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WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN INCOME GENERATING ACTIVITIES

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Participating in income generating activities is of vital interest to women throughout the developing world. A recent evaluation of the impact on women of AID's various development programs indicated that those activities which brought women increased income, specifically money, attracted the most interest among women (Dixon 1980). During the Copenhagen conference for the Mid-Decade of the Woman, discussion sessions on income generation were invariably well attended. In these discussions representatives from donor and intermediary organizations and a few from the user groups themselves, came to relate frustrations and fears, to report success stories or failures, and to ask "how to." Many participants expressed the feeling, however, that beyond the popularity of such activities there were some hard basic questions that needed to be raised.

Specific details of programming brought forth a number of differing questions. Examples and concerns described by some participants appeared naïve or irrelevant to others. A Korean panel member spoke of organizing a woman's pig raising cooperative and a Voltaic woman inquired how they had raised money for the first pigs and how they had covered the risks. The Korean project director hardly understood the question as women in her project area could easily get a pig or two. For her, funding would only be a problem if women raised something more expensive, like cows. To this the Indian woman on my left remarked under her breath, "They are neither dealing with really poor women. In India people often suggest such schemes, but the poor do not even have a place to keep an animal." She was involved with

programs organizing women of the landless class. One experienced organizer spoke of the need for all programs to incorporate the total family and the danger of "women only" projects while another spoke of work in an area with many female headed households and no husbands to incorporate. One woman asked how to get around government distrust of women organizing while another spoke of her government's efforts to encourage such activities. It soon became clear that "truth" seemed to take shape differently depending upon the place in the economic, social, and political development ladder used as a reference point by each speaker.

However, even though details of programming differ, these women experts from around the world raised several common issues. The first dealt with participation. What did we mean by participation and what kind and level of participation or organization is necessary to achieve a "successful" project? What could participation mean to already overworked women? The second dealt with the meaning, the goals, and the desired economic, social and political effects of income generating projects. How could success of these projects be judged? Finally, they wanted to see some case studies of both mixed and women-only projects evaluated for participation and from income generating goals. This paper is organized to address these three topics.

I Participation

The idea of participation in development projects is not new. It is as old as the concept of development itself. But the philosophy behind the participation as well as the role women play has changed through time.

During colonial times in West Africa, for example, those administrators who felt it was "the white man's burden" to help the natives develop for their own good, would ask tribal chiefs to produce workers to build a

building or road, or to plant some trees. Women participated in these efforts doing their traditional jobs of pounding the earth, carrying water, and feeding the workmen. The building, roads and trees related to goals set by administration. None of the workers, men or women, chose to participate or chose the benefits produced.

After many of the colonial countries reached independence this approach was no longer feasible and other philosophies of development came into vogue such as the famous "trickle down" approach. One idea was that if newly independent countries industrialized and became richer there would be new jobs and increased income for the entire population. In this model women did not participate much in the industrialization process as this was not the pattern in the western countries helping establish the projects. However, women participated in working harder on the subsistence crops when the men left for outside projects. When women were hired they were paid less than men for the same work, a totally new concept for these African societies.

When the trickle down programs did not seem to trickle, developers as well as local leaders, saw that such a method was not improving the lot of the poor but was, in fact, increasing the distance between the have and the have nots. At this point new approaches were suggested, including community development with emphasis on rural communities. In one still active scenario the focus is on satisfying basic needs of the population through building a strong agricultural sector. Projects are more widely dispersed and there is broader participation in project implementation.

Agricultural projects frequently offer men techniques of and access to implements for growing cash crops. Project designs carry the underlying assumption that the profits will "trickle over" to the wives and children. Women are given support for social welfare projects and training in hygiene,

etc., with the belief it is complementary for women to improve the quality of life within the household while the husband will bring in the income to support a higher standard of living. One problem with the trickle-over theory is that in places, such as West Africa, duties and responsibilities of men and women are separate and clearly defined in such a way that there is no trickle-over. For instance, in a rice project in Upper Volta, land was parcelled out to family heads on the basis of the number of family members who would work in the rice field. Women had no separate land of their own or surplus time to make a garden to provide the vegetables for the sauces or to sell or trade for personal items for themselves or their children. Men earned more than they ever had, the income per family was higher, and men gave some, but apparently insufficient, money to their wives to buy sauce ingredients. Social worker studies report increased incidence of malnutrition in the project area. They found a decrease in social contact for women who did not have the personal funds to buy the expected gifts if they returned to the home village to attend weddings, funerals, etc. The project, now a locally run cooperative, is frequently cited as a success because of the increased per family income. But here is a case where the women participate in the labor, the men receive the cash, and the trickle-over theory did not work.

A male run poultry cooperative in Upper Volta has increased greatly the amount of water women need to carry to the village and women perceive no benefits for this added labor. One man's cooperative project failed because men forgot that women were needed to process the fruit from their plantations at the exact time women were busy with the food harvest.

At their worst, government agents or project directors design a community project (something that will be good for the locals), explain how beneficial it will be, and are angered when no one participates.

However, there are many much more positive community programs and some sample projects will be examined in section III.

Another current scenario in the community development approach is the self-help project. The philosophy of this approach is sometimes expressed in terms of developing local control. But is also frequently justified on economic grounds; there is not enough money to pay for all the buildings, roads, and tree plantations needed, therefore, community members should be encouraged to do these things for themselves to better their own situation. Once again it is the rural poor who are most frequently asked to participate in these ventures. (It is hard to imagine residents of most urban communities building their own streets, clinics, and schools, etc.)

Self-help projects differ in amounts of local participation and what this means to women. In one road building program sponsored by CARE, the project provides heavy equipment and the community provides all the manual labor. Women again carry water and feed the workmen. The difference between this and the colonial project is that the community has asked for this road and presumably will benefit from its use. Self-help gardens planted by women in Senegal have been the source of funds for mills and local community centers which were benefits selected by the women participants. In Sierra Leone, however, community self-help rice fields have produced mixed results. The communal profits have helped complete a local school and dispensary which the women value. On the other hand, women and elder sons now have so much added work that neither have time to generate personal income by following the tradition of planting personal fields. This is cited by women as one reason why sons, who need money to marry and establish households, leave to find paying jobs.

What is Participation?

As one looks over the admittedly simplistic examples of changing forms of participation, one can identify four types of participation which should be disaggregated and analyzed separately. These are participation in: first, project selection, design and control; second, implementation; third, not only receiving benefits but choice and control of these benefits; and, finally, evaluation. If women are to have developmentally dynamic roles, that is, if they are to develop skills in responding to ever changing physical and social environments and have some control over their futures, they must participate in all four aspects. The availability of participating in these levels will only be possible when the underlying philosophy is accepted that participants, including women, are rational beings who will make rational choices when adequate information is known, and that they have the right to decide where and for which benefits they will expend their efforts and resources. Participation in added work is not enough to judge that one is a participatory project.

Constraints and Aids to Women's Participation

Women may lack the time, space, credit, resources, knowledge, skills or information to make it easy for them to participate in projects. They may be held back by tradition or by other family responsibilities. In looking through numerous examples of projects it appears some basic patterns of needs can be seen. Women of the landless class who come only with their own willingness to participate may need communal space, basic supplies, perhaps skills, risk guarantees for the use of their time, and some money to pay debts and buy food, etc. before they are able to return funds to a revolving loan. If the women are nomadic they may need something they can take in unfinished stages and return completed, or knowledge of something they can do in camp (such as how to make cheese).

Women of the poor farmer class are apt to need labor-saving technologies so they will have time to participate. They often need land tenure or use guarantees, risk guarantees, sometimes a communal place to meet or work and often activities close to the household. They frequently need to organize in order to overcome traditional restrictions on their activities or mobility.

Women of the urban poor often need an adequate space in which to work, raw products, risk guarantees, child care, training to upgrade skills needed in the urban setting, and organization for support in getting adequate wages.

Middle and upper class urban women are often especially financially dependent and have little freedom of movement. Many are restricted in what activities are socially available to them. They may need projects they can do close to or in their homes and training in acceptable income-producing skills. They, too, may need the support of joining with other women to gain more flexibility and freedom. In situations where these women lack raw materials sometimes alliances with rural women have proved successful such as is found in Guinea where rural women send in raw materials which urban women process or market. In India the more spacially restricted higher class women manufacture products while more mobile groups bring them raw materials and take the products to market.

The projects which are most successful in getting participation from women appear to be those which capitalize on skills women already have and/or activities they and their families find acceptable for women. Projects which use local resources, satisfy a local demand, involve the woman in as many aspects of the process as possible and fit into the local development strategy have a good chance of success. However, after identifying the above resources and needs, project designers will have to

help local women get adequate market and other information in order to decide if the project will try to upgrade local practices, modify them, or redirect them entirely. We shall look at this further in Part III.

II INCOME GENERATING PROJECTS

The very concept of women's income generating projects according to many professionals, needs to be examined. A number of researchers have rejected the term "income generating," preferring the term "employment." They feel that "income generating" projects connotes small activities irrelevant to the main stream of national economic development. In this paper the term women's income generation is "writ large." It includes any self-supporting project where benefits accrue to women participants from sale of items for money, from employment for wages, or in such projects as planting trees to increase fuel or fodder supply or to conserve soil thereby improving production in the gardens and fields. It includes appropriate technology which allows women to cut down on waste, or to conserve or increase food supply. What type of income is appropriate will depend upon the circumstances. In one example from India, women are paid in pre-cooked food. Any change allowing for payment in rice paddy or even money would be less appropriate because the women are so poor they lacked stoves, pans, and fuel.

This broad definition of income generation excludes many projects that have formerly been classified under this rubric since the project must actually increase income above its costs. Handicrafts projects in Thailand and in Guinea which produce lovely local crafts products but which are subsidized on a regular basis by the government could be considered cultural or welfare activities, but not income generating by this definition. Except for costs of training, perhaps original "seed money"

or a facilitating loan fund, an income-generating project should become not only self-sustaining but profit-making.

Another aspect of income generation, which was mentioned in the first section, is control of benefits. The public process of choosing which project benefits are to be designed into a program are not so difficult to evaluate. The cited chicken project where only men profited from cooperative membership, but women were expected to carry water when they had no voice in selecting the project would not be income-generating for women. However, if both men and women selected the activities and shared the benefits it would be included. The more private aspects of family use of funds is much more difficult to evaluate and would have to be judged from the perspective of the woman involved. Bringing home money which the husband then decides how to spend may improve a woman's status and may be how she chooses to use her benefits in her specific socio-economic environment.

In choosing income generating projects and their organizational format women must look at desired economic, social, and political benefits.

Economic Considerations

The two major questions involved in every project design are: what economic groups are to profit from the project, and what is the long term economic impact.

There are needs for income generating projects for women in all economic categories, however, most development agencies and countries have strategies which will direct where project efforts are likely to be focused. The idea that all projects must address only the poorest of the poor is questioned by many people organizing cooperatives or working on community projects.

Organizers point out that the poor have no resources, little training, and

frequently cannot even invest time unless the returns are immediate. Their first financial returns cannot be reinvested in the business until urgent living requirements are satisfied. Because garden projects may not be available to landless does not mean all garden projects are invalid. It is only necessary to recognize the needs and resources of the identified group and check to be sure the profile of the potential participant coincides with the profile of the group members.

There are programs, however, such as the Rural Organizations Action Program (ROAP of the FAO) which have in small scale experimental activities proven that the poorest can participate in cooperative and pre-cooperative programs. ROAP has purposely excluded any but the poor from joining their groups. One group of women organized around picking up salvage from the sea coast and thus improved their economic position.

The other major issue, the long term economic effect of the project, is partially determined by the control the women have over the project even after outside assistance terminates. An embroidery project in the Peul area of Upper Volta may be a dead-end project although it does increasing business every year. When the expatriate project managers are not present the Peul women cannot quote prices or handle a sale nor are any being trained to do this in the future.

A second type of dead-end project is the project in which there is training for a craft or a manual skill which is soon to be outmoded by new technology or goods. Unless the project organization has built in a developmentally dynamic quality which will help members react to change and take advantage of new opportunities its long term economic prospects are dim. This has been vividly seen in handicraft projects where improved local craft industries are built on tourist or export trade. In an example in Central America an industry of local cloth was built for export to exclusive

United States and European stores. However, around five years later the demand shifted suddenly to a slightly different design from a similar project in a neighboring country and the women were left without orders.

A further question is if the project will help the women get into the mainstream of development? One example given at the Copenhagen meeting was that of a group requesting money to build more storage facilities for the product they were making. The question arose whether it was a viable product if it required outside funds for storage of the unsold portion. Often jam projects arise when women see fruit going to waste without consideration that sugar and jars must be imported as production of neither item had been developed in the region. Whenever a project can tie into the government programs taking advantage of training, supporting technical services and infrastructure, it will have a greater potential for long term economic success.

No project should be planned without market research, feasibility studies or other technical information and resources carefully assessed. This is true for men's or women's projects. What is different is that men may have had support for forming cooperatives or starting into cash crops or other income increasing activities as an integral part of larger development programs. Women, however, have frequently tried activities limited to the traditional sphere without ties into the modern economic system or the needed organizational or management support. New designs for income generating projects should not just emulate men's activities. Many of those programs are reevaluated as they often put the men into a cycle of debt. The very long term economic effects of projects should be considered from the beginning.

Social Considerations

Social considerations are a basic aspect of women's economic participation in their societies. The social environment dictates what forms of economic organization will be available to women and what services organizing might provide.

There are situations in which specific projects to women are best organized through the family or community structure. In Guinea women stated directly that they would prefer a proposed community firewood project be organized through the community rather than through their women's group. They saw their time as already over-extended and felt husbands would appreciate their contributions to a communal effort whereas they would resent time being spent on a woman's project. The women felt the benefit of increased locally available wood would be theirs under either organizational formula.

In other areas women traditionally work only with other women or alone in their households. Examples from India show that imaginative planning can sometimes allow women to gain from forming an association even when they are restricted to work in their own households. One Indian group of women makes bread which is collected and sold by women of other social strata who have more mobility.

In general, women report obtaining economic benefits, personal benefits, services, and power from joining with other women in economic activities. Economic benefits are mostly the same as for men's groups--as for women's. Group activities can offer economy of scale in production, purchasing, merchandizing, and access to credit, etc. These benefits have generally been more available to men who have had cooperative memberships more frequently than women. Personal benefits are somewhat different for women than for men.

A group of women may be able to overcome traditional restrictions on mobility, control of money, and acceptable feminine activities more easily than any one woman could overcome these alone. The literature is full of examples of even conservative husbands allowing their wives to join in group activities especially after wives of more progressive neighbors have done so.

Women report that a low economic contribution to the family gives women a low social status and that participation in economic ventures, especially group ventures, increases the woman's standing. Some cite fewer beatings and more consideration to prove it.

Services for women are sometimes more easily organized when women work together. Shared responsibility for child care or cooking, sharing information, and organizing training or other services may improve women's chances to participate in economic activities. When working in groups, individuals have more power to control wages, working conditions, and to get more legal representation.

A group's organizational structures and roles should be judged by whether the women identified as potential participants feel the organization represents their interests and fulfills needs. It should be judged by whether it gives them more freedom, new experiences in leadership and management and a new image of themselves. On the other hand, it should be judged by whether the women themselves are committed to the group and have a role in its direction. Does the organization answer a need or does it merely burden the woman further? Is it designed to help participants respond to and help direct their own social change? What is the long term social impact on those the project affects?

Political Considerations

It is impossible to view potential projects without seeing them in the political context, both the current political environment and the effects the project might have on the women's ability to function in the future. In some countries governments are actively interested in supporting some types of women's organizations and economic activities. The new government of Nicaragua has formally recognized the conflicting claim on women's time of economic activities and of household tasks. It has responded by developing "popular" laundries, restaurants and day care facilities, so fewer women will be isolated in their homes. Nicaraguan women can thus better organize their time to participate in the nation's economic and social development. Both Korea and Kenya have different but strongly supported self help community development activities. This contrasts to a country like Mauritania where the government is just now exploring the possibility of rescinding its well established prohibition for women's groups to organize. Obviously programs would take a different shape in Upper Volta (where private voluntary organizations are given great freedom to design whatever activities they find appropriate) from those in the neighboring country of Niger where the government must approve projects and only considers those that fit into the national development objectives.

Organizing into groups may have political effects for women at several levels. First, at the personal level it may give the participant the political awareness of the group as a body with rights and obligations and of women's issues. Second, it may give participants new access to government services and the ability to effectively request and relate to both official and private agencies. Third, organization may open the opportunity for women to communicate with others and to profit from networks with local,

regional and international groups. Organizations should be evaluated by whether they help the participant function more adequately in her local, national and/or international environment.

Women's organizations are seldom seen as a political threat even by governments which distrust men's groups. Organized women have been seen as ineffectual. The question always remains, at the point when a woman's group is obviously effective can it present itself as a positive developmental and economic force rather than a political threat?

The major political question to ask about any women's income generating project is, "What is the long term political impact?"

In summary one can say that income generating projects are affected by the economic, social and political environment and that they should have an effect on woman's role in that environment. It is important to look at the projects in the total context of the family and community life and design the project in view of its long term impact.

III Case Studies

There are a number of examples which can illustrate various strategies used for organizing women's income generating projects. The first set of examples are not specifically for women but have included women. The second set are women-specific projects. Each of these organized formulas has advantages and disadvantages.

Generalized projects are apt to be supported by larger funding and to be tied directly to the national development strategy. Women specific projects are more apt to be minimally funded and out of mainstream activities. On the other hand, women specific projects frequently focused on yielding benefits for women and may offer the participating woman opportunities to get experience in leadership and managerial positions. Projects that do

not disaggregate tasks and benefits very frequently do not affect women positively and sometimes leave them disadvantaged (see Dixon 1980).

Generalized Projects

1. A Cattle Fattening Project:

An economically sound cattle fattening project was designed by an advisor to the Nigerian Government after discussions with local residents. It was funded by a European private voluntary organization which established a revolving fund for cattle purchase. A group of village elders helped manage the fund. Participants learned to select and raise the animal in the courtyard; the government livestock department developed veterinary services for the area. The project was a success in that those who participated earned good profits. Organizers discovered that only the land owners (and no women) participated as the risk of an expensive animal dying was too great. They then established compulsory insurance and the poor, men and women, eagerly joined the scheme. Women, in fact, became the major participants.

Though the project is organized to allow women to select their participation and control their benefits, it leaves them disadvantaged in relationship to men. Traditionally, women neither buy nor sell animals in the market, nor do they paddle the boats along the river which was necessary to cut grass for cattle feed. Women in this project paid men in their family and from the community to perform these tasks for them. Had organizing the women been an element of the project one wonders if the group could have overcome some of these barriers and made more complete participation and increased benefits possible.

2. Maisons Familiales

"Maisons Familiales" is a project sponsored by a French based organization. With about 100 centers in various African countries,

it offers interested communities an alternative form of education for their youth and a mechanism for community development. Rural youth are trained where one young man and one young woman organizer are housed and supported by the participating village. Though the emphasis is on youth training integrated into community development, the community members are associated with the process. Villagers develop an association to run the community center. The local youth-students participate when the association discusses local problems and they conduct research for potential solutions. Sometimes small groups with specific problems elect to work on a separate project. Occasionally these are all-women groups. An example of a project in Chad is a women's group that desired a village pharmacy which they established with the profit from a cooperative garden. Villages must request the organization to come to their village and they often build a meeting place as the first phase. Villagers participate in all phases including project evaluation.

3. Village Self-Help

Many villages in Sierra Leone have village self help programs. One village has a particularly active and successful program which includes communal rice fields, building a school, clinic, and feeder road. The villagers are led by a resident who is now a government official having contacts to agency support. They selected these goals and received small amounts of support from various U.S. and international groups as well as teachers and a nurse sent by the government. Women have participated in these activities, but, as was mentioned earlier, have had mixed feelings about the benefits. Although they value the selected project results they resent their time being so completely occupied as to prevent their earning the traditional private income necessary for their personal needs.

In Kenya the Harambee self-help movement is nationally supported. Most of the projects are village organized ventures for such things as

water delivery systems. There are also, however, women only groups. One such group identified lack of transportation of market goods as their most serious problem. They bought a bus and with their profits expanded to other businesses. They did not, however, save money to replace their bus and are currently raising more money to do so (see I.S. 1980). This project was not economically successful totally but if through their organization they can respond to this set-back the overall project may prove successful.

Women Only Projects

4. Workshops with Follow-Up Projects

The International Alliance for Women uses a format in which they organize regional workshops of women from chapters in developing countries. Participants identify problems in their own countries and design projects to address these needs. A major focus of the Alliance is improved family living and family planning and the majority of the projects identified by participants relate to this focus. The Alliance tries to provide funding to support the follow-up projects. Some examples are a project in Jamaica to train motivators in the use of communications media for better family living, and a project in Sri Lanka to establish a crèche and to train girls in child care, dressmaking, gardening, etc.

5. The Friends' Service Committee

The strategy of the Friends' Service Committee is to locate and then support indigenous women's development projects through using local and regional resources. They have been actively involved in the formation of cooperatives and the necessary training for women to run them. They have identified women being too busy to participate in income generating projects as a major constraint and are incorporating labor saving appropriate technology such as grain mills into their program. Among the programs they have sponsored are improved soap making and cloth dying using specialists

from neighboring countries as the resource persons (American Friends Service Committee Report, Dec. 1979).

6. An Indigenous Labor Group

In Sri Lanka women helped male relatives transplant rice in a government project area. Often they did this without pay. They were given training by the government and became very efficient. They began working together and finally formed a group to look for paid jobs. Because they were organized they could require circumspect behavior of group members and gain the confidence of their families to let them work outside the village. Because they were efficient they could demand better wages, better living conditions, and insured personal security from employers. The women feel very proud of their group effort. However, some of their employers are starting to mechanize farm work. The locally formed and directed group will soon have to meet the challenge of diverting their skills to another activity in learning to work with machinery (ESCAP 1979).

7. Training for Improved Skills

The YMCA in Korea has a program of upgrading the skills of women who already participate in the building industry. Women who work in low paying manual labor are offered training in tile laying, a task formerly only undertaken by men. The goals at first were to improve the economic condition of these women through selecting a trade that required light weight, easy to use, inexpensive tools. Because this was a non-traditional role, these women found resistance to their entering the field and needed organized group support. The first few groups have now successfully entered the building trade and the Y is expanding its training into other non-traditional building skills for women.

8. Projects with Indigenous Middle Class Support

In Upper Volta a woman whose husband was a high government official was widowed. She had sufficient money to be able to reject the traditional

practice of remarrying her deceased husband's brother and having her children scattered in various relatives' homes. She found that with increasing land pressure and urbanization many poor widows, especially those past child bearing age or with numerous children were rejected by their former husband's brothers who had no way to support extra family members. These widows were without support. Because of a local belief that women sometimes poisoned their husbands, widows also were suspect and feared.

This woman leader organized widows throughout Upper Volta and the groups have managed to get some national and international support for some small income generating projects. The women agreed to tax themselves a small amount for some drought relief grain. With these funds fifteen women established a small scale peanut oil business from which they repaid the loan with interest. This revolving account with supplemental funds has now started women in sewing, weaving, shea butter and other activities allowing a number of women to become self supporting.

A larger, more liberally funded project in Costa Rica uses local middle class women to improve conditions for poor urban women. Conducting a survey of women coming to San Jose, the project organizers identified need for information, better self image, training, job opportunities, etc. They developed a program to increase income possibilities and confidence using middle-class women both as trainers and as liaisons to government support agencies. The project results are described as improving economic status of poor women by offering training in the community and at the work centers, helping women learn their legal rights and helping them negotiate better working conditions. Women also report improved self image due to economic success and to training in problem solving and help

in organizing self help services such as child care (Human Development Project - San Jose, Costa Rico 1977-79. Federation of Volunteer Agencies and Overseas Education Fund).

9. Self-Employed Women's Associations

Several examples of self-employed women's associations came from India. A group of street vendors have reportedly reduced their feeling of subordination by becoming organized. They have improved their economic situation through increased bargaining power, legal aid, credit and savings possibilities, quantity purchasing, etc.

Pappad Rollers (break makers) formed an organization to improve their business by quality control, better marketing and a less expensive and higher quality raw material supply. The women participate in all aspects of business management in regularly scheduled meetings although they produce the bread in their own homes (Jain 1980).

Cited Examples	Objective	Economic Impact	Social Impact	Political Impact		
				Local Awareness	Tied into National Government	Networks to International Groups
Niger Cattle Fattening	Income generating	Increased income	Increased skills	-----	Government services	-----
Maisons Famalides	Training and community development	-----	Increased skills, improved community infrastructure	Increased	Made information available	-----
Self Help Sierra Leone	Improve Community development	Lowered women's economic situation	Improved community facilities	Increased	Increased at community level	Increased information and access to international agencies
Kenya Bus	Improved income	Unsure of long term impact	Increased exposure of group project	Increased	Project as supported in principle	Publicity has put in contact with international groups
International Alliance	Identify and solve problems	Few projects	Major emphasis	Increased	-----	Increased
Friends Service Program	Improve skills and economic condition	Increased income	Training for cooperatives	Increased	-----	Increased regional contacts
Sri Lankan Transplanters	Improved economic condition	Increased income but unsure of long range impact	Improved mobility & options Improved working conditions	Increased	Used government training program	-----
Korean Training	Upgrading skills Improved Income	Improved income	Expanded options - training & organization	Increased	-----	-----

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Cited Examples	Objective	Economic Impact	Social Impact	Political Impact		
				Local Awareness	Tied into National Government	Networks to International Groups
Voltaic Widows	Improved economic & social condition	Improved for an increasing number of women	Improved self image	Increased	Some support	Yes
Costa Rica	Improved economic & social conditions	Increased income	Improved skills & self image	Increased	-----	Yes
Indian Vendors	Improved economic condition	Increased income	Improved bargaining and self image	Increased	Improved relations with police	-----
Bread Makers	Improved economic condition	Improved income	Improved self image from organizational & economic success	Increased	(Government support)	International marketing