of informing community of project initiation. Plans for re-allocation of land for grazing, crop production, and terracing.

Interaction

Ex-patriate carrying out bulldozing

Organization

Only staff and local committee

PROJECT SUCCESS INDICATORS:

Women's Own Behavior Changes:

Women have always been active in agriculture. Project has not really impacted on their behavior.

Influence on Joint Male/Female Production:

No changes. They work together on the farm, as always.

Self-Sufficiency:

Negative self-sufficiency. Project is completely subsidized by outside donors. No prospect for independent existence.

PROJECT: Leribe Pilot Agricultural Scheme

COUNTRY/REGION: Lesotho, Leribe District

AGENCY: FAO/Ministry of Agriculture

OBJECTIVES: Area development program to:

- introduce and test new technological packages, particularly cash crops, to improve family income
- undertake conservation program using labor-intensive techniques
- create viable community organizations for development efforts
- develop Basotho staff capabilities, both technical and planning

ORGANIZATION: Project Unit with a large counterpart and expatriate staff, situated at the edge of the 7,000 acre area under development

### PROJECT DYNAMICS

#### Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Ministry of Agriculture designated area	Meetings with traditional leaders	Traditional structure
Gained approval for socio-economic survey and initiation of project	FAO sociologist and counterpart discussed with Chiefs and communities	FAO/MOA
Conduct of survey	FAO sociologist and counterpart spent six months interviewing and collecting data	FAO/MOA

## Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Formed Village Pilot Development Committees (male and female participation).	Meetings with people from three local villages	FAO/MOA
Developed and introduced technological packages for: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• maize</li> <li>• winter/summer wheat</li> <li>• beans</li> <li>• potatoes</li> <li>• sorghum</li> <li>• sunflower</li> </ul> (Little women involvement because males control production decisions.)	Worked with Village committees and local contractors to select  (New techniques most effectively introduced through tractor contractors.)	
Developed and introduced conservation program which included: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• planting of trees</li> <li>• building of contour banks</li> <li>• building of fish ponds</li> <li>• road improvement</li> </ul>	FAO conservationist and MOA counterpart worked out simple plans for each village. Village committees recruited work forces which were 80 to 90% female. The workers were paid with Food from AID.	Village committees FAO/MOA project unit
Training of women in home economics, health, nutrition, and sewing	Three times per week by home economist	FAO/MOA project unit

SUBPROJECT: | Lesotho, Leribe District, Mathata Village

YEAR INITIATED: April, 1970

NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS: 300 adult females in village  
130 female heads of households

% FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: 60%

FEMALE MIGRATION: Both men and women migrate to South Africa for work. The conservation program has reversed somewhat the migration of women there.

FEMALE LAND HOLDING: TENURE: Controlled primarily by village chief who may be woman; about 130 hold land. Security a concern.

FARM SIZE: Average holding is 4.5 acres

#### SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

##### Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Part of the Leribe-designated project area	None	FAO/MOA
Formation of Village Pilot Scheme Committee	FAO/MOA personnel worked through the acting village chief who is a woman	FAO/MOA

##### Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Introduction of technological packages (Little female involvement.)	Village committee meetings every week; Patios, or entire village meetings; Extension visits; Field days and demonstrations	FAO/MOA
Conservation Program, to include construction of 4 fish ponds, planting of trees, building of contour banks, road improvement	Plan and priorities set by village committee; Recruited work forces of 50 people (90% women)	Village Pilot Scheme Committee FAO/MOA

Activities

Home Economics program  
(health, nutrition,  
sewing)

Interaction

Three times a week,  
with participation  
on average of 50  
women

Organization

Home Economist  
from FAO/WOA

SUCCESS INDICATORS:

Women's own behavior change:

- increased family food supply (plus nutrition) through participation in conservation program
- increased nutrition in area because of the fish from the ponds
- general improvement in home practices
- enhancement of women's role in community decision-making

Influence on joint male/female production :

The technological packages developed in the project were too complicated and too expensive for the farmers to adopt. The major improvement in capabilities came through the work of the project with the contractors. Participation in the conservation program and the training by the home economist were the areas where the most benefit was achieved; this had little effect on production, though in some cases, the women preferred to work on conversation projects and let their land lie fallow.

Self-sufficiency:

Because of the inadequacies of the technological packages, there is little possibility of the effort becoming self-sufficient and no possibility of repaying the initial investment. Moreover, the project failed to monitor the impact of the innovations on the village structure so the committees were gradually weakened by local conflicts and participation has dropped significantly. The conservation program which was locally designed and implemented caused a favorable impact, though its continuation is dependent on more food aid.

PROJECT: Rural Extension of the Mother-Child Services of the Ministry of Health, in coordination with the Mother's Clubs

COUNTRY/REGION: Bolivia: La Paz, Cochabamba, and Santa Cruz

AGENCY: Ministry of Health

OBJECTIVES: Reduce maternal and infant mortality rates through direct services and education; increase female participation in nutritional education, distribute food stuffs and clothing

ORGANIZATION: National, regional and provincial with urban-level administration

PROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Recent revamping at national level: • Proliferation of urban and rural clinics • Social workers, nutritionists, and nurses plan clinic programs	group planning sessions	Urban-Regional level

Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Distribution of foods stuffs from clinic to rural women	visits to clinic	Clinic
Education in nutrition and health and family planning (called "family education" because of participants resistance to birth control)	group courses	Clinic
Program attempts to focus on multi-functional status of women as individuals, as mothers, and as community members		

PROJECT SUCCESS INDICATORS

Women's Own Behavior Changes:

- Heavy demand for services, particularly food and clothing
- Changed attitudes toward some family care subjects
- Little change in attitude toward female role

Influence on joint male/female production:

None

Self-sufficiency:

Project depends on funding and leadership from the Ministry of Health rural extensionists. Some local women's groups have attempted to organize consumer cooperatives.

PROJECT: National Community Development Service (NCDS)

COUNTRY/REGION: Bolivia

AGENCY: NCDS

OBJECTIVES: Assist with funds and technical assistance, the promotion of Self-Help projects in poor rural communities, specifically schools, health clinics, bridges, roads, wells, irrigation systems, etc., as well as provide agricultural and livestock extension services.

ORGANIZATION: National with regional offices

PROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Created by external assistance agencies in early 1960's when community development was seen as solution to rural area problems	Little between agency and local population	National staff with regional offices

Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Initial attempts to get communities to sponsor self-help activities with funds and technical assistance-little enthusiasm	Regional staff works directly with local leaders	Traditional leader in each village plus syndicate leaders (Government's political appointee)
Beginning of training program of village leaders, both at training centers and in community. Appointment of part-salaried para-professionals who live in village but help organize peasants to sponsor self-help projects	Trainees chosen by regional staff. Upon return they provide link between agency and local population	Village leaders organize committees to sponsor particular self-help projects
Large increase in requests for NCDS assistance, even though community must put up more than 50% of total project costs, including cash contributions	Para-professionals provide the leadership for the organization of communities	Village committees (all male) gather funds and arrange projects but women work on construction

PROJECT SUCCESS INDICATORS:

Women's Own Behavior Changes:

- Leadership roles as community organizers
- Work role on project construction
- Decision-roles on support to self-help projects

Influence of joint male/female production:

- Projects generally very beneficial to local communities-many with repeat requests for assistance
- Projects which have economic benefit (irrigation systems) allow increased role in cash economy for near-subsistence farmers

Self-Sufficiency:

- Project is still dependent upon outside funding (AID) since there is no pay-back for the materials and supplies furnished by NCDS
- Increasing move to income generating projects which will allow lending and pay-back self-sufficiency

## PROJECT NUMBER 14

PROJECT: Rural Women's Development Division of NCDS (Departamento de Bienestar de la Mujer Campesina)

COUNTRY/REGION: Bolivia: Altiplano, Cochabamba (Valle), Santa Cruz (eastern tropic), and Alto Beni Regions

AGENCY: National Community Development Service NCDS (Assisted by USAID)

OBJECTIVES: The participation and mobilization of peasant women in local development projects assisted by five training schools for women promoters and village leaders and auxiliaries in social work and home betterment

ORGANIZATION: National with regional offices

PROJECT DYNAMICS

## Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Female administrators participate in project design.	Projects designed as they are needed	NCDS, national level
Regional female workers participate in training courses	Formal classes	Bienestar (Pillapi training center and other training centers)

## Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Planning of projects closely linked to overall work of NCDS	Local cadre plan projects independently	Regional and community level

SUBPROJECT: Pillapi (Training school for rural female promoters)

YEAR INITIATED: 1966

NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS: 60 to 70 per class, 6 classes per year

SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

## Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Women selected as candidates for training - potential leaders and change agents	NCDS female promotions	With community women

## Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Two month courses in: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• first aid</li> <li>• health and medical care</li> <li>• pre-natal care</li> <li>• nutrition</li> <li>• cooking</li> <li>• home betterment</li> </ul>	Class	Pillapi staff and students

SUBPROJECT: Mejoramiento del Hogar (Home Betterment)

YEAR INITIATED: Program transferred from Ministry of Agriculture to the Rural Women's Development Division of NCDS in 1974. It has been going on for ten years.

OBJECTIVES: To establish skill cooperatives, permanent technical training centers, to improve nutritional, sanitation, and housing standards

SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

## Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Departmental teams of women specially trained as home improvement technicians; they are dispersed to countryside, by department to organize women in a community; women recruited by activity -- e.g. sewing, cooking, etc.	Group meetings	Project staff and local women

Implementation

Vocational and Home Economics  
training in:

Group meetings  
and home visits

Project staff  
and local women

- Home betterment
- Nutrition
- Handicrafts

PROJECT SUCCESS INDICATORS:

Women's Own Behavior Changes:

- Improvement in family care subjects
- Leadership opportunities to sponsor self-help projects
- more concern for provision at government services

Influence on joint male/female production :

- Secondary, through promotion efforts at self-help projects which improve production potential

Self-sufficiency :

- Project still depends upon funding from external agencies, since costs of training are only partially recovered

PROJECT: Vicos

COUNTRY/REGION: Peru, Department of Ancash,  
Province of Carhuaz, District of  
Marcara

AGENCY: Cornell University (Department of Anthropology)  
(1952-1957); Indigenous Institute of Peru (1952-1957);  
Peace Corps (1961-1965)

OBJECTIVES: To convert former publicly-owned highland manor  
and its indigenous labor force, into a productive,  
independent self-governing community via--

- transfer of land ownership from private  
hands to community residents
- creation of democratic institutions  
of Indian self-government
- introduction and diffusion of modern  
agricultural production practices
- improvement of community well-being through  
construction of education and health  
facilities, and social infrastructure

ORGANIZATION: Local, limited to one community

YEAR INITIATED: 1951

NUMBER OF FEMALES HEAD OF HOUSE: 10

NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS 300 (as of 1951)

% FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: 1 to 2%

FEMALE MIGRATION: Before 1951, some migration as domestic  
servants, renewed migration since 1970

FEMALE LANDHOLDING: TENURE: all land collectively used  
both men and widowed women  
have had some rights to  
individual parcels of land

FARM SIZE: Individual plots average one  
hectare (female heads-of-  
household without working  
age sons have rights to 1/4  
hectare)

PROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Project originally identified by Peruvian anthropologist	Via research and residence in community for two years	Thesis research
Cornell signed 5-year rental lease	Agreement between Cornell and owner of hacienda	Rental contract

Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Cornell rental stage:		
a. Cornell abolished free labor services.	Meeting with project staff and local populace	Cornell University and Vicos laborers
b. Cornell introduced modern potato technology	Advanced by bank credit	Project staff w/ Min. of Agriculture technicians
c. Initiated self-help construction of school, clinic, potable water system, other services	Outside donations	Community labor
d. Organized community council for hacienda administration	Community meeting and elections	Administrative council
Communal rental stage -- Vicos takes own rental of hacienda for 6 year period; commercial crop production	By decision of community residents in general assembly	Rental contract
Community residents purchase hacienda	Owner gave in to pressure from Cornell	Land purchase contract
Cash-productive activities continue until 1970 cash production stops due to potato quarantine; community reverts to subsistence production	Field work	Vicos residents

PROJECT SUCCESS INDICATORS:

Women's Own Behavior Changes:

1. Slight increase in number of girls attending workshop but ratios still heavily skewed in favor by boys, about 10 to 1.
2. Increase in use of community health clinic services; up to 300 consultations per month.
3. There are no women in community administrative positions, and no women as zonal delegates.
4. The only specific women-oriented activities were:
  - . Creation of community sewing workshop with 12 sewing machines donated by Indigenous Institute of Peru;
  - . One teacher, withdrawn in 1971, workshop no longer used;
  - . Health and child care classes taught by Peace Corps volunteer nurse, discontinued after 1965.

Self-sufficiency:

Community completely back to subsistence farming. But community still run by democratically-elected council .

**PROJECT:** ORDEZA /Rural Development Division

**COUNTRY/REGION:** Peru, Department of Ancash, Huaraz

**AGENCY:** AID

**OBJECTIVES:** To organize and finance self-help economic enterprises in rural communities damaged by 1970 earthquake; projects in housing, small industry, agriculture, and economic infrastructure.

**ORGANIZATION:** Regional development agency, with local (micro-regional) planning and implementation teams.

### PROJECT DYNAMICS

#### Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
After earthquake, a U.S. grant to conduct study of earthquake zone needs was arranged by Mrs. Nixon	Mrs. Nixon gave grant to Peruvian government	Study team surveyed the area
A loan agreement for \$3 million between AID and Peruvian executive agency (PROCOM - later integrated into CRYRZA and then reorganized as ORDEZA)	PROCOM and AID	Loan agreement

#### Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Promotion of projects	Via repeated dialogue with community residents	General meetings
Preparation of socio-economic and feasibility studies for community projects	Household surveys and interviewing of local residents	Micro-planning teams work in selected communities

Activities

Following approval of project loan request, ORDEZA assigns project construction team (skilled labor, professional supervisor, machinery)

Upon completion of project construction, ORDEZA assigns professional advisor to manage project during first year, also pays some community labor employed by project

Interaction

Community provides all unskilled project labor

Community chooses laborers; ORDEZA trains them to assume administrative responsibilities

Organization

Community work-days, work teams

General meetings of project membership and informal training

SUBPROJECT: Chavin

COUNTRY/REGION: Peru, Department of Ancash, District Callejon de Conchucos, Community of Chavin

AGENCY: ORDEZA

YEAR INITIATED: 1973

OBJECTIVES: Establishment of community-operated restaurant for tourists

NO. OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS: 10 (out of 20 artisans)

% FEMALE LITERACY: 60% (out of 10 participants, not of community)

FEMALE MIGRATION: None

FEMALE LAND-HOLDING: TENURE: both men and widowed women own land

FARM SIZE: average one hectare

SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Pre-coop formed by 10 female and 10 male artisans to produce and sell handi-crafts	Limited to local artisans	Organizing committee of 6 artisans, 3 female leaders
Request ORDEZA assistance; ORDEZA micro-team does feasibility study for artisan sales and determines it impractical	Local members of coop and ORDEZA micro-planning team (one team member a female sociologist)	Repeated meetings, ORDEZA staff and coop members
Project changed to that of a restaurant (idea came from women) where they could sell food and artisan crafts	Same	Same

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Feasibility study completed on restaurant project; loan approved	Same	Same

## Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
1. Community work days begin for restaurant construction; poor attendance by men	Project participants	Coop meeting
2. Women set example by organizing work crew themselves; this shames men into participating	Women work crew with female sociologist	Organized by female leaders and sociologist
3. As a result, 31 days of labor per member achieved, total of 1,200 man-days contributed, and project completed 4 months ahead of schedule	General consent of project participants	General meeting
4. ORDEZA gives course for cooks, waiters, and project administrator	Taught by ORDEZA-paid restaurant administrator and home economist	Training course (8 artisans participate, 4 of them women)
5. ORDEZA-paid administrator decides only high school educated men/women can work in restaurant	Artisan coops members excluded from restaurant jobs	Arbitrary decision
6. Restaurant administered as an ORDEZA project with primarily non-coop member employees	Non-members hold 5 of 6 jobs	Arbitrary decision
7. No artisan sales permitted in restaurant; minimal purchase of food products from members	Membership negligible	Arbitrary decision

PROJECT SUCCESS INDICATORS:

Women's Own Behavior Changes:

Total decline in participation of members in general, and women in particular. Women effectively excluded.

Self-Sufficiency:

ORDEZA-run and controlled project. Project is not in hands of people. Project is showing a profit (\$900 over 6-month period), but it has received a subsidy in wages and salaries paid by ORDEZA to non-coop members in amount of \$3,200.

PROJECT: Mixed Vegetable Scheme -- Onions

COUNTRY/REGION: Western Division, The Gambia

AGENCY: Freedom from Hunger/Ministry of Agriculture (National Research Center and Western Division offices) and the Gambia Cooperative Union

OBJECTIVES: Crop-specific program designed to:

- . Introduce and expand onion production
- . Provide income-generating role for women
- . Create opportunities for women to form cooperatives and become part of the Gambia Cooperative Union

ORGANIZATION: Ministry of Agriculture, Western Division, provided technical assistance; the Gambia Cooperative Union provided marketing and organizational assistance

PROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
The Gambia was importing onions; British expatriate and Ministry of Agriculture decided to introduce onions	None	Ministry of Agriculture
The Gambia Cooperative Union provided initial funding and suggested that the women's role as innovators be institutionalized	Frequent requests for involvement by women	Gambia Cooperative Union
Tests and Trials at the National Research Center in 1970	None	National Research Center
Pilot project launched in 1971	One village: 30 women -- frequent supervision by National Research Center	National Research Center

**Implementation**

Activities

Introduction of the scheme in 9 villages in 1972, and 32 villages in 1973, with the participation of 990 women.

Women trained and supervised in:

- . land preparation
- . planting and weeding
- . thinning
- . harvesting and bundling

Inputs provided

Marketing provided (costs of inputs subtracted)

Interaction

Village chief called meeting of women to set up organization and normally provided community land for scheme. After 1972, initiative came from women.

Crop specific, young demonstrators worked with women 3 days per week. Agriculture officer visited once per week.

Organization

Traditional community organization

Ministry of Agriculture/  
Western Division

Ministry of Agriculture

Gambia Cooperative Union

SUBPROJECT: The Gambia, Western Division, Kombo Central District, Kembujie Village

YEAR INITIATED: 1973

NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS: 30

% FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: 5%

FEMALE MIGRATION: None

FEMALE LANDHOLDING: Land Controlled by Village Chief

FARM SIZE: Average 4 acres  
(1/2 acre per participant  
provided from Village Chief's  
own land.)

SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Women approached village chief (the most progressive farmer in area) who in turn asked Ministry for onion program.	Primarily women and village chief	Traditional village organization
Program explained to women; participants selected and pre-cooperative formed.	Village Chief; 1 visit by Agricultural Officer	Ministry of Agriculture

Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Land plowed	Ministry persuaded by Village Chief	Western Division Ministry of Agriculture
Women trained in: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Land preparation</li> <li>• planting and weeding</li> <li>• fertilizer use</li> <li>• thinning</li> <li>• harvesting and bundling</li> </ul>	Demonstrator spent 1 month in village and then made follow-up visits 3-4 times per week (Village Chief also provided assistance.)	Ministry of Agriculture
Marketing Assistance	Pick up and payment	Gambia Cooperative Union

SUBPROJECT: The Gambia, Western Division, Kombo North District,  
Busumbala Village

YEAR INITIATED: 1973

NUMBER OF FEMALE PARTICIPANTS: 30

% FEMALE FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: 5%

FEMALE MIGRATION: None

FEMALE LANDHOLDING: TENURE: Land controlled by Village Chief;  
in rare cases women given owner-  
ship

FARM SIZE: Average 6 acres  
(1/2 acre of land per participant  
owned by village; women keep  
return from produce)

### SUBPROJECT DYNAMICS

#### Identification and Design

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Women heard about onion scheme and asked village chief to go to Ministry on their behalf	Women/Village Chief	Western Division Ministry of Agriculture
Program explained and participants selected (more wished to participate than there were inputs); women's pre-cooperative formed	3 man-days by Agricultural Assistant	Ministry of Agriculture

#### Implementation

<u>Activities</u>	<u>Interaction</u>	<u>Organization</u>
Women trained in <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• land preparation</li> <li>• planting and weeding</li> <li>• fertilizer use</li> <li>• thinning</li> <li>• harvesting and bundling</li> </ul>	During the 2-1/2 month growing period, demonstrator worked 1 man-month with women	Ministry of Agriculture
Advised on other vegetable crops Assisted in marketing	Extension visits, pick up and payment	Gambia Cooperative Union

**SUCCESS INDICATORS:**

**Women's own behavior change:**

- . adoption of innovations contained in the technical package
- . application of improved techniques to the growing of other vegetables (This is primarily true in Busumbala where vegetables have been grown traditionally )
- . institutionalization of women's traditional role as innovators by providing organizational base
- . creation of direct income-generating role for women

**Influence on joint male/female production:**

The project increased family income by 28D (\$25). Moreover, it began to show the profitability of vegetable growing. The improved techniques were applied to other vegetables, though as yet they have not had any effect on the production of other crops. In Busumbala the spread effect was significant, for 60% of the women not in the program started adopting the new techniques.

**Self-sufficiency:**

The project has expanded rapidly because there is little risk, a technical package well-tested by women, and a market and marketing assistance provided by the Gambia Cooperative Union. Further local organizations are being established to carry on the activity. The costs of the inputs are deducted from the market price to the women, and are put in a revolving fund to start new schemes. After the first year, it has been found that the women are willing to purchase the inputs in cash.

## APPENDIX B

The results of 17 projects are given, along with some indication of their impact on agricultural production, miscellaneous income and/or home economics as a consequence of the involvement of women. Suggestive indications of benefits will be grouped by:

### Women's Benefits

Project Benefits, if the project includes both women and men as the target population.

Development Process Benefits, which attempts to capture the impact of the women's newly-acquired knowledge on the other producers in the local area. This could be a demonstration effect by which other women adopt new agricultural techniques, or the impact of women's newly-acquired technology on their husbands' agricultural production.

Self-Sufficiency Benefits, which attempts to estimate whether the project itself can become self-sustaining, or whether it will necessarily continue to be dependent on outside resources.

Identification No. 1 Country: Ghana

Name: Home Extension Program

Project Dynamics: "B"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-New vegetable technology using fertilizer and insecticides</li> <li>-Improved fruit tree technology</li> <li>-Increased food production</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Sales of garden crops</li> <li>-Possible sales of small animals (rabbits, chickens)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Better food preparation, nutrition, water purification</li> </ul>
Project Benefits			
Development Process Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Women have the only extension services, thus new techniques may spread to husbands' agricultural production</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Income up</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Health level up</li> </ul>
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Organization's structure still depends on outside extensionists</li> <li>-Project has potential to pay its own way</li> </ul>		

Identification No. 2 Country: Ghana

Name: Christian Mothers Association

Project Dynamics: "B"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Backyard gardening</li> <li>-Poultry raising</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Sales of clothes, vegetables, handi-crafts, etc.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Improved childcare, nutrition</li> </ul>
Project Benefits			
Development Process Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Regular group meetings which husbands occasionally attend to see farm improvement demonstrations</li> <li>-Demonstration effect extends to women neighbors who do not belong</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Increased income</li> </ul>	
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Dependent upon assistance from urban women</li> </ul>		

Identification No. 3 Country: Ghana

Name: Denu Shallots

Project Dynamics: "C"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Payments for women's wage labor on agricultural tasks</li> <li>-Experimental with new land improvement technology</li> <li>-Adopt new crops</li> <li>-Commercialization of shallots</li> </ul>		
Project Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Women assume a role in the land preparation, planting, weeding, fertilizing, bundling and marketing</li> </ul>		
Development Process Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Both men and women experience agricultural innovation</li> </ul>		
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-This project was self-sufficient until a loan was extended by the Agricultural Bank -- now in trouble</li> </ul>		

Identification No. 4 Country: Nigeria

Name: Small Holder Tobacco Production

Project Dynamics: "C"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-New tobacco technology</li> <li>-New wage labor skill in grading tobacco for women</li> <li>-Grow tobacco (plant, weed)</li> <li>-Harvest tobacco</li> <li>-Credit use</li> <li>-Increase relative share of family income</li> </ul>		
Project Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Family income up 50% and as a result of the project.</li> </ul>		
Development Process Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Use of new technology in tobacco has extended into other crops - Output is increasing</li> </ul>		
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Project uses credit and is able to repay. Potentially commercially viable</li> </ul>		

Identification No. 5      Country: Nigeria

Name: Tiv Bams

Project Dynamics: "C"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Leadership position in credit association</li> <li>-Potential to draw credit for agricultural production (also other use)</li> <li>-Allow women, other than Heads-of-Household, to receive and control a portion of family income</li> </ul>		
Project Benefits			
Development Process Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-An outgrowth is attempt to introduce new agricultural techniques</li> </ul>		
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Bams are self-sufficient</li> </ul>		

Identification No. 6 Country: Nigeria

Name: Uboma Development Project

Project Dynamics: "C"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Improved techniques for food crop production</li> <li>-Poultry raising</li> <li>-Participation in local Cooperative (credit/savings)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Dry season vegetables and poultry sales</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Training in:                             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• nutrition</li> <li>• health</li> <li>• sewing</li> <li>• vegetable growing</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
Project Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Increased family income</li> <li>-Increased Agricultural output</li> </ul>		
Development Process Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Innovations improve prospects for continued growth in income, output and employment</li> </ul>		
Self-Sufficiency Benefits			

Identification No. 7 Country: Kenya

Name: Ahero Pilot Project (Rice Scheme)

Project Dynamics: "C"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Increased knowledge of rice growing techniques</li> <li>-Off farm wage labor in other rice fields</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Loss of income from marketing since rice sold to government marketing board</li> </ul>	
Project Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Rice requires family labor (no specific role for women seems to have evolved except rice transplanting, threshing and winnowing)</li> </ul>		
Development Process Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Uncertain that this project will be successful-</li> <li>-Data on benefits is not available</li> </ul>		
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Same as above</li> </ul>		

Identification No. 8 Country: Kenya

Name: Lirhembe Multi-Service Cooperative

Project Dynamics: "C"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Leadership positions in cooperative</li> <li>-New technology in maize, vegetables, fruit production</li> <li>-Use of credit for grade cattle</li> <li>-Increased marketing responsibilities</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Improved Health services:                             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>· nutrition</li> <li>· sewing instruction</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
Project Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Extensionists focused on women to get changes in both male and female heads-of-household</li> <li>-Males often missing so necessary for females to assume decision-making roles</li> </ul>		
Development Process Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Strong innovative motivation from successful investments and use of credit</li> </ul>		
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Project has the potential to become self-sufficient</li> </ul>		

Identification No. 9 Country: Kenya

Name: Masai Rural Training Center

Project Dynamics: "C"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Handicraft sales</li> <li>-Leadership in handicraft cooperative</li> <li>-Increase in family income</li> </ul>	-Health Clinic
Project Benefits	-Cattle project aided by new use for cattle by-products	-Increased income	
Development Process Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Women interested in cattle raising to obtain hides for leather handicrafts-</li> <li>-Uncertain impact on livestock techniques</li> </ul>		
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	-The project is essentially self-sustaining		

Identification No. 10 Country: Lesotho

Name: Thaba Bosiu Rural Development Project

Project Dynamics: "C"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits	-Some leadership positions in distribution centers		
Project Benefits	- (Perhaps) land conservation with terracing to prevent erosion -Extension and input services to farmers, unknown benefits		
Development Process Benefits	-Project apparently dominated by outsiders- -Few benefits obvious (after 1 year of operation)		
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	-A completely subsidized project with no prospects for independent existence at this time		

Identification No. 11 Country: Lesotho

Name: Leribe Pilot Agricultural Scheme

Project Dynamics: "C"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits	- (Males control Production Decisions)	-Wage Labor from conservation program (payments in food)	-Health, nutrition, sewing
Project Benefits	-Increase food supply from conservation program -Project not successful in adaptation of modern agricultural technology		-Improved family care by women
Development Process Benefits	-Little transfer of knowledge in agriculture and small impact on the development process		
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	-No self-sufficiency or agricultural technology transfer -Conservation program dependent upon food (AID) program		

Identification No. 12 Country: Bolivia

Name: Ministry of Health, Rural Extension

Project Dynamics: "A"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Distribution of food through health clinics</li> <li>-Foundation established for consumer cooperatives</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Education in health clinics-</li> <li>-Nutrition</li> <li>-Family planning</li> </ul>
Project Benefits			
Development Process Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Little, since no impact on the production process, unmeasured but probably positive impact on population growth rate (increase in growth rate)</li> </ul>		
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-None, dependent upon continued government support</li> </ul>		

Identification No. 13 Country: Bolivia

Name: National Community Development Service

Project Dynamics: "C"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-No separable women's components in community development project</li> <li>-Women leadership roles in community affairs</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Separate women's component (see#14)</li> <li>-Education is most assisted area by community development projects.</li> </ul>
Project Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Women provide equal women power (labor) for development projects.</li> <li>-Women may provide impetus for projects</li> </ul>		
Development Process Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Strong change promoter in rural Bolivia</li> </ul>		
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-At present, community furnishes more than 50% of project costs. Remainder is a subsidy from the Government</li> </ul>		

Identification No. 14 Country: Bolivia

Name: Rural Women's Development Department (NCDS-#13)

Project Dynamics: "B"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Training centers for women community leaders involves agricultural production techniques</li> <li>-Women leaders head women's community associations</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Training in handicrafts</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Education in                             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sewing</li> <li>• cooking</li> <li>• nutrition</li> <li>• health</li> </ul> </li> <li>-One national and 5 regional training centers for women community leaders</li> </ul>
Project Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Women consistently reported to be most effective promoters of change and modernization, coalescing community support around development projects</li> </ul>		
Development Process Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Project tied into NCDS (#13) which is a very successful community development undertaking promoting observable change in rural Bolivia</li> </ul>		
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Project is not self-sufficient at present time (was not designed to be)</li> </ul>		

Identification No. 15 Country: Peru

Name: Vicos

Project Dynamics: "C"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits	-New potato technology introduced	-Community sewing workshop	-Health clinic -Child care -Potable water -School
Project Benefits	-Cyclical project which begin at subsistence, moves to good cash income and falls back to subsistence.		
Development Process Benefits	-Increased (slightly) education of women -Democratically elected local council continues to administer the community		
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	-Community is self-sufficient except for health services which are provided by the Government		

Identification No. 16 Country: Peru

Name: ORDEZA/Rural Development Division/Subproject CHAVIN

Project Dynamics: "C"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Project started as a cooperative with 10 men and 10 women artisans-handicrafts</li> <li>-Turned into restaurant project by ORDEZA then coop members excluded by project administrator (education level too low)</li> </ul>	
Project Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Women in community provided labor to support project after men refused to contribute</li> <li>-Income may be generated for the local community, but not for initial artisan cooperative</li> </ul>		
Development Process Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Little, if any. Project appears to be completely divorced from the local community</li> </ul>		
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Project subsidized by the ORDEZA development agency</li> </ul>		

Identification No. 17 Country: The Gambia

Name: Mixed Vegetable Scheme (Onions)

Project Dynamics: "D"

	Agricultural Production	Miscellaneous Income	Home Economics
Women's Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Women obtain land-use from village chief, grow onions, receive income</li> <li>-Extension provided services in land preparation, planting and weeding, thinning, harvesting &amp; bundling</li> </ul>		
Project Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Increased income from women's farm production</li> <li>-Only women included</li> </ul>		
Development Process Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-New techniques used in other vegetable crops</li> <li>-Spread effect to other women not in the project now using new techniques</li> </ul>		
Self-Sufficiency Benefits	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Project is self-sufficient</li> </ul>		

## APPENDIX C

### ATTITUDES AND ROLES OF GOVERNMENTS, INTERNATIONAL DONORS AND WOMEN'S VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS

This section presents findings on the roles of government, international donors and women's voluntary organizations vis-a-vis the integration of rural women into economic development in our seven countries. Much of this data came from field research and DAI field staff professionals. From their findings, certain generalizations can be made regarding individual country responsiveness to the need for including rural women in more aspects of development planning. Because in virtually every one of the seven countries studied, women's contribution to agricultural sector development is only now becoming recognized, current official attitudes in most instances still reflect traditional biases against female participation. Such biases are evident in past project planning, which has tended to focus on traditional areas of women's involvement, such as health, home economics, family planning, etc. However, government planners are beginning to emphasize the inclusion of an agricultural component in home economics projects -- e.g., backyard gardening techniques, use of fertilizer and insecticides, etc. (see project-specific write-ups). Such a change in emphasis could be crucial to increasing family income in countries where subsistence farming is predominantly a female occupation.

GHANA

This past September, an international committee composed of 54 representatives from 18 countries, 18 local businesses, social and voluntary organizations and 18 international bodies, convened in Accra to consider the problems of Ghanaian working women, both urban and rural. DAI's field researcher, Sylvia Bolanos, set the wheels in motion for this forum, which was sponsored by Ghana's National Vocational Training Institute.

A strong desire for a Ministry of Women's Affairs was articulated at the meeting, and a Working Committee on the Upgrading and Maximizing of the Efficiency of Ghanaian Working Women has already begun looking into the feasibility of setting up such a ministry. In January, 1975, the 54 delegates to the international committee will meet again to review findings of the Working Committee.

Government sponsorship of agricultural projects has centered ground Operation Feed Yourself, a program to improve agricultural production through mechanization of farm methods. There appears to be very little involvement of women in the program. The Ministry of Agriculture's Home Extension program is fairly widespread throughout the country and shows signs of tapping the potential economic contribution of rural women. Similar home extension programs sponsored by the Christian Mothers' Association

are also reaching agricultural sector females.<sup>1</sup> Both programs include training in small-plot gardening.

---

1. See project-specific write-ups in Appendix A.

KENYA

Official encouragement of active roles for women in rural development appears to be channelled through the Ministry of Cooperatives and Social Services, according to field data.<sup>1</sup> The Ministry aids women's groups which are already engaged in self-help projects which they themselves have initiated. Two general sorts of women's groups are subsidized: (1) family welfare groups which try to improve housing conditions by building iron roofs instead of the traditional thatched variety, and by developing water supply systems; (2) commercial groups which try to create savings by investing in useful capital goods, such as a bus or grinding machine. Both sorts of organizations are found throughout the country.

The government offers selected women in each district the opportunity for training in leadership skills. Courses are usually held at Farmers' Training Centers and often include an agricultural component.

Other areas where the government is sponsoring programs aimed at women include family planning and vocational training.

---

<sup>1</sup> Field data: Achola Pala.

LESOTHO

As project-specific data indicates, the Lesotho government has sanctioned few development projects with a specific women's component;<sup>1</sup> female participation in most government-sponsored projects seems to be almost haphazard, the result of de facto involvement of women in agricultural sector activities.

However, the government's attitude is apparently changing, as evidenced by the recent appointment of an interministerial committee to prepare a development project on the welfare of women.<sup>2</sup> The committee has already begun operating, and has noted the lack of a professionally-run institutional framework to initiate or coordinate women's activities in rural areas.

Counterbalancing the committee's initiatives is the failure of the Lesotho government to respond affirmatively to a proposal put forth by the U.S. resident representative that the United Nations launch a small pilot project to increase the capabilities of women to contribute to national development. Resident representatives in Botswana and Swaziland made similar recommendations, and thus far Swaziland is the only country of the three to ask for a consultant mission on the proposal. If initiated, the project would be the first U.N.-sponsored effort specifically focusing on women in development.

---

<sup>1</sup> For a description of the Ministry of Agriculture/FAO-sponsored Leribe project, which is a pilot agricultural scheme with a women's home economics component, see project-specific write-ups in Appendix A.

<sup>2</sup> The committee was formed at the instigation of United Nations official Jane Weidlund, Chief, Human Resources Projects, in the Africa office of the Commissioner for Technical Cooperation.

NIGERIA

It appears that most of Nigeria's state governments are sponsoring women's leadership training programs, although the extent to which rural females participate in such programs is not clear.<sup>1</sup>

There is a multistate school of agriculture located in the North-Central state, and it is noteworthy that since the school's inception in 1965, all female students (not more than 15 percent of total enrollment), have been trained as home extension agents, not as agriculturalists like their male counterparts.

Farm training centers appear to be dispersed throughout several states, but the number of female participants seems negligible.

It is perhaps revealing that Nigeria's second development plan makes no specific reference to the question of improving the status of women, rural or urban.<sup>2</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup> For a more detailed description of state programs, see ECA Nigeria Country Report, Addis Ababa, November, 1973.

<sup>2</sup> Other government-sponsored programs involving rural women may be ongoing in Nigeria; our field researcher, Sole Adesina, did not specify.

BOLIVIA

A women's component in economic planning has been a reality in Bolivia for several years, although the extent of the government's commitment to increasing rural women's contribution to agricultural sector development is difficult to assess. It appears that, regarding desired behavior changes, projects involving rural women fall prey to three general ills:

- (1) Confusion reigns at the government level regarding behavioral goals. Field data indicates that this confusion stems from a poorly-defined and traditionally-oriented concept of urban female education -- clearly a concept not based on the reality of rural women and the socioeconomic structures of both the subsistence and market economies, of which they are an integral part.
- (2) Planners assume that rural women are mainly receptive to attitudinal change in the area of household activities, and therefore, projects tend to stress the teaching of traditional skills such as sewing, cooking, flower arranging, etc. Like African women, Bolivian women dedicate the majority of their time to outside productive labor; thus courses offered through home extension programs are often incompatible with their productive

roles. An additional consequence of this kind of emphasis is the heightened rate of female migration to the cities, where rural females see a better chance to apply their newly-acquired marketable skills and often a project's benefit is completely lost to the rural sector.

- (3) Often the government's chief concern in promoting a rural development project with a women's component is the project's public relations value -- i.e., what matters is the image presented to the outside world, not a change in attitude at the project level.<sup>1</sup>

An intensive examination of these problems is needed to ascertain more clearly the government's attitude towards increased participation in agriculture by rural women.

---

<sup>1</sup> This section is based primarily on field data from Bambi Eddy.

PARAGUAY

Paraguay's commitment to integrating women into the development process seems even less concrete than Bolivia's -- in financial terms if not otherwise. SEAG, the national extension service, has a women's program, which was initiated several years ago at the behest of American participants. This program, along with Credito Agricola, (a Ministry of Agriculture-sponsored project) aims to improve rural living standards by providing campo women with skills training in nutrition, food preparation, home improvement, vegetable gardening, sewing, and embroidery. Such projects, according to field data, have struggled along with minimal assistance from the Paraguayan government, which assigns very low priority to women's programs, in contrast with the much higher proportion of funding assistance donated to projects involving the rural male population.<sup>1</sup> For those projects with a women's component, female professionals apparently have a very minor role in identification and design phases; in the SEAG women's project, for example, female nutrition experts were instructed to prepare the program after the male-dominated administration had settled on projects to be included.

---

<sup>1</sup> Our field researcher comments that should more resources become available, women would benefit very little. One observer interviewed noted that "any money explicitly earmarked for women would be 95 percent pocketed by government officials before a woman ever saw a guarani." Another respondent suggested that even if greater numbers of women were to be trained, they would still lack the necessary power and means to reach other women.

PERU

The past six years have seen an increase in the government's interest in developing the economic potential of rural women, but the increase is only relative. As in other Latin American countries, government planners tend to design projects stressing the nonagricultural sector activities of rural females - nutrition, sanitation, handicraft production, etc. Peruvian Indian women have major farming responsibilities, and like their Bolivian counterparts, fail to be included in agricultural training programs, which are primarily available to men.

Nevertheless, the government has articulated a commitment to women's integration into national development; the crux of its attitude can be found in the 1968 national development plan which contains such provisions as: real equality with men in terms of rights and obligations, integration and consciousness-raising of women, creation of a mentality amenable to the participation of women in society, elimination of all discriminatory treatment which limits the opportunities or affects the rights and dignities of women, promotion of coeducation, and the guarantee that joint possessions are not solely disposed of by decisions of the husband.

INTERNATIONAL DONORS

The following section will discuss international donor involvement in the seven countries under study, in rural sector projects either directed at women or with a sizeable women's component. We have concentrated generally on agricultural programs, since family planning, child care, nutrition and education programs are for the most part well documented elsewhere. It should be noted that often project descriptions found in donor agency compendiums do not include the extent of female participation, thus making an assessment extremely difficult.

*USAID*

In Ghana, AID's activities directly affecting rural women appear to be limited to family planning programs; the same holds true for Nigeria, although AID is apparently sponsoring teacher training schools, which may have a women's component.

In Kenya, AID is active in the Vihiga area of western Kenya, where a complex rural development project has several aspects devoted to women, namely handicraft production, child care and family planning, home improvement, and backyard gardening. AID is also funding a population project to develop improved statistics and demographic data.

AID's primary activity in the rural sector of Lesotho is the Thaba Bosiu project, supported jointly with the World Bank. The project as a whole is necessarily directed at women in part, because so many females are heads-of-household, due to male migration to South Africa. The AID-funded portion of the project is a land conservation program, designed to reduce soil erosion.<sup>1</sup>

AID's activity in Peru is limited to the 1970 earthquake zone, and the agency is sponsoring the Ordeza project to organize and finance self-help economic enterprises in rural communities which sustained earthquake damage. The 1973 Chavin subproject of Ordeza started out with a women's component, but over the past several months, women have been effectively excluded from participation in the community-run restaurant.<sup>2</sup>

In Paraguay, AID in 1973 sponsored the foreign training of five female extension agents, under the auspices of SEAG (the National Extension Service). The remainder of AID's women-oriented activities in Paraguay seem limited to population and nonformal education programs. One rural nonformal education project presently under consideration is slated to include a significant female component, reflecting the government's concern over the low proportion of rural women now economically active.<sup>3</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup> For a complete description of Thaba Bosiu, see appended project-specific write-up in Appendix A.

<sup>2</sup> For a detailed project description, see appended project-specific write-up in Appendix A.

<sup>3</sup> Field data: Christina H. Lchoux

In Bolivia, AID is supporting the National Community Development Service (NCDS) which incorporates the Rural Women's Development Division.<sup>1</sup> NCDS' main projects affecting rural women are Pillapi, one of five training schools for rural promoters, and the Home Betterment extension service, whose agents organize rural women in communities for training in home improvement, nutrition and handicraft production.

---

<sup>1</sup> In October of this year, AID solicited a research proposal from CODEX, a Bolivian research organization, for an extensive study of the roles of women in the Bolivian rural sector. Sambi Eddy, who contributed to this report, is a professional staff member of CODEX, in the Female Promotion Division.

*United Nations*

The United Nations has declared 1975 International Women's Year (IWY), and will hold a major international conference on the promotion of equality between men and women in Bogota, Colombia next June. According to UN promotion papers for IWY, the Secretary-General, in drawing up the agenda, will be charged with focusing attention on:

- o Evaluation of current trends and changes in the roles of women and men in political, social, economic, family and cultural life, including sharing of responsibilities and decision-making; and
- o Examination of the major obstacles which hinder the contribution of women and men as full partners in total development effort and in sharing its benefits in both rural and urban areas.

The United Nations, clearly, is not oblivious to the problems of women in developing societies. Its Commission on the Status of Women has been in operation since 1946, and has the responsibility of directing attention to issues affecting women and in drafting international instruments covering many of these issues.

But determining the extent of the United Nations' actual participation in projects involving women -- and in particular rural women -- is a more difficult task. Without on-the-spot

visits to projects, one cannot adequately assess the women's component or involvement. Nor is it possible to distinguish the extent of women's participation from project descriptions in UN-agency compendiums.<sup>1</sup> For a relatively complete list of UN-sponsored projects in the seven countries under study, see the United Nations Development Programme's Compendium of Approved Projects, Number 5.<sup>2</sup>

*UNESCO, UNICEF, FAO, ILO*

UNESCO's primary focus appears to be the training of secondary school teachers. It has assisted programs in teacher training in Nigeria, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho and Bolivia.

UNICEF's programs impacting on women include women's education and day-care centers; among our countries, UNICEF is sponsoring work in Ghana, Nigeria, and Kenya.

The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) is assisting two projects in our countries: in Lesotho it is aiding the Leribe pilot agricultural scheme, and in Kenya the Ahero pilot rice project.

---

<sup>1</sup> Excepted from this generalization are projects in the fields of family planning, health and child care, education, and home improvement.

<sup>2</sup> Document No. UNDP/MIS Series A/No. 5, Sept. 1974.

The International Labor Organization's prime focus in the seven countries under study appears to be vocational training, although how much such training is available to rural women is difficult to determine. In Kenya, the ILO in cooperation with UNICEF has sponsored a rural prevocational training program (again the extent of women's participation is unclear). In Paraguay assistance for training of settlers along the northern Paraguay River is being supplied by the ILO.

In its brochure, "Women Workers in a Changing World," the ILO outlines its areas of special interest to women: study and research to better understand women's needs and problems, the setting of standards aimed at providing the framework for national policies to protect and promote women workers, and educational and promotional activities directed at fostering a better understanding of the problem of women workers.<sup>1</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup> "Women Workers in a Changing World," International Labour Office, Geneva, 1973, p. 73.

*Ford Foundation*

The Ford Foundation has been actively researching the question of women's roles in developing countries for about a year, and has published some of the most illuminating data to date. However, the foundation's assistance efforts directed at rural women in our seven countries have been sparse; it is not sponsoring any projects specifically involving women in Latin America. Family planning project funds have dried up in Kenya, and West African projects are only now in the process of being defined.<sup>1</sup>

*World Bank*

Although the World Bank has no official position regarding the design and implementation of projects directly affecting women, the organization recently put together a working committee to establish project guidelines which take account of women's roles in developing societies. More specifically, the committee will try to set up criteria for Bank lending decisions which would guard against the negative effects on women of certain kinds of development projects (e.g., if women carry out the bulk of a country's agricultural work, the Bank, when funding

---

<sup>1</sup> Information gleaned from interviews with Elinor Barber, Program Officer, International Division, Ford Foundation, and Adrienne Germain, Program Officer, Population Division, Ford Foundation.

projects for new farming implements, would take care that newly designed tools or machines would not be too heavy for women's use).<sup>1</sup>

Montague Yudelman, Director of the Bank's Agricultural and Rural Development Division, recently addressed Harvard University's Center for International Affairs, on the topic, "The World Bank, Rural Development, and the Role of Women." He stressed the importance of research on the role of women in traditionally agricultural societies, noting that to ensure the effectiveness of such research, more needs to be learned about the division of labor between men and women.<sup>2</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup> Information gleaned from telephone interviews with World Bank personnel.

<sup>2</sup> See the Harvard Gazette, Oct. 11, 1974, p. 3.

WOMEN'S VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS<sup>1</sup>

It has been suggested that indigenous organizations composed of educated urban women may, with sufficient (financial and technical) support, perform a vital role in enhancing the contribution of rural sector women to economic development in the third world. As the United Nation's International Women's Year (1975) approaches, educated women in countries throughout the third world are becoming increasingly active in various voluntary organizations, such as the National Councils of Women which exist in virtually every country.

It would be necessary to research the number and nature of voluntary women's organizations on a country-by-country basis in order to determine the precise potential they represent. However, it is possible to make some general statements about the kinds of development potential embedded in groups composed of educated, usually urban women of third world countries. We will focus here only on the role of voluntary organizations

---

<sup>1</sup> In the time limits for submission of this report, DAI did not conduct more than a cursory review of this subject. However, Dorothy Glancy, an expert consultant to DAI for this project, has visited and talked with women in 40 developing countries about their potential and prospects for achieving greater equality and participation. Ms. Glancy was the recipient of Wellesley College's Stevens Traveling Fellowship for 1970-71, and her thoughts on her travels were presented in a summary report entitled, "An Around the World View of Women's Roles in Public Affairs." Presently, she is on the faculty of Harvard Law School, as a Fellow in Law and the Humanities. Here, she offers some recommendations for involving urban women in actions designed to impact on the rural sector; her observations are suggestive of what could be obtained from more expanded, detailed research on this topic.

of educated women which are, or can be encouraged to become, active in the process of improving the status and economic productivity of their country's rural women.

It is a fact that educated women represent a largely untapped resource, in much of the third world. This resource could be organized and channeled toward improving the status and economic productivity of women in the rural sector. Groups in certain countries such as Iran's Literary Corps organized by the National Council of Women, and India's population planning group in Maharashtra demonstrate's that women's voluntary organizations can make substantive contributions in these fields.

A growing number of educated third world women are being trained in such fields as economics, sociology, agronomy; this repository of trained development womanpower must be utilized in fields other than the conventional ones of health, literacy, and home economics. Moreover, the incorporation of female voluntary group members in rural sector field projects planning would provide valuable role models for the rural women; they could view first-hand, women functioning in roles other than those of wife and mother. The very presence of educated women in management, organizational and perhaps political positions may suggest to rural sector women that they too may perform such roles.

A desirable by-product of encouraging voluntary organizations is an increase in the participation of the educated women in the social, economic and political life of their countries. The National Councils of Women tend to be government-sponsored and are often made up of the female relatives of government officials. Their potential for subtle but substantive influence on government policies regarding the status of women is, therefore, very great.

It is also a fact that as more women become better educated and begin to participate in voluntary organizations, they clamor for improvements in the status of urban and rural women alike, in such areas as land ownership, inheritance and family law. Research into the roles and status of rural women by voluntary organizations should be encouraged.

Realistically, there are a number of difficulties which argue against the above. It is not at all clear that educated urban women would be willing to go out into the rural sector. Voluntary programs in Egypt and Iran encountered this problem.

The case of Iran is particularly instructive because in the face of the unwillingness of educated urban women (and men) to travel to unmodernized rural areas, the government imposed a plan of compulsory service in rural development programs. Proposals for a period of compulsory government service are political issues throughout much of the third world, particularly

in Latin America (e.g., Brazil, Colombia). In those countries requiring such compulsory service, it may be possible to support (as did the government of Iran) voluntary women's organizations as one channel for such service.

Another possible drawback of using educated urban women in projects in the field is emphasized in the Paraguay field report: educated urban women, because of their dress, lifestyle, and sometimes even language, are simply not effective role models for rural females.

## APPENDIX D

### *Information Requirements for the Design of Rural Development Projects with a Women's Component: An Illustrative Case*

This section describes the workings of the Shell Oil-sponsored, Uboma Development Project, in East Central State, Nigeria, and the types of information necessary for the design of rural development projects with a women's component.<sup>1</sup>

The first step in the Uboma Project was to win the consent of the local population for a major socio-economic study. Important local leaders (women and men) were identified and invited to participate in a series of two local meetings to discuss the proposed survey. After their agreement was secured, Shell Oil's agronomist (in cooperation with the University of Ibadan) carried out the survey which lasted about nine months. The study had five major parts:

1. The Physical Environment of Uboma, which included its geology, physiography, climate, soil climate, soils, vegetation, land capability classification, hydrology, and means and costs of transport;
2. The People of Uboma, which included their history, settlement pattern, housing, demography, social organization and culture, traditional religion, political organization, and economy;

---

<sup>1</sup> All information in this section was drawn from the publication "Uboma, A Socio-Economic and Nutritional Survey of a Rural Community in Eastern Nigeria," Geographical Publications, Ltd., Bude, Cornwall, 1966.

3. The Diet, Food Economics, and Health of the Uboma People, an examination of their diet, food economics and clinical nutrition;
4. Land Tenure in Uboma, which involved an analysis of land holdings, acquisition and disposal of rights in land, and forfeiture of rights in land; and
5. Agriculture in Uboma, which included an examination of food crops, cultural practices, storage, processing, cash crops, pests, disease and weed damage to crops, livestock, labor, other economic activities, and the income of farming families.

Most of the field collection work was done through four to six-hour interviews conducted by the Shell agronomist which enabled him to lay the groundwork for future interaction with the people in the area. Moreover, it permitted him to identify activities which would have a high impact, such as the introduction of irrigated rice in several localities, as well as the mechanisms for (and potential obstacles to) carrying out these activities.

The survey identified the major problem areas in Uboma which were the people's level of health and nutrition, land tenure arrangements, the lack of commercial enterprises, and the levels of food and cash crop production (set against the area's potential). More specifically, basic information on behavior and attitudes which was collected, helped shape the technical assistance approach. Such data showed the importance of women in

agricultural production and the ways to involve them in project activities. Some of the key findings and their use were:

*Total Income/Family/Year*

The study showed that the major source of farm family income came from staple food crops such as yams, cocoyams, and cassava; cash crop income resulted from palm oil production. For 1964, the breakout was as follows:

<i>Source</i>	<i>Income (£s)</i>
Food crops (Table XXX)	91.60
Cash crops (Table XXXIII)	32.39
Livestock (Table XXXV)	4.74
Total farm output	128.73
Non-farming activities (Table XLI)	27.20
Total all sources /family	155.93
Income/head/year	£26.12

Source: "Uboma," p. 103.

More specifically, the data showed that the males provided most of the off-farm income:

#### ESTIMATED NET INCOME FROM NON-FARMING ACTIVITIES

*(It was not possible to ascertain accurately the net cash returns to farmers from the various subsidiary economic activities because those interviewed were either unwilling or unable to provide the information. The figures here are, therefore, estimates.)*

	Yearly income per individual (£s)	Total from 70 families (£s)	Per family (£s)
<b>MEN</b>			
Tax collecting	6	18 00	.25
Palm wine tapping	30	840 00	12 00
Farm labouring	10	60 00	.86
Trading	30	330 00	4.71
Timber logging/sawing	30	30 00	.43
Basket making	10	10 00	.14
Tailoring	25	50 00	.71
Cooking	36	36 00	.51
Cycle repairing	10	20 00	.29
Building	60	240 00	3.43
Native Doctor	30	60 00	.86
Watchman	36	36 00	.51
<b>WOMEN</b>			
Trading	10	130 00	1.86
Native Doctor	30	45 00	.64
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>£1,905 00</b>	<b>£27.20</b>

Source: "Uboma," p. 102.

Outside of petty trading and a little work as native doctors, the women were involved only in farming and housework:

#### NUMBER OF FEMALES IN DIFFERENT OCCUPATIONS

*(From a study of 70 randomly selected families, 1964)*

Housewife Farm Labourer	Housewife/ Trader	Housewife/ Native Doctor
88	13	2

Source: "Uboma," p. 102.

**Farming Calendar**

As the above findings became apparent, the Shell agronomist put together the following farming calendar, breaking out the work done by men and women:

<i>Month</i>	<i>Work done by Men</i>	<i>Work done by Women</i>
<b>JANUARY</b>	Major: Completion of yam harvest and barn work. Minor: Clearing of bush and burning. Planting of yellow yam, <i>iyagha</i> .	Major: Harvesting cocoyams. Planting new cassava. Weeding old cassava. Clearing of bush and burning.
<b>FEBRUARY</b>	Major: Clearing of bush and burning. Planting of early yams on compound farm. Minor: Planting of yellow yam, <i>iyagha</i> .	Major: Clearing of bush and burning. Maize and fluted pumpkins planted on compound farm. Minor: Planting new cassava. Harvesting cocoyam.
<b>MARCH</b>	Major: Clearing bush and burning. Planting of early yams on compound land. Minor: Making yam heaps for late yam crop.	Major: Clearing and burning bush. Maize and fluted pumpkins planted on compound farm. Planting groundnuts. Minor: Making mounds for late yam crop.
<b>APRIL</b>	Major: Clearing of bush and burning concluded. Planting late yams and cassava. Minor: Staking vines of early yam.	Major: Planting maize, okra, fluted pumpkins and melons. Planting cocoyams and cassava. Minor: Planting groundnuts.
<b>MAY</b>	Major: Planting of late yams and cassava. Minor: Staking and training yam vines. Harvesting of fresh maize from compound farm.	Major: Planting cocoyams and cassava. Minor: Planting of maize, okra, beans, pumpkins and melons. Harvesting of fresh maize from compound farm.
<b>JUNE</b>	Major: Staking and training yam vines. Minor: Planting cassava. Harvesting fresh maize.	Major: Weeding. Minor: Planting cassava. Harvesting fresh maize. Harvesting groundnuts.
<b>JULY</b>	Major: Staking and training yam vines. Minor: Planting cassava. Harvesting dry maize. Topping early yam.	Major: Weeding. Minor: Harvesting groundnuts. Harvesting dry maize. Planting cassava.
<b>AUGUST</b>	Major: Topping early yam (New Yam Festival). Minor: Training yam vines.	Major: Weeding. Minor: Harvesting groundnuts. Planting pepper on compound land.
<b>SEPTEMBER</b>	Major: Topping early yam. Minor: Planting cassava.	Major: Weeding. Planting pepper on compound land. Minor: Planting cassava.
<b>OCTOBER</b>	Major: Topping early yam. Minor: Planting cassava. Harvesting yams.	Major: Planting cassava. Minor: Weeding. Harvesting cocoyam.
<b>NOVEMBER</b>	Major: Barn work. Minor: Harvesting yams.	Major: Planting cassava. Minor: Harvesting cocoyam. Weeding.
<b>DECEMBER</b>	Major: Harvesting yams and storage in barn. Minor: Planting cassava.	Major: Harvesting cocoyam. Minor: Weeding. Planting cassava.

Source: "Uboma," p. 88.

A determination was also made of what proportion of a person's day was spent on different work activities:

PERCENTAGE OF 12-HOUR DAY SPENT ON DIFFERENT ACTIVITIES

(*'Non-work' includes social activities, rest and periods when incapacitated*)

	<i>Arable crop work</i>	<i>Tree crop work</i>	<i>Livestock work</i>	<i>Domestic work</i>	<i>Other work</i>	<i>Non-work</i>
Man	7.5	19.6	0.9	2.4	13.7	55.9
Woman	14.2	5.8	0.1	19.4	13.9	46.6
Family	10.6	13.1	0.5	10.4	13.8	51.6

Source: "Uboma," p. 102.

*Local Social Structure and Organizations*

The necessity of involving women in any agricultural assistance effort directed towards food crops was readily apparent. Information collected on the local structure revealed the desirability of working through the extended family. As was also done in the Leribe Project in Lesotho, family relationships were plotted:

SOCIAL GROUPINGS IN UBOMA

*From information collected by local enquiry*

<i>Village</i>	<i>Quarter or Ward</i>	<i>Kindred or Umunna</i>	<i>Extended Family</i>
ONICHA [See Notes (i) (ii) and (iii)]	UMUEZE	UMUNACIII	Umunkpi, Umuanyanwu
		UMUAGBAHO	Umuakamara, Umuofo, Umuokereke
		UMUODU	Umukenkwo, Umuireze, Umunwankwonta, Umunwore, Umuidaku
		UMUDOBI	Umuire, Umunworie, Umunwivu
		UMUDURUOMA	UMUAROZO
		UMUAGWUOJI	Amaikpa, Uturu, Umuofo, Umucke, Umuonoruo

Source: "Uboma," p. 14.

Prior to the initiation of the project in the area, there were considerable tensions among family groupings and villages. Therefore, such schemes as irrigated rice and vegetable growing and fish ponds (which required communal labor and sharing) were required so that technical assistance personnel might work through the extended family groupings. Further, it became apparent that women had a voice in these production decisions, in addition to their major role in carrying the decisions out.

Another early concern was the availability of larger groups through which information on improved techniques could be disseminated. It was found that there were several groups in which women were involved. These included: church groups, Isusu (lending) clubs, age-grade groups (normally a male traditional organization which groups individuals of the same age), and women's societies. The Shell technical assistance personnel met with the leaders of these groups, and on a regular basis provided instructions on what should be done during various periods to improve food crop production. The Uboma project staff even convinced the priests in the area to make announcements during mass as to when to plant.

A determination was also made of the sources of credit and how it was used:

**SOURCES OF CREDIT  
FOR 24 FAMILIES IN UBOMA**

<i>Sources</i>	<i>Amount (£s)</i>	<i>Percentage of total</i>
Church meetings	10.50	6.33
Church societies	5.80	3.50
Isusu clubs	124.78	75.24
Women's societies	5.75	3.47
Relations and friends	2.00	1.21
Moneylenders	2.00	1.21
Age-grade meeting	15.00	9.04
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>£165.83</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Source: "Uboma," p. 7

**PURPOSES FOR WHICH FUNDS WERE USED  
BY 24 UBOMA FAMILIES**

<i>Purpose</i>	<i>Amount (£s)</i>	<i>Percentage of total</i>
Seedlings	15.08	9.09
Fertilizers	0.13	0.08
Oil press	30.00	18.09
Ceremonies	10.12	6.10
School fees	7.60	4.58
Pledge	1.00	0.60
Cultivation	3.00	1.82
Livestock	4.70	2.83
Others	94.20	56.81
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>£165.83</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Source: "Uboma," p. 8.

By identifying the existing patterns of cooperation in the area such as the credit association larger efforts were undertaken. For example, two attempts to form cooperatives in the area had failed prior to project initiation. The Shell personnel were able to assist in the development of a financially viable cooperative movement (17 primary societies) by building on these patterns. Because of the role of women, the cooperatives were organized with their active participation and over time, with their participation in leadership roles.

#### *Summary*

The above is only a skeletal attempt to illustrate the types of information used in designing a rural development project which pays particular attention to women's involvement. During the past ten years, the Uboma project has succeeded in improving the well-being of the 4,500 families in the 25-square mile area, with a return of five dollars in aggregate income for each dollar of technical assistance money invested. This last figure points out the major weakness in the Shell project information system; it does not allow for a measurement of the distribution effects of project activities.



## APPENDIX E

### BIBLIOGRAPHY

#### Women in Development (General)

Boserup, Ester, Woman's Role in Economic Development, George Allen and Unwin Ltd., London, 1970.

Boserup, Ester, excerpts from Woman's Role in Economic Development in "Women in Development", AID, 1971.

Denti, Ettore, "Sex-Age Patterns of Labour Force Participation" in "Women in Development" AID, 1971.

Germain, Adrienne, "The Status and Roles of Women as Factors in Fertility Behavior," Ford Foundation, New York, 1971.

Glancy, Dorothy, "An Around the World View of Women's Roles in Public Affairs", Wellesley College, Stevens Traveling Fellowship, Wellesley, 1971.

ILO, Yearbook of Labour Statistics, Geneva, 1972.

ILO, E/CN/14.SW/INF.8, "The Employment and Vocational Preparation of Girls and Women in Africa", Regional Meeting, Addis Ababa, March, 1969.

ILO, "The ILO and Women", Geneva, 1966.

ILO, "Women Workers in a Changing World", Geneva, 1973.

Johnson, Frances, "Integrating Women into Economic Development", AID, March 1, 1974.

Johnson, Frances, "Logical Framework for Employment Generation Strategy", AID, March 20, 1974.

Silverstone, Jonathan, "Participation of Women in Development", AID, February 11, 1974.

Sipila, Helvi L., "Equal Rights for the World's Women" in the Victor-Bostrum Fund Report, No. 18, Washington, D.C., Spring 1974.

United Nations, Statistical Yearbook, New York, Yearbooks for 1973, 1971, 1969, 1967, and 1965.

United Nations, ST/SOA/120, "Report of the Interregional Meeting of Experts on the Integration of Women in Development," New York, June, 1972.

ECOSOC, "Programme of Concerted International Action to Promote the Advancement of Women and to Increase their contributions to the Development of their Countries", documents E/CN.6/498, E/CN.6/513/Rev.1, E/CN.6/553/Add.1, E/CN.6/554, E/CN.6/557, E/CN.6/571, E/CN.6/572, E/CN.6/573, E/CN.6/575, E/CN.6/575/Add.3, C/CN.6/577,

E/CN.6/579, E/CN.6/580, E/CN.6/583, E/CN.6/583/Add.1, E/CN.6/583/Add.2, and E/CN.5/481.

UNICEF, E/ICEF/L.1275, "Assessments of Projects for the Education and Training of Women and Girls for Family and Community Life", New York, 1970.

UNESCO/EDF/2, "Access of Girls and Women to Secondary Education", Paris, 1966.

Van Haeften, Roberta K. and Caton, Douglas D., "A Strategy Paper for Integrating LDC Rural Women into their National Economies", AID, May 13, 1974.

Youssef, Nadia Haggag, Women and Work in Developing Societies, Population Monograph Series, No. 15, University of California Berkeley, 1974.

## Africa

Cleave, John H., African Farmers: Labor Use in the Development of Smallholder Agriculture, Praeger, New York, 1974.

Demographic Handbook for Africa, ECA, 1974.

ECA and German Foundation for Developing Countries, "Education, Vocational Training and Work Opportunities for Girls and Women in African Countries", Rabat, May, 1971.

ECOSOC, E/CN.14/SW/INF.8, "The Employment and Vocational Preparation of Girls and Women in Africa", ECA Regional Meeting, Addis Ababa, March, 1969.

ECOSOC, E/CN.14/SW/17, "Education and Training of Women - Special Reference to Africa", ECA Regional Meeting, Addis Ababa, March, 1969.

ECOSOC, E/CN.14/SW/37, "Data Base for Discussion on the Interrelations Between the Integration of Women in Development their Situation and Population factors in Africa", ECA Regional Seminar, Addis Ababa, June 3-7, 1974.

Ford Foundation Task Force on Women, "Women and National Development in African Countries: Some Profound Contradictions", February, 1973.

Germain, Adrienne, and Smock, Audrey, "The Status and Roles of Ghanaian and Kenyan Women: Implications for Fertility Behavior", paper for the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, September 1, 1974.

ILO, "The Employment and Conditions of Work of African Women", Geneva, 1964

Little, Kenneth, African Women in Towns, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1973.

- Mbilinyi, Marjorie J., "The Participation of Women in African Economies", University of Dar-es-Salaam, Economic Research Bureau, Dar-es-Salaam, 1971.
- Molnos, Angela, Attitudes Towards Family Planning in East Africa, Weltforum Verlag, Munich, 1968.
- Ominde, S.H. and Ejiogu, C.N., Population Growth and Economic Development in Africa, Heinemann, London, Nairobi, and Ibadan, in association with the Population Council, New York, 1972.
- Snyder, Margaret, "The Changing and Contemporary Role of Women in African Development", paper for the Economic Bulletin for Africa, January, 1974.

#### Ghana

- Area Handbook for Ghana, American University Foreign Area Studies, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1971.
- Birmingham, Walter, Neustadt, I., and Omaboe, E.N., The Economy Of Ghana, Northwestern University Press, Evanston, 1967.
- Birmingham, Walter, Neustadt, I., and Omaboe, E.N., Some Aspects Of Social Structure in Ghana, Northwestern University Press, Evanston, 1967.
- Brokensha, David, Social Change at Larteh, Ghana, Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1966.
- "Country Profile: Ghana", The Population Council, October, 1970.
- ECA Country Report for Ghana on "Vocational Training Opportunities for Girls and Women" 1974.
- Feldman, Harold, "The Ghanaian Family in Transition", University of Ghana, Winneba, 1968.
- Goody, Esther N., Contexts of Kinship: An Essay in the Family Sociology of the Gonja of Northern Ghana, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1973.
- Greenstreet, M., "Employment of Women in Ghana", International Labour Review, V.103, February, 1973.
- Grindal, Bruce T., Growing Up in Two Worlds: Education and Transition among the Sisala of Northern Ghana, Holt, Rinehart, Winstow, Inc., New York, 1972.

Hill, Polly, Migrant Cocoa Farmers in Southern Ghana, Cambridge, University Press, Cambridge, 1963.

Hill, Polly, Rural Capitalism in West Africa, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1970.

"Situation Report: Ghana" International Planned Parenthood Federation, June, 1974.

#### Kenya

Area Handbook for Kenya, American University Foreign Area Studies, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1967.

"Country Profile: Kenya", The Population Council, May, 1971.

ECA Country Report for Kenya on "Vocational Training Opportunities for Girls and Women", 1972.

Employment, Incomes, and Equality: A Strategy for Increasing Productive Employment in Kenya, International Labour Office, Geneva, 1972.

"Ministry of Education Annual Report", Republic of Kenya, Government Printer, Nairobi, 1972.

Pala, Achola, "The Role of Women in Rural Development: Research Priorities", Institute for Development Studies, University of Nairobi, Nairobi, 1974.

"Situation Report: Kenya", International Planned Parenthood Federation, November, 1970; and July, 1974.

United Nations, The Status and Role of Women in East Africa, New York, 1967.

Wills, Jane, "A Study of Time Allocation by Rural Women and their Place in Decision-Making: Preliminary Findings from Embu District", Makerere University, Faculty of Agriculture, F.D.R. 44., Kampala, 1967.

Women in Developing Countries - Case Studies Of Six Countries, Swedish International Development Authority, 1973.

Lesotho

- "Annual Statistical Bulletin: 1971", Bureau of Statistics, Maseru, Lesotho, 1972.
- "Census of Agriculture Report: 1970", Bureau of Statistics, Maseru, Lesotho, 1972.
- ECA Country Report for Lesotho on "Vocational Training Opportunities for Girls and Women", 1972.
- Leistner, G.M.E., "Economic Structure and Growth", Communications of the African Institute, #5, Pretoria, 1966.
- "Situation Report: Lesotho", International Planned Parenthood Federation, January, 1972; and April, 1974.
- Wallman, Sandra, Take out Hunger: Two Case Studies of Rural Development in Basutoland, The Athlone Press, London, 1969.
- Williams, John Cox, "Lesotho: Three Man Power Problems; Education, Health, Population Growth", Communications of the African Institute, Pretoria, 1971.

Nigeria

- Area Handbook for Nigeria, American University Foreign Area Studies, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1972.
- Bohannan, Paul and Laura, Tiv Economy, Northwestern University Press, Evanston, 1968.
- "Country Profile: Nigeria", The Population Council, February, 1973.
- ECA Country Report for Nigeria on "Vocational Training Opportunities for Girls and Women", 1973.
- Hill, Polly, Rural Hausa, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1972.
- "Labor in Nigeria", U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, D.C., December, 1963.
- Norman, D.W., "Economic analysis of agricultural production and labour utilization among the Hausa in the north of Nigeria", Michigan State University, East Lansing, 1973.
- Olusanya, P. O., "Nigeria: Cultural Barriers to Family Planning among the Yorubas", in Studies in Family Planning No. 37, January, 1969.

"Situation Report: Nigeria", International Planned Parenthood Federation, October, 1972.

#### Latin America

Gendell, Murray and Rossell, Guillermo, "The Economic Activity of Women in Latin America", OAS Interamerican Commission of Women, DCAA/Doc.21, Washington, D.C., 1967.

Pescatello, Ann, Female and Male in Latin America , University of Pittsburgh Press, Pittsburgh, 1973.

Pescatello, Ann, "The Female in Ibero-American: an essay on research bibliography and research directions", Latin American Research Review, V.7 No. 2 Summer, 1972.

Ruddle, Kenneth, and Burrows, Kathleen, Statistical Abstract of Latin America: 1972 , University of California, Los Angeles, 1974.

#### Bolivia

Area Handbook for Bolivia, American University Foreign Area Studies, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1974.

"Field Trip Report: Bolivia", International Planned Parenthood Federation, London, January 8-10, 1974.

Fortún, Julia Elena, "La Mujer Aymara en Bolivia", America Indigena-Vol.XXXII No. 3, Julio-Septiembre, 1972.

Patch, Richard W., "Attitudes Towards Sex, Reproduction, and Contraception in Bolivia and Peru", American Universities Field Staff, West Coast South America Series 17:11, 1970.

Scanlon, Thomas J., "The Overseas Education Fund in Latin America", Study submitted to the Office of Regional Projects, Bureau for Latin America, Agency for International Development, 1970.

"Situation Report: Bolivia", International Planned Parenthood Federation, London, March, 1974.

Paraguay

Area Handbook for Paraguay, American University Foreign Area Studies  
U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1972.

Pendle, George, Paraguay, Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1967.

"Situation Report: Paraguay", International Planned Parenthood  
Federation, London, April, 1969; December, 1971; and July, 1973.

Vittone, Luis, "La mujer Paraguaya en La Vida Nacional", Asuncion, 1968.

Peru

Area Handbook for Peru, American University Foreign Area Studies,  
Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1972.

Carpio, Lourdes, "The Rural Women in Peru: An Alarming Contradiction",  
in "Women", Dayton, Ohio, 1973.

Chaney, Elsa M., "Women in Latin America: Politics: The Case of  
Peru and Chile", in Female and Male in Latin America, University  
of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, 1973.

Country Profiles: Peru, The Population Council, New York, October,  
1973.

Dobyns, Henry F. Doughty, Paul L., and Laswell, Harold D. Peasants,  
Power, and Applied Social Change: Vicos as a Model, Sage  
Publications, Beverly Hills, 1964.

Heyman, Barry, "Urbanization and the Status of Women in Peru",  
University of Wisconsin, Madison, 1974.

Patch, Richard W., "Attitudes Towards Sex, Reproduction, and Con-  
traception in Bolivia and Peru", American Universities Field  
Staff, West Coast South America Series 17:11, 1970.

"Situation Report: Peru", International Planned Parenthood Federation,  
London, July 1973.