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WORKING WITH INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS:
A GUIDE FOR WOMEN-IN-DEVELOPMENT

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FOREWORD

Through time and across cultures the household has been the basic economic unit of society. It is here that humans are created and human attributes initially are developed through the productive activities of family members: the nurturance of one household member by another; the teaching of values, attitudes, skills; the day-to-day provision of food, clothing and shelter that sustain life. The development of human resources, the investment made by families in human capital, has been an overlooked aspect of economic development. Because these productive activities are so embedded in everyday living, they have been unrecognized and invisible; because they have not been a part of the market economy, not counted as part of the GNP (gross national product), household production activities have been devalued.

Economic paradigms have viewed productive activities as those occurring primarily in the market place while consumption activities have been viewed as the central focus of the household. These economic paradigms have obscured the productive aspects of the household, resulting in the devaluation of family work. Hence, household-oriented international development programs have been given little status and minimum funding.

Because household production is primarily the responsibility of women, household-oriented economic development programs have been viewed as "women's programs." They have tended to be developed in narrow functionalist terms as a rational response to the traditional needs of feeding, clothing, and sheltering people. This functionalist approach has raised the levels of living in the household, but it also has tended to rule out critical reflection on the distribution of wealth and power in society. Unwittingly, these programs may have increased discrimination of specific sectors of society particularly disenfranchising women and children.

Recently, economists, home economists, anthropologists, sociologists, and policy makers have begun to recognize the importance of the household sector to the social and economic development of a nation. Serious attention is being given to the critical impact that all economic development programs might have on the life chances and choices of people. International development projects are being assessed to determine possible outcomes of specific programs and/or policies on household members.

Early on, the Office of Women in International Development at Michigan State University has been involved in an advisement capacity in assessing the impact of international projects emanating from the University on the household sector. Special workshops are held to assist international project leaders, workers and researchers in assessing the possible impacts of their work in the life of family members.

Working with International Development Projects: A Guide for Women-in-Development, developed by Pat Barnes-McConnell and Dora Lodwick, is used as a guide in helping project advisors to assess the impact of a given project in the household sector. This is a pioneering effort, hence evaluations and suggestions of users of the Guide are welcomed.

Beatrice Paolucci
May 19, 1983

PREFACE

This Guide is the result of four years' effort by many people working together through the Project Advisement Task Force of the Michigan State University Office of Women in International Development. It has been a time characterized by the struggle to move a marginal perspective and group of people into the mainstream of sophisticated international development project networks. The process has included attempts to define how best to direct the personnel and resources of a major university in a highly industrialized country, the United States, to the service of women and families in Third World countries. This is a complex task in itself. There have been some successes and many learning experiences. The struggles continue, calling forth perseverance and tact from all who would join us.

We would especially like to thank Bea Paolucci, Nalini Malhotra Quraeshi, Mary Muller, Mary Pigozzi, George Axinn and Nukhet Kardam for reviewing previous drafts of this Guide. Nalini Malhotra Quraeshi was especially helpful in the writing of chapter one on women in development theories. These friends have offered important reflections and encouragement as we developed our thinking about project consultation and advisement. The final ideas, errors, and omissions, of course, are solely ours. Additional gratitude is extended to Sue Bengry, MSU/WID secretary for her outstanding performance and professional competence in the preparation of this manuscript.

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INTRODUCTION

This Guide is developed for use by Women in International Development (WID) trainees preparing to work as advisors or consultants¹ to international development projects. The purpose of this Guide is to provide basic historical and procedural information which may be helpful to colleagues anticipating future WID participation in international projects.

This Guide is not meant to be a substantive presentation of the complete theoretical and empirical knowledge that WID consultants need to master. Indeed, groups at Michigan State University and many other universities and institutions provide an array of experiences and resources to build this kind of knowledge base for the WID professional. Persons making use of this training Guide, which is an integral part of the Workshop which it accompanies, are expected to have availed themselves of such experiences and resources.

The philosophical orientation underpinning the development of this Guide acknowledges the integrity of the world's various cultures and affirms the interdependence between the societies of the industrialized and non-industrialized nations of the world. It acknowledges that international projects, designed to assist Third World countries, have had a tendency to concentrate on project outcomes which often have been antithetical to the best interests of "grassroots" citizens and especially destructive of the long-term survival skills of women and their families. The primary concern of project advisement is to reverse, or at least reduce, this tendency.

Through the Workshop and Guide, the M.S.U. Office of Women in International Development (MSU/WID) and its Project Advisement Task Force (PATF) emphasize the importance of the participation of persons from developing countries, the need for sensitivity to group processes, the critical requirement of a substantive knowledge base and the significant contribution made by an appreciation of the history and lessons from prior WID efforts.

There is a very serious omission in this publication. It is deliberate. As pointed out by a critical reviewer of an earlier draft, this Guide does not address the issue of how to become involved in the international development process (Muller, 1983). Opportunity for women to participate is difficult from

¹ In this Guide we are defining WID advisors as having a long-term relationship to the international project. The advisor's participation may or may not have been initiated by the project team.

WID consultants, on the other hand, usually have very task-specific functions and are associated with the project for a shorter time period. Their participation is usually initiated by the project.

a university base where contacts with development projects can be made but where decision makers often are not open to cooperation. Much more difficult is the problem for women in the field whose "contacts can be distant and limited." Evolving WID networks and communications systems are important resources to address this need.

In effect, this Guide and the Workshop, as they are used repeatedly in the training of Project Advisement personnel, become an institutional memory for MSU/WID and Project Advisement groups. They become part of the foundation upon which will be built the WID response to the challenge of project advisement carried out on behalf of women and their families throughout the world.

1. WOMEN AND INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

"Development" is a normative concept implying choices about goals for realizing human potential. Although few people involved in international development scrutinize their own concepts of "development," the assumptions and ideas underlying that concept are critical in their definition of problems and methods to be used in international development projects . . . and even in choosing whether or not to become involved in "international development" efforts.

Some recent examples of the concept include -

- * The famous Brandt Report which specified that " . . . the prime objective of development is to lead to self-fulfillment through a creative partnership in the use of a nation's productive forces and its full human potential" (Brandt, 1980:23).
- * Dudley Seers, from the Institute of Development Studies at Sussex, said that development is " . . . not primarily about per capita income, but also about distribution and even more about the national capacity to negotiate with transnational corporations and to cope with their technological innovations and their cultural impacts" (1977:6).
- * Soedjatmoko, Rector, United Nations University, said that development is " . . . a way to manage the transformation of society" (Soedjatmoko, 1982) while Ismail-Sabri Abdalla, Vice President of the Society for International Development, stated that it involves the " . . . capacity of any given society to renew itself" (Abdalla, 1982).
- * Bryant and White have called development " . . . increasing the capacity of people to influence their future" (1982:14). They continue by saying, "One often hears of development but observes the reality of underdevelopment. Poverty and its several aspects deepen; peasants continue to struggle for survival against landlessness; shantytowns spring up daily in urban areas" (Bryant and White, 1982:4).

Many theorists and practitioners have become increasingly aware of some of the negative impacts of international social changes. Women and children have been identified as one of the groups experiencing the cost of development. It was in response to this identification that women in international development arose as an intellectual as well as an action-oriented field.

Two major organizational levels from which emanate negative impacts of international development on women are: (1) at the macro level--the general structural transformation of societies as they become more industrialized and more integrated into the international system, and (2) at the mid-level--the specific international development projects that attempt to facilitate the transformation. The factors creating the negative social impacts from these two sources are understood best through the prisms of the analyst's concept of "development."

Social Impacts of International Development

There are many examples of the negative impacts of industrialization on women.

1. With industrialization, women have experienced a reduction in their access and control over natural resources. These resources include land, water, firewood (Elmendorf, 1981; Muntemba, 1982; Carr, 1978; Tinker, 1976; Staudt, 1979b; Rogers, 1980).
2. Women have experienced decreased access and control over other resources such as time, income, and technical knowledge. This is particularly true of lower class women as men become involved in cash crop production and receive technical information from extension agents. Women, without technical support, often have to increase their workloads in order to provide for the subsistence needs of the household unit (Staudt, 1982; Carr, 1978; Wily, 1981).
3. With increased migration of men from rural areas, women are carrying not only their own agricultural responsibilities and those of their children, as these children attend school, but also those of the men. These factors often expand their role as de facto household heads--though the women themselves may not claim to be heads of households but helpers and may shift some dependence to male relatives and neighbors (Staudt, 1982; Rogers, 1980; Deere, 1982).
4. Although there is some suggestion that increased industrialization provides more employment opportunities for women, those opportunities are often restricted to smaller and less modern firms.¹ Within larger firms, women are usually relegated to work with less modern technologies or they are simply displaced entirely from the market economy (Schuster, 1982b; Saffioti, 1983; Steel, 1981; Guilbert, 1970; Robertson, 1976; Cain, 1981; Tinker, 1976). Even when women retain their role as independent traders, much of the major negotiations, purchasing of inputs, and large-scale marketing of the commodity are increasingly conducted for them by men who have access to credit and marketing outlets in the modern sector (Robertson, 1976; Gallin, 1982).
5. Women continue to receive less educational training than men. This has increased their disadvantage as more employment opportunities become dependent on educational training (Gallin, 1982; Smock, 1981).

Structural changes created by industrialization create or reinforce such negative social impacts. Frequently, international development projects further contribute to the problem. The following are some examples of how projects, in particular, have made negative contributions to the quality of life of women and their families in Third World countries.

¹ This seems to be the predominant world pattern. However, it is also true that women are being used as cheap and docile labor by large, modern firms. For an examination of this phenomenon, see for example, Changing Role of S.E. Asian Women (1979), Salaff (1981), Wong (1981), Srinivasan (1981).

1. Historically, and even currently, international projects have provided non-formal training for women based on Western stereotypical perceptions of women as reproducers rather than producers. Homemaking skills such as hygiene, cooking, and craftmaking are emphasized even though the women are very critical contributors to the family's food and income producing activities. This latter role is often ignored altogether. When crafts training is designed to create income-generating activities, it is often given without a prior analysis of the market value of the craft or the craft's ability to compete with factory-produced substitutes (Rogers, 1980; Tinker, 1976; Wily, 1981). Technical agricultural training, which also would be relevant to female farmers, has been targeted primarily at males regardless of their actual participation in agriculture. The communication channels and schedules used to disseminate this training are primarily determined by males and generally not accessible to women (Rogers, 1980; Wily, 1981; Deere, 1982).
2. Where work roles are complementary, rather than identical, technologies which are introduced to alleviate general problems are often directed only to men's activities with little regard for how the use of that technology will affect the women who perform the complementary tasks without the help of improved technologies (Boserup, 1970; Muntemba, 1982).
3. As a result of the various ways in which international projects and social change organizations (national as well as international) favor men, women become increasingly dependent on men (Muntemba, 1982; Poole, 1975; Staudt, 1982; Wily, 1981; Schuster, 1982b). This increased dependence often occurs without the development of a social norm requiring men to be responsible for critical family needs. The expectation, particularly in some of the African countries, that women continue to provide for the basic needs of their families and themselves usually remains (Schuster, 1982a; Muntemba, 1982).

Thus, many of the negative social impacts of industrialization have increased women's powerlessness. Traditional resources have been taken away from them while new resources associated with industrialization have not been as accessible to them as to men. The distribution of these resources has been heavily influenced by the Western ideological bias towards men and by the traditional restrictions placed on women because of their reproductive functions.

Women and International Development Theories and Approaches

Many of the theories which currently guide international development efforts appeared at the end of WWII. The original modernization theorists have been criticized, amplified and modified by others.¹ This is also true of

¹ The modernization literature expanded rapidly in the 1960s. Some of the basic ideas of this theory include (1) developing nations, the unit of analysis, had poor conditions because they did not have adequately trained persons or appropriate institutions; (2) their elites should be trained in the West; (3) the benefits of development would then trickle down from developed to developing societies and from the elites to the masses for there was harmony of interests among all these groups; (4) development occurred as a unilinear progression. For a more complete analysis of the modernization paradigm by its primary proponents, see Rostow (1965), Lerner (1958), Inkeles and Smith (1974), Levy (1966), Harbison and Myers (1964).

the Latin American originated dependencia school (later called dependency school) which developed in the 1960s.¹ During the 1970s and 1980s, global interdependence and world systems approaches have been emerging.²

Many of the early theorists of both the modernization and the dependencia traditions ignored women, assuming that the effects of development and underdevelopment³ would be the same for all segments of a society (Tiano, 1981). This incorrect assumption has been addressed by scholars of both traditions who have created the women in international development (WID) literature.⁴

This literature grew rapidly in the 1970s, beginning with Ester Boserup's cogent Women's Role in Economic Development (1970). Subsequent writers built on critiques of the early modernization and dependencia schools starting with the assumptions of developmentalism and dependency.

The Developmental Paradigm:

Developmentalists responded to the failures of the first and second United Nations Decade for Development (1960s and 1970s) documented by (1) a lack of improvement in the lives of the poorer 40% of the people in countries undergoing rapid modernization (and, in many cases, increasing impoverishment in real and relative income), (2) burgeoning national debts, (3) continued high infant mortality rates, (4) exploding urban centers unable to provide basic services, (5) decreased food production, and (6) increased militarization of many countries. These failures created a crises for the modernization theoretical model on which programs had been based.

1 The dependencia theory is generally associated with Frank (1972). The primary concerns of this theory include: (1) the global system as the unit of analysis; (2) the primary cause of underdevelopment was external to the national society, created by expansion of capitalism; (3) conflict of interests predominates between international and national groups. The dialogue also includes works of Dos Santos (1970), Amin (1976), Beckford (1972), and Bodenheimer (1971).

2 The world-systems approach was articulated by Wallerstein (1974). Chase-Dunn (1975), Portes and Walton (1981), and several essays in Meyer and Hannan (1979) are others contributing to this tradition.

3 "Development" was used primarily by developmentalists, while "underdevelopment" emerged from the dependency paradigm as concepts associated with an interpretation of the reasons for the historical conditions of Latin American, Asian, and African countries.

4 Many of the WID writers have ignored much of the Western Feminist tradition by strongly repudiating Western Radical Feminism (Navarro, M., 1979; Black, 1981). They have, however, been part of the Marxist-Feminist, as well as the Socialist-Feminist, positions. For the Marxist-Feminist tradition, see Leacock (1972), Sacks (1975), and Saffioti (1977). For a Radical Feminist approach, see Firestone (1970), Redstockings (1978). Eisenstein (1979) critiques and synthesizes the two traditions from the Socialist-Feminist perspective, while Beneria and Sen (1981) apply it to an explanation of international development and underdevelopment. A general overview of all the feminist approaches can be found in Struhl and Jaggar (1978), while a synthesis of feminist and WID frameworks is found in Jaquette (1982).

Developmentalists modified the early modernization assumptions agreeing that development is not a unilinear model. There are many ways in which current Third World countries have very different experiences from those recorded in European history. Industrialization, development, Westernization, and democratization are distinct processes, both conceptually and empirically, heavily influenced by their respective contexts. Developmentalists have also focused on the uneven costs and benefits of social and cultural changes on different groups within a nation thus moving away from earlier assumptions that benefits would "trickle down" equally to all. This perspective is reflected in the focus of international development projects on the rural poor as the target population. Additionally, this perspective is reflected in the goals for reaching and integrating the marginalized rural and urban poor into the development process (Coombs, 1980; World Bank, 1980).

The developmentalists, who have become more strongly involved in issues of global interdependence, propose that rich countries share some of their wealth with poorer countries--including the technology and science. The emphasis is on growth with distribution.

Much of the women in development literature which has evolved from this theory has focused on the negative impacts of development on women--particularly on poor rural women (Boserup, 1970; Tinker and Bransen, 1976; Dixon, 1978; Staudt, 1979a; Dauber and Cain, 1981).

The WID critique of developmentalism has branched into two streams. The larger one proposes "integrating women into development," while the second suggests changing development to meet women's needs. This second approach is sometimes known as the "female-sphere" orientation.

The writers who propose integrating women into development have tended to stress the importance of having women work within the development framework for the success of the process itself (Germain, 1976/77). They have pointed to situations where development efforts failed because women were not considered. Boserup (1970:63-64) analyzed the case of Nigerian women who set fire to a neighboring market out of fear that they would lose their land to the male farmers who were working with European development specialists. Writers have also pointed to incidences where women refused to farm because they felt overburdened by the hand weeding which they had to do on larger and larger pieces of land which the men were bringing under cultivation with tractors (Muntemba, 1982). Scholars of this tradition have also stressed the importance of considering the family as the unit of analysis (Bould, 1982; Schultz, 1982).

Some writers have argued that there is no need to integrate women in development--they are already integrated and are being overburdened by development. The important thing is to recognize this fact and to provide support for their work (Papanek, 1981).

Those who propose changing development to suit women argue that women have a culture which is different from the male culture in that it values life, peace, local control, self-reliance, gentleness, etc. These value orientations are critical to the survival of humanity and thus must be incorporated into

development efforts, rather than incorporating women into a male-dominated system which stresses values inappropriate at this critical point in history (Boulding, 1977, 1981; Pietila, 1982; Rogers, 1980).

Furthermore, some studies suggest that women derive power and satisfaction from their separate spheres. However, the separate sphere arguments have been used, traditionally, by men to justify continued male dominance and the failure to include women into broader power positions (Jaquette, 1982:280).

The Dependency Paradigm:

There were two basic reactions to the dependencia theory of the 1960s. Some writers presented a more liberal dependency version and introduced issues which hadn't been explored by early writers of this tradition (Muñoz, 1981; Erb and Kallab, 1975) while other analysts critiqued dependencia for being insufficiently "Marxist" (Taylor, 1981; Laclau, 1971).

Within the liberal dependency tradition, several writers examined the impact of national dependency on women. Both Remy (1975) and Van Allen (1974) assessed how urban centers, which were created in response to some of the production needs of the dominant powers of the world, tended to exaggerate the powerlessness of women more than ever before. Capitalist economic development patterns have introduced or reinforced traditional structural inequalities within the urban economy.

Other writers explored the impact of colonialism on the position of women. Matsepe (1977) and Van Allen (1974) examined how colonial powers were able to pay miners such low wages because women working in subsistence agriculture could support the next generation of workers without needing any part of the miner's wages. However, Muntemba (1982) explored how the penetration of a colonial power, determined to exploit mineral resources, led to the dislocation of women's agricultural power base.

Attention to the use of women as low-paid laborers within multinational firms which produce goods to be used by dominant world societies is also part of this approach (Changing Role of S. E. Asian Women, 1979; Lim, 1981; Salaff, 1981; Wong, 1981).

D'Onofrio-Flores (1982) proposed that incorporating women into nationally defined productive activities will not necessarily change their subordinate position but may simply further exploit them. Women are kept as a reserve army of labor which can be pulled into or pushed out of the labor force as necessitated by the capitalistic cycles of boom and bust (Benston, 1969). Thus the mode of production as well as the development strategy are critical factors in determining the social impacts on women.

The Marxist Critique:

The Marxist critique of both the developmentalist and the dependency paradigms has led to a coordination of concerns between persons interested in women in development and in the Marxist-Feminist tradition of Western Feminism.

Engels (1972), who provided the analytic foundation for the Marxist-Feminist approach, proposed that the decline in the status of women occurred with the establishment of private property and with the evolution of the nuclear family as an economic unit of production. Women then became "wifely wards" helping to create surplus wealth (Sacks, 1975). Further extension of the Marxist-Feminist approach suggests that currently families are no longer units of production out of consumption and women specialize in that role.

Deere (1976) examined how women's unpaid and undervalued subsistence work reproduces and subsidizes capital accumulation. There are other ways women support capitalistic growth. They (1) reproduce and socialize workers for the capitalist system; (2) provide psychological support to buttress the hardships of the work force; (3) spearhead family consumption of items produced in the marketplace (Saffioti, 1977; Zaretsky, 1976; Eisenstein, 1979).

Deere and De Leal (1981) have used the Marxist framework to analyze the role of women in agriculture in three different areas of the Andes characterized by different degrees of capitalist penetration. They concluded that although the sexual division of labor appeared more flexible in the two agricultural areas which had greater capitalist penetration, both women and men tended to undervalue women's work. Also, as capitalist relations of production became more widespread, women became a smaller part of the wage market. They concluded that women's subordination in the production area reflected their subordination to men.

The Socialist Feminist Fusion:

The Socialist-Feminist criticism of Marxism is that Marxists subsume the "woman question" under a general critique of capitalism (Jaquette, 1982; Eisenstein, 1979). The contribution of this school is to analyze the combined effects of both patriarchy and capitalism, examining both the reproductive and productive bases for women's subordination.

Eisenstein clearly delineates the problem as being a system of power derived from Capitalist Patriarchy (1979:5). The nuclear family is the point at which both systems intersect. Patriarchy creates the hierarchical political system within society while capitalism feeds off of that ordering through the supportive role of women as consumers, reproducers, and cheap laborers. This situation of women is shown by Gallin (1982) in an historical analysis of the changing position of women in Taiwan. Though they are very active in the industrial sector, young women's power remains greatly circumscribed by their families which will eventually marry them off to serve another family unit.

Beneria and Sen (1981) critique Boserup's work from the Socialist-Feminist perspective emphasizing the importance of women's domestic and reproductive functions as a sphere which cannot be ignored--as well as women's productive functions--in examining the subordination of women. The conclusion of the Socialist-Feminist school is that women's oppression is based on an interaction of gender with race, class, and underdevelopment.

Contributions of Women in Development Scholarship

There are several ways that attention to women's responses to socioeconomic and cultural change has contributed both to the enrichment of the theories of social change and to the guiding of person's involved in international development activities.

A primary contribution has been to redefine the units of analysis. The empirical research of scientists within the women in development tradition has clearly indicated that it is inadequate to assume that nations, regions or subregions are sufficient units of analysis. Subgroups within the population are dissimilarly affected by socioeconomic and cultural change. Groups of people, who are structurally situated in different parts of society through their relationships to one another and to the production and political processes, will be differentially affected by change. Thus they need to be separately analyzed--women, men, children, ethnic groups, social classes, etc.

Furthermore, the household cannot be considered a unit while ignoring the relationships within the household, for age and gender are important in determining different life experiences (Beneria, 1982). The Western nuclear family model with a dominant, protective male household head cannot be accepted as a norm. Each configuration must be carefully examined on its own.¹

Several important concepts have been revised and expanded through the contributions of WID scholars. The traditional concept of labor, which has been too narrowly defined in the past leading to the invisibility of women's contributions, has been broadened to include not only wage labor and work done for exchange, but also unpaid labor and production for use within the informal segments of the economy and within the household (Arizpe, 1977; Jules-Rosette, 1982; Beneria, 1982). This broader definition will indeed show that women are already well integrated into development. They only need to be "discovered" and supported or "de-integrated" from their heavy work load.

WID scholars are exploring how the "public and private" spheres are integrally related to each other (Beneria, 1982). Traditionally, women have been assigned to the "private sphere" of the home while many of the visible economic production and political activities have moved to the "public sphere" outside the household. Men have traditionally operated within that sphere. Currently, the interpenetration of these arenas is being analyzed.

In addition, research methodologies include highlighting the importance of measures of time use rather than relying simply on measures of economic value.

Another contribution is attention to the importance of using research personnel who are culturally accessible to both men and women to obtain the perspectives of both. A related contribution is the underscoring of the different communication patterns and methods which exist between men and

¹For an interesting analysis of how a very fluid household structure affects the power of women, see Schuster (1982a).

women. These channels coexist but their complementarity is open to question. Research on this issue requires a great deal of sensitivity, even among those persons from the country of concern.

Finally, there are additional issues which have been strongly addressed within the women in development tradition. These issues have included: (1) the division of labor between the gender and social class; (2) the definition and consequences of different work patterns for women; (3) the type and functions of technology transferred among nations; (4) the types of training which are realistically articulated with the needs of the learners.

These contributions have policy implications for those who choose to become involved in planned social changes to ". . . increase the capacity of people to influence their future" (Bryant and White, 1982). Persons interested in international development cannot ignore the fact that over 50 percent of the world's population are women. Furthermore, the contributions of the women in development field have broader implications for strengthening human development efforts.

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2. THE POLITICAL CONTEXT

The World System

International development is a complex process. This process is frequently perceived in the U.S. as a hierarchical arrangement between a donor group and a recipient group. The reciprocal nature of the benefits and the costs are obscure. This misperception masks the interdependence of the relationship, in which each contributes to the other because of a direct or indirect gain held to be significant and important (Legum, 1983). For example, unaware Americans think of the food distributions of P.L. 480 to crisis-ridden developing countries simply as handouts to the poor. They fail to see the benefits to the U.S. economy this brings, for in reality this food is generally excess commodities held off the market to keep the crop prices high enough to pay back farmers the technologically expensive cost of production. Development efforts also: (1) build markets for U.S.-made goods and services (Francis, 1982; 1983), (2) attempt to support social stability in areas of the world militarily strategic to the U.S. (Newsom, 1981) and (3) make available valuable natural resources on which the U.S. economy depends (Hull, 1981). These benefits to the donor nation create the following advantages for the recipient country: (1) provide capital, technologies, and skills, and (2) help Host Country governments to placate restless, dissatisfied urban masses. The reciprocal benefits and costs of development processes are variously acknowledged and differentially valued by the many development theories and approaches discussed in Chapter One. The particular development concept guides the development professionals both in the donor and Host Country.

Recent criticisms of the European Economic Community (EEC) demonstrates that the self-interest phenomenon in international development is not unique to the U.S. (Zimbabwe Herald, 4/11/83:7). The Western-type food sent to developing countries is criticized as gifts to rid the EEC community of the surplus food produced by its 8 million farmers. This food tends to alter the recipient countries' consumption habits which builds a market for more such goods and also undermines local food production.

Within the context of global activities, governments attempt to institute planned change which will reinforce their interests. While the protagonists of planned change consider it international development (Gordon, 1980), critics of the processes and the outcomes frequently call it imperialism (Meillassoux, 1981; Navarro, V., 1979; Navarro and Berman, 1981). However, historical analyses of social change from the point of view of the poor majority in many countries suggest that, regardless of what the process is called and whether or not the West is involved, the outcome of the change process is frequently the same. The poor majority, including many Third World women and their families, are affected in profoundly negative ways. Even more broadly,

stinging indictments frequently have been made of development efforts in general as benefitting the elites of the rich and the poor countries at the expense of both rich and poor country underclasses (Newman, 1981).

For example, a recently completed bibliography (Adams, 1982) examines the hypothesis that, in designated geographic areas, as agricultural production increases there is a tendency for food consumption by the residents of that area to decrease. Another publication (Lunven, 1982) with a similar perspective explains that as cash cropping of small farms and credit to support it increase, the land available for food crops and thus local food availability declines--and prices go up. Because of increased credit and increased inflation, effective demand (e.g., spendable cash) may not increase. The nutrition of the children and likely the women in the cash crop growers' families is thus shown to be at higher risk than before the agricultural changes. However, the U.S. industrial management and labor beneficiaries of the "buy America" clause in U.S. development efforts (e.g., farm machinery, agricultural chemicals) are frequently better off. The clause, usually written into documents authorizing U.S. government funds for international development activities, stipulates that goods and services must be U.S.-made procurements from a U.S. vendor, or a government waiver is required. Similarly, international travel of the development consultants must be made on U.S. carriers (U.S. Agency for International Development).

The University Context

Similar to the complex interdependence which exists between the U.S. and Host Countries governments is the relationship which exists at the institutional level between development agencies and U.S. universities. In exchange for badly needed professional and technical personnel sent to assist Host Countries (for designated periods of time), development efforts bring important fresh intellectual perspectives and needed resources into university departments (e.g., outside funds, rich plant germplasm for agricultural research, etc.). Access to international development research also supports acquisition of prestigious professional positions in international organizations, and enriches academic curricula by opening avenues to increased understanding of contemporary social issues. Development efforts can provide professors with a long-term route to professional advancement, peer group recognition and a certain degree of professional autonomy including support for international travel, research supplies and equipment, and graduate student assistants.

However, within the university setting there are some disadvantages to being involved in international development such as (1) most of the advantages are available only to faculty with previously acquired rank and tenure, (2) teaching and personal life are enriched but also stressed as travel competes with other commitments and (3) without a critical mass of development colleagues similarly engaged, professional isolation pushes the individual to the margin of a faculty which previously was considered the academic home. As a general rule, professional power in the university is ensconced at the departmental level often dominated by firm protectionism. Attempts to get limited professional time invested in international development have had to deal with these phenomena.

The objectives of most development efforts are presented in altruistic terms. Indeed, most planners are truly concerned that their efforts bring favorable results to others. However, even when university departments have a strong commitment to international work, provincial self-interests of strong local or regional organizations such as private industrial or agricultural groups may dominate the efforts. Such interests demonstrate a concern for the home state first, the nation second, and concern for the international arena a distant third. For this reason, sometimes anticipated benefits to the donor countries and to the implementers have had to be clearly articulated and publicized at the outset.

For example, when a recent \$9.8 million international development program to increase peanut production and consumption in developing countries was awarded to the University of Georgia, the Georgia Peanut Commission, representing the Georgia peanut industry, was highly critical. The Commission Director, referring to the 16,000 Georgia growers his organization represents, stated that they were overwhelmingly opposed to this funding "of the competition." Supporters in the Georgia agricultural structure pointed to (1) the likely increase in peanut purchases from the U.S. once demand is increased (an important concern since U.S. peanut exports fell from 600 million pounds in 1981 to 300 million pounds in 1982) and (2) the increase in new germplasm availability from which drought, insect and disease resistance can be bred into U.S. varieties. This latter benefit to the U.S. is a compelling alternative to large crop losses or the reliance on increasingly more costly technical inputs such as insecticides and fungicides (The Tifton Gazette, October 19, 1982).

Since the university is a microcosm of the national and international arena, one can anticipate without surprise that there are many special interests and protectionist blinders. In addition, there are professionals who have dedicated their lives to the technical exploration of a small, narrow component of their discipline, rarely looking at the context or the broader implications of their work. Fortunately, at major universities there are usually male and female scholars who are sensitive, willing to push beyond the boundaries of their own disciplines and seriously contribute their skills to developing equitable responses to global problems.

Universities can provide a broad spectrum of disciplinary resources from which to address international development issues. The complexity of development issues, and the diversity within international environments, require access to basic and applied fields such as natural/biological sciences, social sciences, history and the humanities, education, management, agriculture, home economics and health sciences. Universities can provide richness through the integration of these many disciplines and thus are in a position to build more realistic and appropriate project teams. For example, at M.S.U., joint administrative arrangements can be exploited to provide such integration (e.g., the department of biochemistry is jointly administered by the College of Human Medicine, the College of Osteopathic Medicine, the College of Natural Science, and the College of Agriculture and Natural Resources and thus can be relatively easily drawn into integrated international health efforts). The successful universities are those which are able to marshal this array of resources in ways that are creative and effective.

An historical aside will illustrate the long-standing importance of a university system which is increasingly relied upon by U.S. foreign assistance agencies to provide personnel for international development--the U.S. Land Grant system. The Morrill Act, signed into law February 12, 1862 by President Lincoln, authorized the setting aside of public land for one college in each state whose leading objective was "without excluding other scientific and classical studies . . . to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts. . . ." These institutions became known as Land Grant colleges and universities. However, because of the existence of race discrimination in the U.S. at that time, a second effort was necessary. The Morrill Act of 1890, signed into law by President Harrison, authorized increased funds for the Land Grant colleges and specifically stated that no distinction of race or color was to be made but, where separate colleges for white and black students were maintained, this would be considered in compliance provided that the funds were equitably divided between the two races. Therefore, the black agricultural colleges, mostly in the South (and still today, for the most part, predominantly black), have been known as the 1890 Land Grant schools. Thus has developed the national agricultural higher education system. Agriculture played a significant role in U.S. higher education contributing to the evolution of a model frequently adopted in the international arena. The Agricultural College of the State of Michigan, established in 1855 on a farm near Lansing, became the Land Grant school for Michigan and is considered the pioneer school of the Land Grant system (Cochrane, 1982).

These 1862 and 1890 schools have become a powerful voice in U.S. foreign policy and assistance. They were among the first to respond to President Harry S. Truman who, in his 1949 inaugural address, set forth as a fourth point the national goal of aiding less developed countries. Among the first projects initiated under "Point Four" were two agricultural training programs, one to Africa and one to Latin America (Cochrane, 1982). The 1975, Findley-Humphrey sponsored, Title XII Amendment to the Foreign Assistance Act, the most recent achievement of this powerful group, sets up the structure for a stronger, more pervasive participation of Land Grant institutions in international development programs by establishing the basis for a long-term collaboration between these universities and the international agricultural interests of the U.S. government (Title XII Handbook, 1975).

Currently, a broad range of individual U.S. universities, and groups of universities (both those organized as formal consortia with governing structures and by-laws and those loosely and informally agreeing to work together), make up a vast human resource pool providing a range of personnel and disciplines for international development assistance.

Examples of major consortia of U.S. universities are as follow:

- * Midwest University Consortia for International Affairs (MUCIA)
 - University of Illinois
 - Indiana University
 - Michigan State University
 - University of Minnesota
 - Ohio State University
 - University of Iowa
 - University of Wisconsin

- * Consortium for International Development (CID)

California State Polytechnic University in Pomona	Texas Technical University
Colorado State University	University of Arizona
Montana State University	University of California
New Mexico State University	University of Idaho
Oregon State University	Utah State University
	Washington State University

- * Mid-America International Agricultural Consortium (MIAC)

Iowa State University	University of Missouri
Kansas State University	University of Nebraska

- * South-East Consortium for International Development (SECID)

1890 Land Grant Members of SECID:	
Alabama A & M University	Prairie View A & M University
Alcorn State University	South Carolina State University
Delaware State College	Southern University
Florida A & M University	Tennessee State University
Fort Valley State College	University of Arkansas (Pine Bluff)
Kentucky State University	University of Maryland
Langston University	(Eastern Shore)
Lincoln University	Virginia State University
North Carolina A & T University	Tuskegee Institute

1862 Land Grant Members of SECID:	
Auburn University	University of Georgia
Clemson University	University of Kentucky
Mississippi State University	University of Maryland
North Carolina State University	University of Tennessee
Pennsylvania State University	Virginia Polytechnic Institute
University of Florida	and State University

Other Member Institutions:	
Duke University	Research Triangle Institute
Georgia Institute of Technology	University of North Carolina

The labyrinth of political pressures created by the complexity of U.S. governmental, institutional and individual interests, as well as the additional pressures created by Host Country governments, institutions and individuals, reinforces the caution, sensitivity and skill required of the WID professional. Universities, such as Michigan State University, with strong international studies and programs structures and resource persons can provide important supports, as even cumbersome, and sometimes drawn out, organizational policies and procedures can be used to strengthen the WID position.

The Michigan State University System

As the pioneer Land Grant university in the nation, Michigan State University made a major commitment to an international perspective when the university-wide Office of the Dean of International Programs was established in 1956. In order to emphasize the equal importance of international research, development efforts and of the international perspective in all areas of study,

the name was changed in 1970 to the Office of International Studies and Programs. After 25 years of growth, the international dimension of the University, as guided by this unit, was reaffirmed in 1981 when an all-university review committee voted to encourage the continued expansion of this dimension throughout the units of the institution rather than to establish a separate international school within the University. Thus, Michigan State University has evolved a decentralized institutional response which encourages broad faculty and student participation in internationalized academic studies on campus and strong contributions to appropriate programs abroad including institution building, training, research and development efforts. Reinforcing this commitment are (a) area and international studies units, (b) administrative service units, and (c) international program activities and procedures which concentrate on development assistance to countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America (Michigan State University, 1982-1983).

Area and International Studies:

Area and International Studies are for the most part administratively under the Dean of International Studies and Programs but maintain close connections with cooperating departments and colleges. They are as follow.

- * African Studies Center--One of the largest and most comprehensive in the U. S., the Center maintains a small but substantive in-house library and documentation collection supporting instruction and research about African societies, politics, economics, languages, literature, health, education, and agriculture. The Center also coordinates outreach programs, undergraduate and graduate certificate programs, short-term involvement by visiting African scholars to the M.S.U. campus, exchange programs with participating African universities, participation in appropriate activities by a core group of more than 50 M.S.U. faculty with principal interest in Africa. The Center maintains an active publications series.
- * Asian Studies Center--Concentrates primarily on East Asia (China and Japan) and, to a limited extent, South Asia. At the University the Center encourages research and teaching including the development of undergraduate and graduate curricula. In greater Michigan it encourages activities associated with media, business, labor and the performing arts. The Center maintains an association with a core group of 39 faculty, administers exchange agreements with academic institutions in Asia, and supports an active publications series.
- * Latin American Studies Center--Committed to the promotion of education in Latin American Studies, the Center coordinates an undergraduate program, maintains a file on graduate research opportunities in Latin America, supports publication efforts and establishes links with Latin American institutions for the exchange of faculty and students.
- * Canadian-American Studies Committee--Sponsors faculty and student exchanges with Canada, coordinates curricula concerned with Canadian history, society and culture, and encourages a better understanding of Canadian-American relations. A cognate in Canadian Studies has been developed.

- * Middle-East Studies Committee--Encourages study and research on issues related to this area of the world including the ancient Near East (Mesopotamia, Assyria, Egypt and ancient Israel) and Islamic territories from North Africa to Pakistan.
- * Russian and East European Program--Coordinates courses and facilitates a range of campus-wide activities including lectures and films. Organizes inter-disciplinary offerings.
- * Western European Studies Program--Administered by James Madison College, it coordinates appropriate courses from across campus, language study (including a disciplinary course in which the appropriate non-English language is used), a research paper, and an overseas internship.
- * Center for Advanced Study in International Development (CASID)--Promotes and coordinates across area study programs and the activities of students and faculty from a social science perspective. The Center is concerned primarily with international development, encouraging undergraduate and graduate instruction, and multidisciplinary research. The 185 core and consulting faculty are based in academic units throughout the campus. Multidisciplinary, issue-oriented interest groups. Seminars, conferences and publications are supported.
- * Office of Women in International Development (WID)--Concentrates on gender-sensitive scholarship, research and service within the context of international development and social change. Multidisciplinary groups of women and men, students and faculty converge around development topics which influence the quality of life of women and their families in developing countries. There is an active publication series. Project advisement is an important function of this group.
- * The Non-Formal Education Information Center (NFEIC)--Associated with the College of Education, it seeks to serve program planners, practitioners, and researchers concerned with the generation and use of knowledge about nonformal education and development. The Center functions as a clearing-house for resources, conducts research, publishes, and facilitates an exchange of ideas and project information. Highlights of the Center's work include The NFE Exchange, topical annotated bibliographies, occasional papers, an NFE resource collection, training workshops, and a special focus relating to women in development. Technical assistance is provided to organizations in Africa, Asia and Latin America.
- * Additional major internationally oriented academic units which maintain substantial international instruction and research include the language teaching departments, various departments in the College of Agriculture and Natural Resources, the departments of Political Science, Anthropology, Sociology, and Geography, units in the College of Education, international affairs in James Madison College, and many others.

Administrative Service Units:

Administrative Service Units represent an array of support and coordinating functions available to the colleges and departments on campus.

- * Office of the Dean of International Studies and Programs--Facilitates the decentralized international program activities, collaborating with other Deans in coordinating and motivating international programming. The Dean's Office represents the University's international interests with domestic and international organizations, agencies, institutions, and consortia. With the assistance of the Advisory/Consultative Committee this Office reviews and advises the development of M.S.U. international projects, studies initiatives, student and scholar activities, and other related concerns.
- * Office of International Students and Scholars--Serves non-U.S. students and visiting international scholars and plays a special support role for many sponsors. Maintaining a roster of over 1400 non-U.S. students, many of whom have accompanying families, the Office deals with such critical issues as funding of international students, visas, housing, academic program liaisons, and other support functions.
- * Overseas Study Office--Complements on-campus courses by facilitating study opportunities abroad through the joint auspices of various academic units, International Studies and Programs, and Life-Long Education Programs.
- * English Language Center--Offers intensive English courses for M.S.U. students requiring additional training to perform successfully in their academic programs. The Center aids in determining language proficiency of non-native speakers of English.
- * International Library--Houses large collections on Africa, Asia and Latin America. A unique unit is the Sanel Documentation Center which provides important and extensive resource material to scholars concerned with the drought-stricken countries of Africa.
- * Overseas Support Office--Is a resource on matters related to international transportation, health hazards, immunization requirements, international exchange and financial flow, certain international food and lodging facilities, international contracts and grants arrangements.
- * Contract and Grant Administration--At the M.S.U. Vice-President level, is responsible for the financial operations of contracts and grants to the units of the university. It assists faculty (1) prepare proposal budgets, (2) negotiate grants, and (3) submit financial reports.
- * Institute of International Agriculture--Administered through the College of Agriculture and Natural Resources, is the communications and coordinating link between development agencies concerned with agriculture and other related units of the University. This office is significant to the WID Project Advisement Task Force as information on many of the international development project requests comes through this office from an array of international donor agencies.

International Program Activities:

International Program Activities at M.S.U. have been evolving over three decades with active international development assistance, teaching and research in many countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America and in Europe and North America. These activities have been supported through the sponsorship of major foundations, various branches of the U.S. government, as well as of international agencies such as The World Bank, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO). The University has assisted Host Countries establish complete institutions of higher education as well as helped develop component teaching and research programs within existing institutions.

Overseas operations in any given year are extensive. At the end of 1981 M.S.U. was active in (1) over 52 projects in 31 countries, (2) 4 regional projects and (3) 4 additional worldwide programs. Examples of some of the multi-country projects are:

- * "The Comprehensive Resource Inventory and Evaluation System" (CRIES), whose major objective is to help developing nations systematically assess their natural resources production potential (by using satellite remote sensing), operates with seven countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America.
- * "Collaborative Research on Parasitic Diseases in Sudan" is a medical research program on major water-borne parasitic problems of humans in the Sudan, with wide implications for the tropical world.
- * "The Off-Farm Rural Employment Project" enhances the ability of the U.S. and Host Country institutions to identify and implement programs and policies that generate off-farm employment and income opportunities benefiting the rural poor. It operates in 3 countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America.
- * "The Bean/Cowpea Collaborative Research Support Program" (CRSP) management office at M.S.U. coordinates 18 individual research projects involving 9 lead U.S. institutions and 13 Host Countries in Africa and Latin America. The program is concerned with increasing the production and consumption of beans and/or cowpeas where they are a staple in the diets of the poor.
- * "The University Center for International Rehabilitation" (UCIR) enhances international cooperation in resolving rehabilitation issues in programs of research, training and dissemination/utilization within the international professional community. Working directly with the special centers of the National Institute of Handicapped Research, UCIR research provides a basis for recommending solutions to identified needs in other countries. Its programs exist in both Western and non-Western countries.
- * The International Extension Training Program of the Michigan Cooperative Extension Service (which was established at M.S.U. as a required component of a Land Grant University) provides support and staff training to (1) prepare Michigan extension personnel to work in developing countries and (2) increase the awareness of Michigan citizens about international development issues. Campus and field training as well as outreach programs

facilitate these functions organized through four extension services: 4-H, Agriculture, Family Living, and Natural Resources/Public Policy. These four services offer the educational resources of M.S.U. to the public via the Cooperative Extension Service offices in all 83 counties of Michigan.

Women in International Development at MSU

In the fall of 1978, a small group of male and female, faculty and graduate students began meeting to organize a formal WID presence on the M.S.U. campus. The seven persons¹ who made up the original group had been concerned about Third World women and their families from the point of view of their respective disciplines and academic units for some time. For example, faculty from the College of Human Ecology, with direct experience in international programs and research, had observed the systematic disenfranchisement of women and children as a result of certain development efforts and the contribution this made to the low status, low self-esteem and limited support of women. In addition, earlier that year, the M.S.U. Non-Formal Education Information Center and the African Studies Center had hosted a "Women in Development" seminar workshop that brought to campus 17 African women to participate in an African Leaders Program. However, an integrated university-wide effort had yet to be organized. Faculty from each of these units were among the founding group of MSU/WID.

Several national and international events influenced the development of the small group's efforts in this direction (Tinker, 1982b). Following the 1970 publication of Ester Boserup's The Role of Women in Economic Development, alerting the scientific community to the previously neglected roles of Third World women, the 1973 Percy Amendment committed U.S. foreign assistance to giving special attention to the integration of women in development efforts. This amendment paved the way for the September 16, 1974 establishment of the AID Office of Women in Development.

At the international level, the 1975 World Conference of the International Women's Year in Mexico City provided a forum for scholars and government officials to define critical issues perceived by Third World women and to establish procedures for addressing them. The following year began the United Nations Decade for Women which was dedicated to devising strategies to resolve the issues identified at the Mexico City Conference. One such strategy, developed in the U.S., was the Tucson Conference on Women and Food, held in January 1978. The Conference highlighted the significance of both the women and food issue and the need for groups to become more assertive in their WID activities. The Tucson initiative provided the impetus for an August, 1978, national WID workshop funded through a grant from the AID Office of Women in Development to the University of Arizona. The workshop, held in Washington, D. C., was organized by Kate Cloud of the University of Arizona to build WID networks in the Title XII (Land Grant/Sea Grant) institutions around the country. Through the Title XII legislation, these institutions were expected to play an increasing role in AID-funded development projects and thus needed

¹George Axinn, Pat Barnes-McConnell, Joan Claffey, Dora Lodwick, Bea Paolucci, Janet Rogers, and David Wiley.

to be prepared to be more responsive to the Percy Amendment. The administrators of International Programs at M.S.U. responded to the workshop invitation and sent a faculty representative, Pat Barnes-McConnell, to that three-week meeting. The ideas and materials generated became the catalyst for the organization of the small group at M.S.U.

From the beginning, it was clear that the fledgling group had the moral support of the Dean of International Studies and Programs. Indeed, one of the original seven, George Axinn, was an Assistant Dean in that program. Thus, routine organizational resources, such as the typing of meeting notices, flyers, letters and later a telephone on a small desk in a tight corner, were made available through his support. While no budget was made available at that time, the Dean of International Studies and Programs subsequently did agree to assign a half-time graduate assistantship to WID. Access to these basic resources added a significant dimension of legitimacy to the small group which was critical for its rapid development locally and its recognition nationally.

Early in the process, several issues had to be decided, not the least of which were the purpose of MSU/WID and its organizational structure. In order to attract additional members and to plan an effective operational strategy, a clear statement of purpose was enunciated. This statement was developed over several months and finally published in one of the M.S.U. newspapers, The M.S.U. News Bulletin (February 1979), as one mechanism to attract new members to help carry out the mission. Simultaneously a campus-wide questionnaire, organized by the WID group, was distributed to faculty and graduate students to identify the range of WID interests and experiences on campus. The respondents were subsequently encouraged to join the activities of the original group. A shortened version of the 1979 statement of purpose is as follows:

The Office of Women in International Development seeks to encourage efforts to understand and employ approaches to international development that are more equitable and responsive to the needs of women. The Office is thus concerned with both the generation and application of knowledge to better realize the productive contribution of women, especially of low-income rural women, and to enhance the quality of their lives.

In the generation of knowledge, we strive to understand the changing roles of women in the societies in which they function as individuals, as family members, as participants in larger organizations, and as contributors to the social order. In the application of knowledge, we hope to assist women, particularly those in the most disadvantaged segments of their societies, in becoming what they themselves see as desirable.

In partnership with others who share these concerns, particularly in Third World countries, we seek to direct the resources available to us to the complex problems of women in a developing world. Our efforts involve research and teaching, training and technical assistance, communication and institutional development.

After much discussion, the group decided to organize on the basis of task forces. The initial ones organized were: Library, All-University Activities, Curriculum, Research, and Project Advisement. These task forces were all staffed by university faculty and students on a voluntary basis.

- * The Library Task Force--Originally made up of three people, went through the various libraries at M.S.U. and compiled an index of their collections relative to WID. The group dissolved when this task was completed and their product was made available to the university community. The library resources function has continued through a Reading Room established by the Office. Some journals, donated articles and papers, critical books and the MSU/WID Working Papers are available for use in the Room. The Office also provides xeroxing facilities for those who care to copy specific materials.

The Non-Formal Education Information Center also provides a rich resource of WID-relevant materials in its library collection. It also allows the use of these materials in the library area and has a xeroxing service.

The All-University Activities Task Force--Was charged with the responsibility of educating the campus community about key WID issues. There was a great deal of turnover within this group. Eventually, two all-day WID conferences were held at M.S.U. in 1980. The first was an effort which brought to campus several nationally known WID specialists to participate in setting long-range goals for the MSU/WID program. A second conference held jointly with the M.S.U. Foreign Student Office entitled "Collaborative Research: For Whose Benefit" brought together leading M.S.U. faculty and international students concerned with the evolution of long-term research relationships between the faculty and the international students. While this Task Force no longer formally exists, groups convene to plan and organize specific functions such as the 1982 national conference on "Women, Health, and International Development." Other smaller campus-wide functions are planned by the WID Office staff.

- * The Curriculum and Education Task Force--Combed the course catalogues, curricula syllabi and talked with faculty, searching for courses related to WID. Previous work done by the M.S.U. Women's Studies group was most helpful in this effort. Eventually a list of such courses was compiled and made available to interested persons.

Two courses were then developed which strengthened the knowledge base of M.S.U. faculty and graduate students. An interdisciplinary course entitled "Third World Women: Economic Development and Socio-Cultural Change" was offered to graduate students in 1980 and a ten-week faculty seminar on "Women in International Development: Theories, Strategies, and Policies" occurred in 1981. Later, faculty-scholar awards, funded by the Ford Foundation, allowed faculty to have released time to integrate WID issues into their courses. This mechanism has been successfully used to support faculty development in the WID area and resulted in integrating WID materials more broadly into the M.S.U. curricula.

The group, although relatively small at any given point in time, continues today with persons representing a range of areas moving in and out of its activities as responsibilities permit. The group is presently writing proposals to strengthen the WID educational potential at M.S.U., building on the curricula development efforts begun by the faculty who received released time awards to study how to integrate WID issues into their curricula. The group also cooperates with the M.S.U. Non-Formal Education Information Center in identified areas.

- * The Research Task Force--Supported scholarly achievement as an important product of university communities. It became increasingly apparent that academic stature and respect for WID were forthcoming only to the extent that professionally valid research and publications grew out of WID activities. Study groups, seminars and research discussion groups led to the development of graduate student dissertation research awards specifically directed to WID issues, funded by a Ford Foundation grant.

The Task Force evolved into a series of study groups much like evening seminars. These groups organized a series of topics with limited material to read for each week's discussion. Held at the University, these sessions were heavily attended by graduate students attempting to enunciate dissertation or thesis research related to WID.

Day-time seminars, roundtable discussions, and WID fora, which feature both local and outside speakers were also developed.

The research function continues today through a loosely organized series of groups: Fireside research discussion groups on identified research topics (primarily involving faculty from many disciplines), research conferences and conference follow-up groups, and the continuing roundtable seminar series.

Furthermore, several professional papers have developed from faculty and students associated with the WID Office, both with the encouragement of the WID Working Papers and independent of that series. For example, WID persons from MSU/WID, NFE and Iowa State University cooperated on the development of a chapter concerned with the "Professional Integration of Women" for a book entitled Guide for the Professional Integration of Students from Developing Countries sponsored by AID and the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (Figozzi, et al., 1983).

- * The Project Advisement Task Force--Was charged with integrating WID issues into international projects which emanate from M.S.U. This represented a major commitment because of M.S.U.'s history of international involvement.

The first major achievement of this group was the successful inclusion of identified WID issues as variables in the formal M.S.U. project review process. Added to the forms, required of all international projects reviewed by the Advisory Consultative Committee and the Dean of International Studies and Programs, were two questions regarding project impact on women and families and regarding inclusion of women in project activities. These two documents became the foundation and legitimacy of the Project Advisement Task Force.

A second major achievement grew out of the first. Encouraged by sponsors AID and the Title XII policy guidelines, the Bean and Cowpea Collaborative Research Support Program planners invited the involvement of the WID Project Advisement group. The Program was to become one of the largest agricultural programs ever received by M.S.U. but lacking in the planning efforts were persons who could help address social issues, particularly those having to do with women. The WID group, with nutritionists and social scientists concerned with project impact, could and did fill that role. The involvement eventually resulted in the designation of a Washington-approved, WID-specialist position in the Program Management Office, the involvement of seven U.S. professional women in the various projects, and the additional involvement of women in the participating Host Countries.

Various other international projects have been enriched through the inclusion of WID-sensitive research tools, WID appropriate project plans, WID-trained team members, and other relevant resources.

Project Advisement has been viewed by M.S.U. persons and those outside the University as a powerful and workable activity which has made a difference in project functioning and has contributed to the national and international reputation of WID in general. The Project Advisement Task Force continues its activities with training workshops based on early experiences. These workshops are frequently organized in collaboration with the Non-Formal Education Information Center at M.S.U.

Other task-oriented groupings and activities have evolved as necessary, with the support of the WID Office. Most of them, beyond the originally defined and surviving task forces, have been temporarily disbanded after their tasks were completed.

* Community Service--Is another important facet of MSU/WID activity. MSU/WID has confined its community service role, primarily, to co-sponsoring outside speakers with units whose goals are similar to its own, e.g., the M.S.U. African Studies Center, the Lansing Peace Center, the United Nations' Association of Michigan. Persons associated with MSU/WID have also been very active in such activities as in international extension and Peace Corps training. There have been several exceptions to this trend:

- A limited number of organizational internships for Third World women, which provided a less formal avenue to community organization, management and administrative skills than classroom work, were funded through the Ford Foundation. At the same time these interns were making important contributions to their community placements. This initiative has proven most successful and extremely popular among the women eligible for these internships.
- Minimal support for the Lansing Indochinese Refugee Center has also been possible by funding the printing of a Center brochure organized by the Indochinese refugees. A WID intern assisted in the design and writing of the brochure with this group. This brochure is being used by the Center to search for outside funds independently and jointly with MSU/WID members who are interested in refugee issues.

- * WID Communications Activities--Early in the history of MSU/WID it was apparent that a forum for the dissemination of scholarly theoretical and empirical works advancing WID knowledge was needed.

Thus evolved the highly successful Working Paper series which has published works of authors from all over the world. By the end of the year 1982, over one hundred manuscripts were reviewed by the Editorial Board, and fourteen papers, representing a variety of WID-related topics, disciplines and author nationalities, were published by the WID Office. Order forms listing these Working Papers and instructions sheets for submitting manuscripts are available from the WID Office.

A newsletter is also published and distributed nationally and internationally by MSU/WID on a quarterly basis.

In addition, the men and women associated with MSU/WID over the four years of its existence have generated a growing list of professional publications which they have produced both individually and with one another.

- * Networking--Is another significant function of MSU/WID. Working within its own university structure, within the formal consortium to which M.S.U. belongs (MUCIA), and informally with other collegial groups within the U.S. and abroad, MSU/WID is an active participant in the international development process. The MSU/WID MUCIA liaison is the contact person to the consortium's WID office and is a significant communications link between MSU/WID and the wide variety of consortium activities. MSU/WID maintains active communications with other universities outside of its consortium and works with them as appropriate. These WID groups throughout the nation join in encouraging development leaders to be more responsive to WID issues. Communication is maintained internationally through travel, dissemination of publications, and correspondence with M.S.U. graduates.

As a result of all of the activities reported above, in 1982 the WID professional staff has grown to nine paid people, including four faculty persons, and an assortment of volunteers, some of whom are students who have chosen to do their required academic internship in the WID Office. An Advisory Council, composed of faculty and graduate students from many University departments, advises the Office staff regarding policy and programmatic issues.

The primary functional divisions within the Office include: (1) the Publication Series, (2) project advisement, (3) research and education. The over 700 members associated with the Office participate in WID activities as they are guided by their interests and resources. Newsletters, announcements, phone calls, informal and formal meetings, quarterly membership meetings, and Advisory Council meetings are all functions supporting MSU/WID.

With the financial support of the M.S.U. Dean of International Studies and Programs, grants from AID, a Title XII Strengthening grant, and the Ford Foundation, along with the institutional support of M.S.U. colleagues, greater strides are being made toward meeting the stated objectives as presented in the original MSU/WID Statement of Purpose.

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3. SELECTED POLICIES

Elections have been won or lost on issues of land reform and Governments have toppled because of their policies on employment, but no Government now in power stands or falls on its policies towards women (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:15).

Policies are both an expression of what is considered "right" by leaders in an historical political context and a guide to legitimate action for those who would claim those rights. During the 1960s and 1970s, persons forgotten by traditional development efforts became part of a new focus on people-oriented international development. Women became a very visible component of this orientation (Tinker, 1982a). The new-found sensitivity was buttressed by grassroots and national pressure groups, which led, in the 1970s, to a veritable explosion of statements relating to women's rights.

The statements referring to women ranged from those made by international systems, such as the United Nations bodies, to those of university committees and local women's organizations. Currently, there are few countries which do not have an official statement regarding the rights of women (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:27). Though policy statements abound, there are many problems associated with their implementation.

One of the major difficulties of enforcing the policy statements is that women have not had an organized worldwide constituent group to create adequate pressure on decision-makers. Thus few governments have enforcement mechanisms for their women-relevant policies (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:27).

WID advisors and consultants are part of the constituency creating pressure on various institutions to support their WID policies. The policy statements provide legitimacy for the actions of the WID professionals and reciprocally the policies gather strength from actions carried out in their name.

The following list of policy statements are necessarily incomplete for statements are being made at innumerable institutional levels--wherever organized sensitivity to women's needs and rights has developed. It is particularly important for the WID advisors and consultants to become acquainted with the policies of their Host Countries and to become similarly acquainted with the orientations of the specific groups which interact with the project.

World Policies--the United Nations

Although 1975 marked the establishment of the United Nations Decade for Women with the International Women's Year World Conference in Mexico City, there were important activities occurring in 1974. Two relevant international conferences to be noted were:

- * The United Nations World Population Conference (August, 1974) dealt with primary aspects of women's roles but failed to focus on the important contribution of women's rights in speeding changes in fertility behavior.
- * The World Food Conference (November, 1974) also dealt with critical aspects of women's roles and passed resolutions sensitive to women's rights. The only item which did not emerge from this Conference, which was to appear the following year, was the issue of women's rights in land reform (Palmer, 1980:8).

The second round of important activity in 1974 addressed the United Nations system, specifically.

- * Various resolutions were passed by United Nations' bodies urging priority consideration for integrating women into every aspect of program and project formulation, design, implementation, and evaluation.

Thus, the stage was set for the formal opening of the United Nation's Decade for Women.

- * The "World Plan of Action for the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace (1976-1985)" and a "Declaration on the Equality of Women and Their Contribution to Development and Peace" were adopted at the International Women's Year World Conference in Mexico City in 1975.

There were many diverse Plans of Actions adopted at the Mexico City Conference which were to strengthen efforts supporting the status of women. These Plans of Action also stimulated international activity to resolve problems created by socioeconomic structures subjugating nations as well as women. Areas highlighted for action included: education and training, employment (including women-headed households' needs), access to health, nutrition, and other social services, safe water and sewage supplies, inputs for women in food production, safe housing, and women's rights to decide on number and spacing of their children. The critical contribution of this Conference was to underline some ways in which the status of women depends on many other interlocking parts of their worlds (Palmer, 1980:5). The regional commissions of the United Nations were given special responsibility for further specifying and implementing the Plans of Action.

- * Habitat: the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements was held June, 1976.

The main theme of this Conference was that human settlement policies should be part of overall development planning. Strategies and planning methods were to include a focus on the elderly, the handicapped and children; but women, the caretakers, were generally subsumed under the rubric of "family." Women were highlighted in suggesting more equitable land ownership patterns and participation in planning. However, few specific recommendations were made about how to facilitate their incorporation while being sensitive to women's special needs--such as for child care centers. The attempts made to insert stronger women's components were not successful (Palmer, 1980:10).

- * Also held during that year was the Tripartite World Conference on Employment, Income Distribution, Social Progress and the International Division of Labour (June, 1976).

This Conference was the result of research and analysis done over many years by the World Employment Programme of the International Labour Organization. Although there were many places where the Conference could have included strong statements regarding the position of women, very few statements were made. There was a call for the abolition of every kind of discrimination in work, pay, and training and for more favorable work and living conditions to relieve women's drudgery. However, when specific action recommendations were made, for example in the wage policy section, rarely were women mentioned. There was, however, a recognition of the link between lack of basic needs satisfaction and the resources available to women. The basic needs approach ". . . remains the single most important umbrella under which women's special interests . . . has been raised by the international community" (Palmer, 1980:14). Thus the importance of this Conference was its analysis and evaluation of the basic needs delivery system.

- * In 1977 two more conferences were held, the United Nations Water Conference (March, 1977) and United Nations Conference on Desertification (August/-September, 1977).

Although both of these Conferences were concerned about areas critical to women, there was little recognition of this fact. There was little discussion about the competition between the commercial and the household sectors' uses of water or how that affected women. Although there was a recognition of the relationship between domestic water supplies and health, there was no mention of integrating women in planning water supplies to avoid health hazards and water carrying burdens. Of the numerous recommendations passed at the Desertification Conference recognizing the relationship between desertification, food production and nutrition, only one mentioned women. That one mentioned women's responsibility as fuelwood gatherers and recommended that they be consulted on the acceptability of any new devices introduced into the area, trained in their management, and encouraged to find productive use of any freed time.

- * A World Conference to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination was an important addition (August, 1978).

In the Conference Declaration, the status of women was clearly acknowledged: ". . . whenever there is racial discrimination, women are often doubly discriminated against; consequently special efforts are called for to eliminate

the effects of racial discrimination on the status of women" (Palmer, 1980:18). Governments were called to address the social imbalance created by racist and colonialist regimes, between the genders.

- * The United Nations Conference on Technical Cooperation Among Developing Countries (September, 1978) and the Primary Health Care Conference (September, 1978), on the other hand, missed a significant opportunity.

The emphasis in the Technical Cooperation Conference was on technical experts, consultants, and reversing the brain drain of those who had studied in other nations. It basically ignored women--both in its recommendations and in its composition. The Primary Health Care Conference, also, carefully refused to recognize gender differentiation, although it did call for greater involvement by men in health, community health systems, and in practical health care (Palmer, 1980).

- * The World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development issued a declaration of principles on the "Integration of Women in Rural Development" (July, 1979).

This Conference, promoted by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations, provided the best example of a serious examination of the status of women's issues in a world-based organization since 1975. There were some indications, however, that the regional bodies of FAO did not fully accept the policy orientations from headquarters (Palmer, 1980). For the first time equal rights to land title or control in land reform was recommended. This recommendation grew out of the recognition of drastic alterations which often occur to women when the land is solely in men's names. Other highlighted recommendations included: (1) equality of legal status--establish rights of inheritance, control of property, ownership of land and other productive assets, membership and voting rights in organizations such as tenants' associations, labor unions, etc.; (2) access to rural services--provide nondiscriminatory access to existing delivery systems for agricultural inputs, social and economic services, special training in extension and nontraditional fields, and broaden the range of agricultural training programs to include women's roles in production, processing, preservation and marketing; (3) educational and employment opportunities--insure equal opportunities and provide fee structure incentives for girls and women's school attendance and training, equal wage rates for equal value, non-formal educational opportunities for women in various areas and evaluation of women's employment and income opportunities in relation to the introduction of new technologies.

- * The United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development (UNCSTD) passed a Resolution on "Women, Science and Technology" (1979).

The Conference acknowledged the negative impacts which technologies often have on the earning power and status of women. It invited participating nations to facilitate equal distribution of the benefits of science and technological developments to women and men, the participation of women in decision-making processes, and the equal access to training and professional careers for women.

- * The "Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women" was adopted by the U. N. General Assembly 18 December 1979.

This comprehensive Convention went into effect, due to ratification by over 20 nations, on 3 September 1981. It defined discrimination against women as being ". . . any distinction, exclusion, or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other fields" (United Nations, A/RES.34/180, 1979). Measures were specified which governments could take to eliminate discrimination in many areas including political and public life, rights to nationality, education, employment, health, marriage and family. Rural women's rights were underscored as were efforts to eliminate stereotypes and to suppress prostitution.

This document even proposed that member states modify any of their traditional practices which discriminate against women. The Convention further responded to questions about discrimination against men as a result of measures taken to raise the status of women. For example, special actions for accelerating de facto equality between men and women or protection of maternity functions were not considered discrimination.

- * The "Programme of Action for the Second Half of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace" was adopted by the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women (30 July 1980).

In evaluating the progress made towards meeting some of the Decade's goals, the Conference highlighted the fact that many countries had accepted the integration of women into development as a planning objective and that several had passed legislative and constitutional provisions promoting equal rights of women and men. However, the de facto situation of women, particularly in the "backward sector," was worsening--to some extent due to the world economic crisis. Priority areas for action determined by the Conference members were in employment, child care centers, job training, part-time job benefits, maternity leave, and access to non-traditional skilled trades for women. In health, some priority areas included providing preventive health care; full participation of women in developing health care systems; special attention to the elderly, the disabled and to women living alone; preventing domestic violence and sexual assault. In education and training, literacy, education against violence between men and women, encouraging girls to stay in school longer and to choose from among a range of career options were some issues highlighted.

"Special attention" priority areas included: food, rural women, child care, migrant women, unemployed women, women heads of household, and young women.

- * A series of Resolutions and Decisions Referring Specifically to Women were passed by the UN General Assembly in 1981.

- Resolution 36/74 endorsed a proposal for a comprehensive worldwide survey of women in development to implement the recommendation of the Programme of Action for the Second Half of the UN Decade for Women.

- Resolution 36/172 condemned apartheid and appealed for increased assistance to women and children oppressed by that system.

National Policies---General

Since 1975 there has been an enormous growth in the number of national policies concerning the rights of women. Since it is impossible to review all of them, this section will summarize a United Nations report evaluating women's rights in 77 member countries and review examples of national policies. The subsequent section will explore some of the policies relevant to international women's rights as defined in several U. S. policies.

Most of the governments which responded to a United Nations investigation of national women's rights reported having constitutional or legislative provisions guaranteeing equal rights to women and men. The nations which qualified that response were San Marino, Peru, Dominican Republic and Sierra Leone. Sweden, India, and Pakistan not only guaranteed equal legal rights for women and men but allowed for special treatment of women to insure their rights. In several countries, comprehensive review of existing legislation was occurring--United States, New Zealand, and Greece (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:18).

Most countries had remedies and/or sanctions for dealing with violations of equal rights of men and women. The primary ones were judicial remedies through general, civil or industrial courts. Since 1975 some countries have developed special bodies, in addition to the courts, to deal with discrimination. These countries include: Canada, Union of Soviet Socialist Republic, England, Norway, Iceland, Australia, New Zealand, and Sweden.

Several nations were making concerted efforts to enhance women's awareness of their rights. The measures taken included mass media campaigns, publication of pamphlets and booklets, seminars and conferences, education by women's organizations, and using legal advice offices to educate the populace. Some countries claimed widespread illiteracy was a barrier to effective efforts.

Generally, countries reported that civil law prevailed when there was a conflict between civil and customary and/or religious laws. Minor qualifications to this statement were given by England, Spain, and the Philippines. Pakistan, on the other hand, was the only country reporting that religious law prevailed when there was conflict between civil and religious laws (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:20).

Specific rights were also explored. (1) Rights over property--Although most governments claimed equality of property rights, there were considerable variations. European and African countries claimed equality in property rights while India, Nepal, and the Philippines qualified that statement. In Haiti and Bolivia married women needed their husband's authorization to buy or sell property. (2) Legal capacity--Most countries claimed equal legal capacity for men and women. The exceptions were Ivory Coast, Mauritania, Mauritius, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Swaziland, Togo, Tunisia, Haiti, Honduras, and Ireland. (3) Right to movement--The exceptions to equality in this right were given by

Australia, Philippines (married women had to follow the husband's residence), Mauritania, Senegal, Swaziland (married women could only move with the consent of the husband), Turkey (husband chose residence), Ireland, and Honduras.

Laws related to marriage were also explored: (4) Consent to marriage--Generally there was equality in this area, although a few countries restricted women's right to refuse marriage. (5) Rights during marriage and dissolution--Many reported equality but several reported inequalities. In Turkey, one adultery could be grounds for divorce from a woman, while a man had to have a proven long history of cohabitation before divorce would be granted to the woman. Egypt and Kenya mentioned the responsibility of husbands for supporting wives and children. In the Philippines husbands were the "superior authority in marriage" and in Pakistan differences were due to Islamic law. (6) Minimum age of marriage--Generally the age was lower for women than for men. (7) Parental rights and duties--Great variations occurred in this area. Children born out of wedlock were generally placed in the women's care. (8) Family name--Many differences were reported in women's rights to retain their family name. (9) Penal codes--There were great variations particularly regarding adultery or crimes related to adultery, with women being more harshly treated than men (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980).

Many governments established administrative and institutional mechanisms to implement their policies. The nature and effectiveness of the mechanisms varied according to the socioeconomic and political system of each nation and to the type and amount of support received from the government.

Some broad characterizations can be made, however, of the institutional mechanisms: (1) Units were established within the formal executive, legislative or judicial branches of the government. (2) Advisory or consultative bodies were created either within or outside the formal structures of the governments. (3) Units were created within or affiliated with national political parties (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:4). Often, more than one pattern was used.

In non-socialist economies, the first two patterns tended to prevail with formal units within government bureaucracy being predominant among Third World nations. Six countries, however, did report ministries with the responsibility for integrating women into national life (Bangladesh, Ivory Coast, Mauritania, Paraguay, Togo and Venezuela). The use of advisory and consultative bodies predominated in industrialized non-socialist economies. The United States reported having over 150 such groups.

Socialist countries used units within or affiliated with the national political party as the predominant mechanisms for supervising and implementing national policies. The usual socialist practice is to integrate women into the total governmental structure. For example, in 1976 the Soviet Union established standing deputy commissions on women's working and living conditions and mother and child care at all levels of state authority and administration (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:5).

In reporting on the accomplishments of the institutional mechanisms, most countries reported data collection and publishing. Other accomplishments included: (1) establishment of several programs or projects for women, explicit mention and/or participation of women in national economic planning; (2) promotion of legislation to advance equality; (3) publicizing of women's rights; (4) increased participation of women in decision-making and policy positions (Bangladesh, Denmark); and (5) creation of a forum for women which acted as a sounding board for government policies and plans for women (Australia, Ireland).

Of the thirty-seven countries specifying the institutional mechanisms developed to support women's policies, nineteen were associated with the social or welfare sectors of the government with only six (Guinea, Honduras, Iraq, Lesotho, New Zealand and Sri Lanka) having them in the planning and development sectors. This structuring of the political mechanisms related to women's rights may reflect an institutionalization of the "welfare approach" to women's issues (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:11).

These are examples of the types of policy information which are fairly easily accessible to WID advisors and consultants. It is no longer valid to assume that no information is available about the rights and roles of women.

National Policies---The United States

In the United States, there are various policies not only related to the rights of women within the nation, but also governing the relationship of its foreign aid to the rights and roles of women within other countries. The latter policies are especially important for WID advisors and consultants working with international development projects associated with the United States.

- * The "Percy Amendment," Section 113 of the Foreign Assistance Act of 1973 (Public Law 93-189) was a landmark in U.S. policy.

The "Percy Amendment," section 113, reads:

Section 103 through 107 of this Act shall be administered so as to give particular attention to those programs, projects, and activities which tend to integrate women into the national economies of foreign countries, thus improving their status and assisting the total development effort.

Sections 103-105 specify areas of aid: food and nutrition, population planning and health, education and human resources development. Section 106 refers to "selected development problems"--transportation, power, industry, urban development and export development.

- * Agency for International Development, issued "Integration of Women into National Economies," PD-60 (16 September 1974).

This policy determination affirmed that the Agency would implement the Percy Amendment by consciously including relevant concerns for women in all of its programs and projects. The field missions, offices, and bureaus of AID

were charged with integrating women as both agents and beneficiaries into the mainstream of the Agency's programming.

AID's role in relation to Host Country governments is contained in Principle 3.d of that document:

The central responsibility for integrating women into national economies rests with LDC governments. While AID can play an important catalytic role in both the international arena and in countries where it has assistance programs, real progress requires Host Country commitment. Developing countries often have very different social, cultural, and family relationships from those of the U.S. Any intrusion into these relationships is a most delicate matter--only to be attempted with adequate knowledge and understanding of the existing manners and mores of the people. Accordingly, the role of AID should, as in other areas, conform to the collaborative style.

- * Follow-up guidance was provided in "Program Guidance for FY 1980," AIDTO CIRC A-168 (6 April 1978).

This document outlined programmatic themes to be emphasized in all sectors of AID activities. Women in Development was one of the six themes. Support for specifically women-oriented projects, women's organizations, training opportunities, and rural women were again key concerns.

In order to integrate women into projects which did not have a women-specific focus, the document strongly encouraged integration of the women in development concerns into the project at the earliest possible stage--at the conception of the project or, at the latest, in the design stage.

- * Further integration of women was supported by the AID "Policy Paper on Food and Agricultural Development" (1982).

There was an emphasis on ". . . expanded productive employment and incomes of men and women who at present lack the purchasing power to obtain adequate food" (1982:2).

In this policy determination, the role of training for women was very salient in preparing them for their roles as agricultural producers, workers, and family food providers. Greater efforts were called for to expand opportunities for women to serve as administrators, scientists, technicians, extension workers and other food and agricultural professionals.

- * The Agency as a whole was charged in the AID "Policy Paper on Women in Development" (October, 1982).

The 1982 AID/WID paper stressed the importance of increasing women's productivity through increasing women's access to resources. The following resources were emphasized: (1) education and training for productive work; (2) labor and time-saving technologies which were acceptable and accessible to

women; (3) policy reforms or experimental programs to demonstrate ways in which women could enter non-traditional types of work; (4) health care, family planning, potable water, nutrition to support women's child care and family health care functions; (5) research in intra-household dynamics of division of labor, distribution of resources and decision-making, income needs and sources for males and females, women's contributions to agriculture, fuel and water needs and sources, and de facto female-headed households. As with previous WID policies, these themes were to be implemented through the Agency's work in collaboration with Host Country governments.

University Policies---Michigan State University

Although U. S. universities have a long history of policies relevant to women's rights, only a few of them have also developed policies and mechanisms related to women in non-U. S. nations who are recipients, either directly or indirectly, of programs and projects based at the universities. Michigan State University has established relevant policies and procedures.

- * "Policy Guidelines for International Activities of Michigan State University" was established by an advisory committee made up of representatives of all the colleges of Michigan State University (Revised May 2, 1979).

The policy guidelines were developed by the Advisory/Consultative Committee to the Dean of International Studies and Programs. They are used in evaluating the international development projects and activities in which M.S.U. is engaged. Item 3 calls for an examination of the potential effects of international projects and activities on women and children in Host Countries. Item 4 emphasizes including women scholars in international projects.

- * "Information Concerning a Michigan State University International Project" (February 17, 1981)

The Advisory/Consultative Committee to the Dean of International Studies and Programs uses this form in reviewing international projects. Item 10 requests documentation of ways in which women and minorities are included in planning and implementation of the project. Item 11 requests examination of long-range effects of the project on women, children, and on family life.

In reviewing the various statements made by policy-making bodies about the rights and roles of women, it is apparent that issues of values, attitudes, and culture are integral parts of the pronouncements. They remain at the center of many of the challenges faced by WID professionals.

Selected Policy Issues

Value Issues -

Elise Boulding (1981) has gone to the very heart of WID policy efforts by suggesting that the integration of women in development will simply make women more dependent on a male-defined world. Another criticism is that efforts to encourage equality of rights for women around the world are arms of Western

imperialism (Germain, 1976/77; Tinker, 1982a; Rogers, 1980). This is usually juxtaposed with claims that Westerners have no right to interfere with traditional roles of women in Third World countries. Many Third World women strongly reject the characteristics which they perceive in Western Feminists' advocacy--egocentrism and individualism among women who make their families pay for their self-aggrandizing needs (Tinker, 1982). These points of view are significant reasons for choosing not to work as a WID advisor or consultant.

Rejection has also been a response to some common development efforts which are based on Western-stereotyped assumptions about the needs of women. Examples of such efforts include: (1) Training in methods of Western nutrition, sewing, health, and child care based on the assumption that women spend most of their time at home raising children--the reality is, however, that many women spend most of their time in the fields, in the markets, or on the streets trying to gather resources. (2) Training in making tourist-targeted crafts which can't compete with mass-produced items or which are simply too expensive for the local market. (3) Projects which demand volunteer labor with little regard for the tremendous overload of work which most women carry (Rogers, 1980).

Tinker (1982a) has proposed that women's situations are changing dramatically all over the world with few "traditional" roles remaining. These changes often increase women's powerlessness. Attempts to reduce the negative impacts of the changes may be facilitated by more realistic involvement of Third World women.

Western WID advisors and consultants must learn to LISTEN to the diverse voices of Third World women. Those voices are shaped by their contexts and historical experiences as well as by the international development projects. They must be the guide in determining appropriate development goals for women in Latin America, Asia, and Africa. This is increasingly critical as there is a growing emphasis by Third World leaders on their own religious or national distinctiveness. "If the promise of modernization is not kept, more pressures may be exerted to ensure that women keep their proper place" (Tinker, 1982a:9).

Another frequent challenge to WID professionals is the position that development problems must be solved first and then the problems of equality, rights and benefits for women (Germain, 1976/77; Tinker, 1982a). This issue appears, dramatically, as countries such as Australia and Israel cut back their programs supporting women's rights because of the worldwide recession and a consequential hardening of attitudes towards the situation of women (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:11). Lack of funds was the obstacle to progress in women's rights mentioned most often by countries responding to a United Nations survey (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980). Tinker (1982a) reinforces the idea that the "money crunch" will have a strong restricting influence on women's rights efforts.

Palmer (1980) documented a decreasing number of statements referring to women's rights in the various United Nations conferences from 1974 to 1979. Tinker (1982a) suggests that the only way WID issues will survive is by

" . . . reframing the questions of women's participation [in development] within important sectoral issues . . . [thus WID becomes] . . . the changing roles of women and men as development proceeds" (Tinker, 1982a:14).

This suggestion is contrary to the orientation most governments have shown in containing the units responsible for women's policies within the welfare divisions of their bureaucracies (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:10). These divisions are some of the first ones cut during hard economic times for they are viewed as being "non-productive." Governments may not allow women's concerns to be integrated into broad sectoral policies. For example, in one country the advisory and consultative bodies were dissolved when units attempted to link women's problems with broader socioeconomic issues beyond the welfare sector (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:11).

Cultural, social and religious attitudes which discriminate against women, reinforcing prejudices and stereotyped roles were mentioned as obstacles to implementing governmental policies concerning equality of women (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:11). Strong socialization practices with rigid gender role definitions which vary cross-culturally by class, ethnic groups, place of residence, context, etc., are difficulties to be faced (Germain, 1976/77).

There is also a strong expectation that women will be "more moral" than men in many cultures (Tinker, 1982a). Oftentimes changes are viewed as being immoral--just as international development specialists sometimes have viewed non-Western behavior as being immoral (Rogers, 1980). It is important that WID advisors and consultants be aware of these issues and their meaning within the specific geographic and subcultural context within which they work.

An attitude sometimes found both among development planners and among Host Country nationals is that employment of women will exacerbate unemployment problems (Germain, 1976/77). In reality, however, women are already employed--primarily in the informal sector which generally has very poor working conditions. They are also de facto heads of household in approximately 35% of the world's households.

Illiteracy has been a barrier to implementing WID policies Bangladesh and Cameroon representatives (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:9). Considerations of this barrier can guide the choice of methods and the channels of communication used to implement the policies.

These are only some of the more salient and crosscutting values, attitudes and cultural orientations which challenge WID advisors and consultants. The extreme diversity of class, ethnicity, subnational groups, marital and age norms must be acknowledged in the realities of an international development project. These locally based orientations are there to guide those who listen.

Structural Issues -

A common complaint among nations attempting to implement policies supporting women's equality is the lack of skilled personnel needed to work in the units responsible for the policies (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:9).

This is partially the result of some of the ambiguities currently inherent in the field of women's rights.

WID professionals are sometimes accused of not being really interested in Third World women's concerns but of seeking to advance their own careers. This is due to the dual thrust of the field--to increase women's participation in every decision-making level and also to increase the knowledge base about changing situations of women throughout the world.

Because of men's historical lack of knowledge and sensitivity to many of these issues, women have been the primary ones to populate the units responsible for implementing women's rights. In fact, Dixon (1980) indicated that there is a much higher accountability to women's concerns in international development projects which have women personnel. Tinker (1982a) suggests that the "affirmative action" thrust must continue as long as men and many women have a hard time taking women's issues seriously.

The cost of this, however, is that such positions are often viewed as secondary and an impediment to personal career advancement. Therefore many women, as well as men, refuse to become part of such policy-implementing units (Tinker, 1982a:10). This is an issue which can be resolved only with increased regard for the rights of all humanity.

These issues are reflected in another complaint identified by some of the governments--the lack of executive power or of political support to implement women's rights policies (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:9). This, of course, is a reflection of the amount of political power which women are able to command. Political structures respond to political constituents and, as long as women remain private but not public constituents, public structures will not respond.

Palmer (1980) underscores the need for constant watchfulness in reporting that the United Nations conferences which included substantive statements about women had intensive lobbying groups working on their preparatory committees. In examining the progress of women's issues throughout the conference processes, often ". . . early acceptance of some women's issues gave way to later modification or elimination of this material, even when it was acknowledged to have merit" (Palmer, 1980:37). This is also true on national and local levels.

There is danger in treating the establishment of the institutions mandated to represent women's interests as proof of substantive commitment, requiring little or no further action, commitment of funds or political support. . . . The proliferation of institutions can . . . through the bureaucratization of initiatives and the marginalization of grass-roots efforts, reduce or neutralize the effectiveness of women's attempts to influence the development process (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:12).

It is critical that the policies and institutions relevant to women's rights become instruments for furthering equity for women rather than for lulling women and men into complacency.

Acknowledging a Constituency -

From the previous analysis it is quite apparent that formal policies and institutional mechanisms are deadening without an external acknowledged constituency which creates political pressures to reinforce and maintain the policies. Women's organizations have been proposed as one such constituency.

Autonomous women's organizations exist in all nations. They have been instrumental in creating national and international policies (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980; Tinker, 1982b) as well as other forms of social, political, and economic liberation (Bergman, 1975; Urdang, 1979; Flora, 1982). They are critically important in countries where there are no formal institutional mechanisms charged with monitoring and developing women's rights.

Women's organizations are important in: (1) mobilizing people at many levels to influence international, national, regional and local policies, plans and programs; (2) monitoring and evaluating the policies, plans and programs and in initiating independent programs; (3) acting as a forum to provide a support network among women, raising their consciousness and training them to work in the public arena; (4) providing a resource base for social, economic, and political action.

Although women's organizations have experienced some success, they have generally limited their activities to welfare issues rather than becoming engaged in the broader struggle for social transformation . . . except for some groups involved in liberation movements and within many socialist countries (United Nations, A/CONF.94/11, 1980:15). The organizations often limit their activities to the interests of their upper or middle class members thus not reflecting the concerns of most of the women in a society.

An example of a coalition of both elite and worker women's organizations, which was able to represent a cross-section of the women in a society, occurred in India in 1980. This coalition developed a symposium on "Indian Women in the Eighties: Development Imperatives" which was ". . . to insure that women's needs and expectations receive due representation within the Sixth Five Year Plan" (Varadappan, n.d.:1).

The women's organizations which formed the coalition were the National Federation of Indian Women, the YWCA of India, the YWCA of Delhi, the Centre for Women's Development Studies, the Indian Federation of University Women's Associations, the Janvadi Mahila Samiti, and the All India Coordination Committee of Working Women (Varadappan, n.d.:4). Other participants included government officers, representatives of international agencies involved in programs for women's development, other women's organizations and media representatives.

The following rationale was given for the symposium:

Contrary to general expectations, research revealed that the condition of women, particularly of the masses of poor and rural women, has been declining over the last few decades,

as indicated by trends in the sex ratio, economic participation, migration, and health and educational status. The rising wave of crimes and violence against women provoked an outburst of women's anger and protests across the country (Varadappan, n.d.:1)

Within the government, some rethinking of the policies and programs relevant to the situation of women was also occurring in response to the research results and the anger of women. Thus, this was a propitious time to create additional political pressure on the Indian government.

A member of the National Planning Commission was invited to address the Symposium and to respond to some of the criticisms of the Sixth Five Year Plan made by members of the Symposium. He called for the assistance of women's organizations and other institutions to operationalize the needed programs, ". . . to improve management of development programs to prevent wastage of scarce resources" and to provide a link for participation of women at the grassroot level (Varadappan, n.d.:4).

Some of the recommendations made by the Symposium participants to modify the Sixth Five Year Plan included:

4. . . . unless explicit provisions for the imperative developmental needs of women [particularly in the areas of employment, health and education are] made in the Sixth Five Year Plan, the conditions of women will continue to decline, notwithstanding Constitutional pledges of equality and justice and the parliamentary mandate for removal of disparities and discrimination.

Recommendation: A. . . . Replacement of Family/Household approach in Programme thrusts by explicit mention of women as a target group . . . [because] Programmes developed on the basis of family/household approach will reinforce the perspective of women's economic role as marginal and supplemental . . . bypass women in transferring technologies . . . ignore child care service needs . . . insure little security to agricultural women and children with the increasing incidence of desertion, divorce and eviction of women and children.

Recommendation: B. . . . Introduction of a 'Special Component' approach with earmarked resources in all sectoral plans and programmes . . . and separate monitoring arrangements. . . . This is especially needed in programmes designed for accelerating rural development, credit dispersal to weaker sections and promoting employment opportunities . . . expand the cadre of female extension workers in new areas of technology and credit promotion. . . . The special component approach is necessary . . . to create the awareness among planners and development administrators that women have some additional constraints.

Recommendation: C. and E. . . . Provision of network of child care centres within the minimum needs programme. . . . Emphasis on Maternal and Child Health and Family Planning as a special component within the primary health care plan . . . the surest way to achieving the national objective of the small family norm is women's economic and social emancipation.

Recommendation: D. . . . Expansion of Training opportunities for women particularly in agriculture and agrobased industries, and nontraditional (i.e. nonstereotyped) and more skilled industrial occupation and trades.

Recommendation: F. and G. . . . Adoption of physical and time targets to reduce male-female gaps in literacy and elementary education. . . . Promoting Values of Sex-Equality within and through the Educational Process.

Recommendation: H. . . . Development of field cadres and innovative and empowered agencies within the Government to assist in formulation, implementation and monitoring of special component programmes for women's development.

Recommendation: I. . . . Improving enforcement of existing laws for the protection of women and women workers, and women's access to legal remedies . . . establishment of Family Courts . . . free legal aid and counseling services for women, dissemination of information on legal rights and responsibilities among women . . . change methods of wage fixation and its payment in agriculture and other unorganized occupations to eliminate discrimination and to insure that the wage reaches the women. . . . (Varadappan, n.d.:213).

When the Sixth Five Year Plan was published, it included an emphasis on specific attention to women . . . as "one of the most vulnerable members of the family" (Women and Development, n.d.:4). In education, a need to change textbooks, teaching aids, and home science teaching so that " . . . the concept of symmetrical families can take root" (Women and Development, n.d.:4) was specified. Streamlining admission policies for greater enrollment of women in engineering, electronics, agricultural, veterinary, fishery and forestry courses was indicated as were additional scholarship programs for girls.

Maternal nutrition programs, increased use of local people such as widows or deserted women for delivery of health services (and associated training), and increased training facilities for nurses were outlined.

Public works projects, armed forces, modernization of traditional women's occupations (spinning, weaving, agriculture, etc.) while monitoring the impact of mechanization on women's employment and child care centers were all mentioned as employment strategies for women.

Furthermore, the Equal Remuneration Act would be reviewed and appropriate measures taken to insure that women's wages/salaries would be equal and go directly to them. Increased apprenticeship training opportunities for women would also receive special attention (Women and Development, n.d.:410).

In summary, the major thrust of the VI Plan in the field of welfare of women is their economic upliftment through greater opportunities for salaried, self and wage employment. . . . However, the improvements in the socioeconomic status of women would depend to a large extent on the social change in the value system, attitudes and social structure prevailing in the country (Women and Development, n.d.:10).

Even when there are policies and programs within the government which support the equality of women as well as active women's organizations outside the government which create a constituency heard by government, there are still plenty of issues to be addressed. Women's work is never done??!!

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4. PROJECT CYCLE

In order to be effective, the WID professional not only needs to understand the issues discussed in previous chapters (e.g., relevant theories, policies, and political contexts) but also the complex configuration of the organizational procedures of universities working alone or in consort with equally complex donor organizations and the resources available to the WID group. Active project advisement also requires one to be particularly knowledgeable about the life cycle of a project within that context and the resulting demands that accompany each phase.

Different funding agencies have different requirements within their project cycle. For example, the World Bank, whose funding is usually in the form of loans to Host Countries, operates with six formal phases in the project cycle: (1) identification, (2) preparation, (3) appraisal (by the Bank staff assessing technical, institution building, economic and financial aspects), (4) negotiations and Board presentation, (5) implementation and supervision, (6) evaluation (Baum, 1978).

Rondinelli (1979), looking specifically at the World Bank, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) and AID, presented a twelve-stage project cycle through which nearly all projects evolve: (1) project identification and definition, (2) project formulation, preparation, and feasibility analysis, (3) project design, (4) project appraisal, (5) project selection, negotiation and approval, (6) project activation and organization, (7) project implementation and operation, (8) project supervision, monitoring and control, (9) project completion or termination, (10) output diffusion and transition to normal administration, (11) project evaluation and (12) follow-up analysis and action (which may lead back to a new #1 as above). Private foundations frequently have somewhat simpler procedures.

Criticisms of the extensive donor requirements emphasize the heavy burden they place on developing countries which tend to have small administrative staffs. In addition, the complicated procedures often cause costly delays in project activity (Rondinelli, 1979). However, when the substantial detail of careful planning is omitted, inefficient and wasteful project activities may result--a loss which can be extremely expensive (Gittinger, 1982). To the extent that the WID advisor can facilitate the process, s/he becomes an important member of the project team and likely will be expected to contribute to the writing of project documents and reports. Core components of the process are discussed below.

The Planning Phase

Preplanning:

A project begins at a preplanning stage when various persons, motivated by external requests and/or self-interests, create the germ of a project idea. While the initial idea may emanate from one person or several, a thinking-through or brain-storming period allows for the exploration of: (a) identified needs, (b) existing strategies addressing those needs, (c) available resources (human, physical, financial), (d) desired outcomes, (e) long-range ultimate goals, and (f) possible plans of action.

Exploration of the above points is not always, and perhaps not even often, done formally. The process may involve only one person. However, persons working with project development teams usually encourage an open process involving an array of colleagues in the total discussion. Quite a bit of the thinking and communication, sometimes over long periods of time, may go on before actual negotiations with a donor agency begin. This is particularly likely when the projects are evolving directly from within the developing countries themselves, such as is especially encouraged by various organizations of the United Nations (e.g., UNICEF). Some of the donor agencies of individual Western countries also emphasize that the initiation for the projects should come from developing countries (e.g., International Development Research Corporation [IDRC] of Canada).

When the project evolves from professionals within the donor country, it will presumably be based on identified developing country needs. In this case, the project can grow in response to Requests for Proposals (RFP's) from the donor agencies. A project can also evolve from an unsolicited proposal submitted directly to a donor by a professional who documents needs and resources in accord with donor agency priorities. Ideally for these projects, Host Country nationals are involved as early in the process as possible.

In recent years AID has developed a process called a "logical framework" (Logframe) which creates a more structured orientation to the above process.

The Logframe is organized around a 4 x 4 matrix which gives the framework for presentation of (a) narrative summary of project, (b) indicators (criteria to indicate goal achievement), (c) means of verification (data to be used to judge criteria), and (d) assumptions (presumed "givens" on which the above plans are based) as related to the (a) overall goal, (b) project purpose, (c) outputs, and (d) inputs.

Theoretically, when done correctly, there is not only a well-developed operational plan for the project but an evaluative tool as well, which is useful throughout the project. While Logframes can be a very valuable tool, they are the most valuable when used in clearly defined settings with objective methodologies and well-understood outcomes. On the other hand, use of Logframes in cross-cultural settings addressing socio-cultural phenomena requires a great deal of caution because definitions of the variables listed above (e.g., indicators, means of verification and assumptions) are culture bound, value laden and frequently difficult to perceive. An shortened example of a Logframe from one of the Bean/Cowpea Collaborative Research Support Program projects is shown below.

BEAN/COWPEA CRSP MALAWI PROJECT LOGFRAME (Shortened Version)

NARRATIVE SUMMARY	CRITERIA OR OBJECTIVES INDICATORS	DATA NEEDS OR MEANS OF VERIFICATION	ASSUMPTIONS OR REQUIRED "GIVENS"
<p>GOAL</p> <p>Analysis of the biological/social bases for the maintenance of bean diversity in Malawi</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Significant factors in each subarea (genetic, agronomic, sociological, cultural) identified 2. Factors concerned with production, distribution, utilization and consumption identified 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Identification of relevant ecological zones 2. Farm household observations and surveys 3. Field and greenhouse studies on Malawi beans 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Biological/social data can be collected on the same farm households in each region 2. Residents, especially women, will cooperate 3. Biological/social data can be integrated in a comprehensive analysis
<p>PURPOSE</p> <p>Provide information necessary to develop a viable bean improvement program supportive of small farmers, especially women and their families in Malawi</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Survey and observations of small farm households throughout production cycle 2. Bean collections from each area throughout production cycle 3. Resident reports of socio-cultural factors 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Multivariate analysis of data generated 2. Description of bio-social environment 3. Definition of roles of family members in farm household life cycle and the maintenance of diversity 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A national bean program can help the bean farmers of Malawi 2. Residents, especially women, will cooperate 3. Bio-social data can be integrated in an analysis
<p>OUTPUTS</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Comprehensive report of analysis of bean diversity within context of farm family system 2. Recommendations for bean improvement plan for USAID, GOM and Bunda 3. Important contributions to relevant literature and Bean/Cowpea CRSP 4. Increased numbers of Malawian scientists trained 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Multiple copies of report available for distribution 2. Report used by GOM in conjunction with Bunda College to develop long-term bean program for Malawi 3. US and Malawi scientists publish jointly in appropriate journals 4. Graduates from identified graduate programs 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Computer printouts read and interpreted in relation to all other available data 2. Findings disaggregated by geographic region, point in production cycle and gender 3. Extensive notes kept by US and Malawi scientists throughout process 4. University records 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Such a report can be valid, useful and appropriate 2. Positive use will be made of the information in support of small farm families 3. Information from this project will be useful to others 4. There are potential students prepared and available for advanced training
<p>INPUTS</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Materials, supplies and equipment 2. Survey and data gathering trips including collecting seed samples 3. Greenhouse and field space for multiplying and studying plants grown from the collections 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Landrover, motorcycles, bicycles, irrigation and greenhouse equipment 2. Trained team of Malawi female researchers to gather socio-cultural data 3. U. S. researchers on site collaborating with Malawian scientists 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Approvals requested received, equipment purchased 2. Personnel at appointed locations with support materials and logistics in order 3. Necessary approvals received, research plan begun 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Necessary materials either available in Malawi or can be transported into country 2. Women to be hired and trained are available 3. Project personnel are compatible and can work together

Other documents used in the AID system and the purposes of each are as follows:

CDSS (Country Development Strategy Statement) - Prepared annually by the USAID Mission, this document summarizes in about 50 pages, the Host Country's social and economic development status; progress and constraints to development; the Host Country's development plan and resources, and the USAID Mission's overall and sectoral assistance strategy, within the framework of current AID/Washington policy and guidelines.

PID (Project Identification Document) - Prepared by the USAID Mission in collaboration with Host Country counterparts at any time the need becomes evident, this document outlines in about 15 pages, the description, rationale, and estimated cost for a new project, which is consistent with the Host Country's development plan, and the USAID Mission's assistance strategy as described in the current CDSS.

PP (Project Paper) - Prepared by the USAID Mission in collaboration with Host Country counterparts after approval of the PID by the AID/Washington Regional Bureau. This document is a thorough analysis, plan, schedule, rationale, cost estimate, and recommendation for a new project, complete with supporting documents, tables, schedules, and special studies.

PROAG (Project Agreement) - Prepared by the USAID Mission in negotiation with Host Country counterparts, after approval of the PP by the AID/Washington Regional Bureau and in anticipation of notification by AID/Washington that funding will be available. This document summarizes the essential elements of the objective and rationale for the PP, the amount and type of funding, and the responsibilities of the U.S. and the Host Country in implementing the project. An updated implementation plan is also prepared and made a part of the PROAG. The PROAG is signed jointly by representatives of the USAID Mission and the Host Country.

PIL or IMPLATTER (Project Implementation Letter) Prepared by the USAID Mission at any time during project implementation when the USAID Project Officer considers it appropriate, the PIL provides additional administrative, financial and/or technical guidance or clarification to the Host Country Project Manager.

PIO (Project Implementation Order) - Prepared by the USAID Project Officer at any time during project implementation, the principal means for obligating project funds. There are three types of PIO's:

PIO/T - To procure specialized Technical Services

PIO/C - To procure project Commodities; equipment and supplies

PIO/P - To provide for Host Country personnel training as Participants in the U.S. or third countries.

PES (Project Evaluation Summary) - Prepared by the USAID Mission Evaluation Officer and USAID Project Officer in collaboration with the Host Country Counterpart Project Officer at least annually during the life of a project, this document summarizes progress and highlights problems, action decisions and unresolved issues.

Other donor agencies such as the World Bank, private foundations, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) have their own procedures. WID professionals need to be familiar with their various procedures, seeking the appropriate handbook from the project leader or the home office of the funding agency.

The initial level of commitment to an international project is influenced by a number of factors. Variables which frequently motivate persons to become involved in international work are personal satisfaction, concern for critical global issues, professional development, status and respect among peers, freedom and professional autonomy, and other external rewards. To the extent that money can buy these, access to funding becomes an important motivation. The motivations of project personnel provide important information for the WID advisors and consultants.

Ideally, project advisement begins during preplanning, introducing WID issues into the definition of goals, indicators, and strategies. Those factors can then be explored as they relate to women in the Host Country. Thus, women's needs, resources, and objectives become a part of initial project conceptualization. This model is the ideal in which the WID issues become an integral part of the totality of an international project which has a non-WID general focus. However, sometimes the complete inclusion model is not possible.

Another possibility which should then be considered is to create a special component within the project which will be responsible for addressing the specific WID issues. For example, in a study of farming technologies if the project design will not allow an examination of how both male and female members of a farming household use the technology, certain female-headed farming households may be identified for separate examination. This component of the project may need to request its own budget and personnel independently of the general project resources.

Finally, if the WID group decides not to continue working with a particular project, WID personnel may decide to develop a women-specific project completely independent of the original project but in the same Host Country.

These options can be considered by the WID group during the preplanning phase.

A hint of the required human investments necessary to introduce and maintain the WID perspective in a project becomes apparent during the preplanning brainstorming. The commitment of personal and professional time, the commitment of physical resources--human and institutional, the emotional ego involvement, all begin during this period. The WID person from the Project Advisement Task Force develops insights into what can be expected over time by

assessing collegial and institutional commitment. This is an important stage for WID involvement and, even with meager resources and a low level of commitment by other project personnel, attention at least to non-threatening consciousness raising may be critical to future goals.

To insure that the project is well designed and the personnel are adequately supported, planning grant funds are frequently sought (e.g. feasibility study or seed money for pilot project). Ideally, these funds include support for WID-relevant activities.

Negotiations:

When a funding agency has expressed an interest in a particular project, negotiations begin on the principal issues: agreeing on the project objectives, the actions necessary to achieve them and the project schedule for action implementation. The agency must select from among competing projects and thus the project team is hard pressed to keep its ideas within agency priorities.

If there is no formal planning grant for some projects, formal U.S. and Host Country commitments to project discussions may be sought at this time even without financial backing. A thorough appreciation of local conditions in the Host Country is very helpful in these discussions. A Planning grant allows for more comprehensive and in-depth study in support of the negotiations.

The Planning Grant:

Concern for a planning grant might well include attention to the issue of an appropriate organization to fund the implementation phase as well. Frequently submission of a proposal for a planning project is the most efficient strategy to use in approaching a funding agency. The guidelines followed and feedback received will increase the likelihood that the product at the end of the planning period will be acceptable to that donor agency.

When approaching a funding source, the program objectives and priorities of that agency are among the most significant factors for the WID person. This information is usually available through a Request for Proposals (RFP), a "program guidelines for potential grantees," or through the latest agency annual report.

The goals and objectives of the proposed project must match the priorities of the funding source. The best of intentions and ideas, if emphasizing directions counter to the priorities of the funding agency, can kill the chances for project funding from that source. Thus, if the agency's priorities do not mention WID concerns, it is incumbent upon the potential grantees to work these ideas into a proposal in a way that does not destroy the integrity of the agency intentions. Sometimes the agency leads the potential grantees in having a strong WID perspective. An appreciation of the potential grantor's position on issues related to women in development is compulsory in order to map out a strategy for its inclusion in the proposal. The WID advisor must be very sensitive to strengthening the project's ability to meet the agency's priorities.

Applying for a planning grant is an excellent clarifying exercise. It forces one to come to grips with objectives, procedures, team strengths, weaknesses, commitments, and issues of appropriateness and evaluation. In addition, building a successful, mutually beneficial union between a heterogeneous team and a funding source requires time and perseverance. Thus, the expenditure of funds for a long distance call followed by a personal visit for discussions with funding source representatives or program officers may be a worthwhile investment. Such communication not only acquaints the potential grantors with the strength and competence of the team, it also clarifies for the team the parameters within which their project plans must fit. At any rate, many drafts, compromises, adjustments, steady nerves, constant attention and flexibility are required. Heavy use of the telephone and the mail is frequently imperative.

The WID advisor can assess from the perspective of the project director, the formal professional resources available for working on the project and the informal resources available for advice, guidance and other critical forms of support. A missing disciplinary, geographical or gender perspective can be addressed by an appropriate WID person with access to these resources (the earlier in the process the better). Initial interactions may be somewhat strained and awkward as new and unfamiliar groups are faced with a WID presence.

Failure of the team to work together and achieve the sought after grant can frequently be laid on personal factors (problems of matching personalities, accepting responsibilities, adequate commitment by leadership) or more professional factors (problems of doing necessary "homework," establishing priorities, decision-making style). Since the WID advisor is sometimes the marginal presence within a project team, that person will occasionally be the one blamed for the team's failure to procure the grant. This must be carefully examined by the Project Advisement group. The WID advisor need not receive such comments personally. Often non-WID professionals who are sympathetic to the WID issues can help project team members to develop a different perception of the situation.

WID professionals who must attempt to avoid such situations discourage stronger project resistance to WID concerns in the future.

The Planning Process:

Once the formal planning process is begun, with or without a planning grant, the issue of project team building becomes crucial. Significant project parameters and program directions may be formally decided upon by the group. The person responsible for the WID contribution has to be diligent and alert to those decisions.

Assuming the identification of specific resources required, attention is given to finding just the right persons to provide those resources--an exercise that is likely to determine the outcome of the efforts more than any other single factor. It is not easy to replace people once they are hired; someone, who may have initially covered up a basic level of incompetence or non-acceptance of WID interests, can cause problems throughout the life of the project.

For this reason, the writing of job descriptions is more than just a procedure that must be followed. When taken seriously, the thoughtful development of criteria for the selection of needed professionals can discourage the utilization of irrelevant characteristics in professional selection such as the use of the proverbial "good ole boy" network.

The practice of choosing persons most like oneself is a common occurrence. Being able to second guess another, predict what that person will do under stress or being comfortable leaving important tasks entrusted to a new acquaintance is facilitated to the extent that the person is a member of the decision-maker's "family." The WID advisor frequently is in a position to question the appropriateness of a particular criterion in the selection of resource people.

Team building requires the patient evolution of a working relationship often between very different personalities. In the case of international projects, there are nationality, cultural, ethnic, language as well as gender and disciplinary differences. Individual commitment to project goals is critical. A reasonable sense of humor is a characteristic that has been known to assist the Project Advisement representative find a niche on the team. This is especially true if the other team persons are unfamiliar with the concerns of WID and thus, in their discomfort, resort to tired and corny WID jokes which the WID person might consider living with--at least for a while.

Team building is facilitated by the establishment of a professional climate that supports group morale and reinforces the working environment. Factors important in the professional climate include:

- a. Acceptance of common ultimate goals
- b. Acceptance of constructive criticism
- c. Acceptance of earned blame
- d. Appropriate expressions of self-regret or praise of others
- e. "Stopping the buck" as appropriate within one's realm of responsibility
- f. "Being a team player" rather than a "loner" when it comes to project activities and decisions

Clearly team building is a process that goes on for the life of the project. It is not achieved quickly. From the initial team building efforts in the planning process, one continues to reinforce the team relationship as the project plan is developed. This is likely to take much longer in international, interdisciplinary projects and, thus, the project calendar is appropriately developed to reflect this need.

Plan development involves organizing the project objectives in some logical sequence, defining the work tasks or steps to be followed and the identification of persons to perform those tasks. The development of a time frame into

which the steps fit is an important part of the process. There are many management tools useful in this process (e.g., Program Evaluation and Review Technique [PERT] charts).

There are also administrative actions appropriate in the planning process. These actions are generally guided by sets of university procedures for each planning requirement and by university rules regarding necessary approvals. While these rules and procedures are sometimes cumbersome, they can be shown to work in behalf of WID when a WID review is part of the process (e.g., M.S.U. Advisory/Consultative Committee Review).

When the plan is ready for budget development, engaging an experienced person from the university grants and contracts office saves many future problems. These persons are familiar with the university's negotiated overhead rate for each donor agency and can assist in the calculation of all of the required indirect costs and fringe benefits. In addition, they can frequently give advice as to overseas living costs and the financial and government requirements of short or long term work at an international site. Topics such as insurance, liability and health service also can be addressed.

When the so-called "final" plan is completed, it is submitted to a funding source. Whether the potential grantor is the organization which supported the planning phase or a totally new one, there is a strong chance of having to write and re-write final documents before a grant is awarded. As in the early planning grant stage, meeting with representatives of the funding source is crucial. The WID professional will discover that significant gains won in integrating the WID perspective during the planning process can be lost in a flash--a missed meeting, a critical last-minute phone call--during this phase. The final proposal negotiations require exceptional vigilance as both potential grantor (who has agency priorities) and the grantee (who has personal priorities) seek to insure that their respective objectives are the significant part of the bargain--the WID person may be caught in the middle and squeezed out all together in rapid final negotiations.

Satisfying "all of the people" means (1) the university establishment with its procedures and priorities, (2) the funding source with its procedures and priorities, (3) the participants' units with their priorities, (4) the participants themselves and (5) the recipients of project results, domestic and international. Juggling all of these interests can further squeeze out WID interests without good-humored diligence on the part of the WID person. Project team morale is especially critical during this time when deadlines and regulations make for frayed nerves. To the extent that the WID professional has developed a Host Country constituency, so much the better.

The professional document that is submitted for funding must be clear, well organized, with project priorities concisely written. Some funding agencies require an approved format. On occasion it is appropriate to hand carry, rather than mail, the proposal to the potential grantor and make an oral presentation based on the data and information developed during the planning phase. At that time, well done audio-visual aids color-coded and tied to clear proposal objectives can assist in displaying team competence and the appropriateness of a perspective somewhat broader than may have been originally

envisioned by the funding group (e.g., WID inclusion). If this proposal is lengthy (over 10 pages), an executive summary of 1-2 pages will provide pertinent information at a glance for quick reference during decision-making meetings.

Over the course of the planning effort, there are several factors which more than any others contribute to the success or failure of the project. The first is experienced advice and guidance. A well-placed patron can save valuable time and frustration and can facilitate the process. The second factor is the participation of Host Country nationals in project planning. The issues of appropriateness, acceptance, legitimacy and team spirit require this involvement from as early in the process as possible. The WID group should reinforce the contribution of these two resources.

A third factor is team commitment. Because of various deadlines, a 200% commitment and high team morale can make a difference at critical decision points in the process. Frequently, demands on participants continue right up to the last moment of approval as the final weeding-out process takes place. The stress on the team has probably been no greater than at this point.

The Implementation Phase

One would think that after months and perhaps years of serious planning, project implementation is a simple act of following an agreed upon plan. Not so! While, to be sure, the more comprehensive and well developed the plan the easier the progress of implementation is likely to be, each step of implementation is a very complicated process.

The WID professional may enter the project process during the implementation stage. If that occurs, it is very important that all written resources are identified, including information concerning prior decisions and activities. These will need to be thoroughly understood in order to guide the development of a WID strategy.

Authorizing Documentation:

The documentation that authorizes the project will state the expectations of the funding agency as to the responsibilities of the project personnel in carrying out project objectives. Those responsibilities, which are the sole reason for which the funds were awarded, are usually to be performed within the time frame of the life of the authorization period. Thus, careful reading of the final version of the authorizing document, usually a grant or contract, is important.

U.S. government grants frequently have a section known as standard provisions (e.g., regulations which apply to almost all projects using U.S. government funds). These provisions are attached at the end of each project's specific authorization and plan of work. They refer to such regulations as (1) the individual pre-purchase approvals required from the grantor for items of equipment over a certain price or having a certain manufacturer (e.g., non-U.S. made) or (2) the requirement that persons travelling on U.S. government funds use U.S. carriers whenever they are available. Standard provisions,

while frequently difficult to read, are very important because these are the conditions of performance that auditors check to identify those expenditures that are disallowed. Project funds can usually be spent only on those activities and purchases authorized in the grant authorization documents and their amendments.

Disallowables are the bane of university contracts offices. When auditors discover that funds have been spent illegitimately, that is expenditures in conflict with the terms of the grant, the university has to find a way to pay the amount back. Needless to say, this can be a serious problem.

Some grants authorize subdocuments (subgrants, subagreements, subcontracts) to be arranged with other institutions or individuals who will also participate in the project. In this case the first or principal institution may be designated a lead institution which will have major management responsibilities for the project. All others, participating under subdocuments, are usually held to the same standard provisions.

Memoranda of Understanding are usually open-ended, large umbrella agreements from a grantor which acknowledge the intention of the grantee institution to enter into at least one project but frequently with the option of additional different projects as well. Each project developed under such Memorandum needs fewer formal authorization procedures than those starting from the beginning.

For the WID person, it is very important that there be some mention of the WID perspective in the terms of the project documents. These formal terms are the only ones for which project personnel are ultimately held accountable and supersede all other good intentions. Thus, at significant decision points throughout the life of the project, WID concerns can be gradually eroded without explicit reference to WID issues in the project documents. Inevitable changes in project leadership propose less of a threat to WID concerns when these concerns are formalized in project documentation.

If concern for women and their families is not mentioned in the terms of the grant and the WID professional has determined that the grantor is supportive of the WID perspective, an informal discussion with the project leadership will determine if a letter of WID support from the grantor project officer is possible as a way of giving legitimacy to the "good intentions." Such a letter becomes an addendum to the terms of the grant. Similar letters are not unusual for other important points of operation which are inadvertently overlooked when project documents are drawn up. To facilitate grantor approval of an adjustment, it must indicate that there will be no change in the total funding authorization required. However, it is usually possible to request a change in the distribution of funds within the project budget.

Project Budget:

Next to the project's authorizing documents, the project budget is most important. It will often be divided into categories based on the grantor's standard procedure. Changes between categories usually require grantor approval. Budget categories such as equipment, travel, supplies and services,

and personnel (including fringe benefits) are all direct costs. At most institutions there is a fixed fringe benefit percentage of salaries which includes the amount paid into the retirement plan, health plan, etc. by the institution. These employer-borne costs are usually assumed by the project when the project takes over the salary previously paid by the university.

Indirect costs are taken together as a percentage of the total direct costs. Sometimes equipment is excluded from the base amount of total direct costs on which the indirect cost figure is calculated (this formula is known as Modified Total Direct costs). Sometimes indirect costs are taken as a percentage of salaries and wages only. The formula used, which includes both the percentage rate and the base (with or without equipment), is usually a negotiated agreement with the grantor. U.S. institutions negotiate a rate with the federal government annually, in most cases maintaining two such rates--one off-campus rate (lower) and one on-campus rate (higher). Since the indirect costs payments are to cover the costs of offices, heat, lights, general office equipment, building and grounds maintenance, the two rates acknowledge the greater costs to the university if the project is located physically within the university facilities.

It is most important for the WID advisor to understand the current indirect cost rate for a particular grantor (some do not pay indirect costs at all). There are ways to save project operating funds out of which WID activities are paid and still pay an appropriate amount into the university coffers. For example, even if a match or in-kind contribution is not required, one can identify the extent to which there are such contributions supporting project activity. Perhaps an exchange can be made between personnel time on which the grant would have to pay the additional costs of fringe benefits in exchange for the project's purchasing approved equipment on which indirect costs usually are not paid. This exchange may be worked out in the best interest of all parties if in fact the project budget bottom line is a set figure and the WID person can thereby find "extra" funds to support the desired activities. If a WID advisor or consultant does any traveling for the project, during the actual time the person is traveling, the salary and fringe for that period, no matter how short, are a contribution which should be counted as match if not paid for by the project. A sample budget format from the Bean/Cowpea CRSP is included below.

Travel:

International travel is frequently a significant part of participating in international projects. Travel is especially important for the WID professional who needs first-hand knowledge of families in Host Countries. Through such travel, s/he can identify and encourage the participation of Host Country women and women's organizations in project activity. The names and locations of such individuals and groups can often be found in the literature or through the various international WID-related networks. Frequently, however, nothing beats time in the field following up leads and getting away from capital cities.

FISCAL DATA FOR
CURRENT BUDGET PERIOD

From

Through

Project Code or Identification by Institution

Item	No.	FTE Time % on CRSP	AID CONTRIBUTION								Grand Total	
			Lead Institution				AID Total		Contribution			
			On-Campus		Off-Campus		For US	For HC	Total AID	US Inst.		HC
			US	HC	Co-US	HC	Col. #5	Col. #6	Col. #7	Col. #8		Col. #9
			Col. #1	Col. #2	Col. #3	Col. #4	- MATCH/SPLIT -		Col. #10			
- INDIRECT COST CALCULATIONS -												
1. PERSONNEL												
A. Senior												
1. Co-PIs												
2. Sr. Associates												
B. Other (Non-Faculty)												
1. Res. Assoc./Postdocs												
2. Other Professionals												
3. Graduate Students												
4. Pre-Bac Students												
5. Clerical												
6. Technicians												
TOTAL PERSONNEL												
C. FRINGE BENEFITS												
D. TOTAL (1A, B, C)												
2. EQUIPMENT & FACILITIES												
(list major items on reverse side)												
3. TRAVEL & PER DIEM												
A. Domestic (within country)												
B. Foreign (cross intl borders)												
C. TOTAL (3A & B)												
4. MATERIALS & SUPPLIES												
(list major items by category/reverse side)												
5. OTHER DIRECT COSTS												
A. Housing & Associated Costs												
B. Publication Costs												
C. Computer Use Costs												
D. Training Costs												
E. All Other Direct Costs												
F. TOTAL (5A-E)												
6. TOTAL DIRECT COSTS (Items 1-5)												
7. INDIRECT COSTS (List Negotiated Rates on reverse side for each institution)												
A. Lead Institution												
B. Co-US Institution												
C. HC Institution												
D. TOTAL (7A-C)												
8. TOTAL DIRECT & INDIRECT COSTS (Items 6 & 7D)												
SIGNATURES:												
Prin. Invest. _____ /			Auth. U.S. Inst. Rep. _____ /				S/C CRSP NO _____ /					

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MSU/MSW

Building collaboration with Third World colleagues, a function greatly facilitated by international travel, is very important in international development projects. Such collaboration requires that all parties are aware of and participate in project implementation procedures. Although international mail time and travel costs limit the extent to which close collegial participation is possible, reinforcing cross-cultural communication is an important contribution to project success.

The M.S.U. Library, as well as many of the departmental libraries, the NFE Center and the WID Reading Room have excellent material on the history and current situations in Host Countries with whom M.S.U. has projects. Information is also available on the status and major concerns of women in those countries. Project personnel are encouraged to make ample use of such resources which are supportive of good relationships and intergroup communication. WID advisors and consultants can bring these resources to the attention of the project team through bibliographical listings and/or brief reports.

A series of travel tips gleaned from experienced M.S.U. travellers are included as Appendix 1 of this Manual. The project advisor or consultant travelling abroad for the first time may find them useful.

The Evaluation Phase

Evaluation is research which reviews the results of a project designed to accomplish certain identified ends and determines whether or not those ends were achieved. Evaluations occur at many points in the project cycle. They are useful in planning, as feedback during implementation ("formative"), or to assess final outcomes of projects ("summative"). Summative evaluations are usually designed to determine how well the projects were implemented. Very few projects assess the actual or potential long-term project impacts.

Evaluation Issues:

1. Theoretical assumptions guide the total project process. These assumptions, however, are rarely questioned or even acknowledged by project members. They are used in defining an issue or a problem. They also guide the identification of key relationships between variables which need to be changed to achieve resolution. The theoretical assumptions may or may not be valid. One goal of evaluation is to help determine the validity and reliability of the theoretical assumptions underlying project activity.
2. Within the complexities of project implementation, there are many points where the project can "fail" to create satisfactory results. Adequate evaluation requires periodic examination of the implementation process. For example, there may be: (a) Incorrect definition of the problem. This may be due to faulty theoretical assumptions or lack of information. The pre-planning and planning stages are the points at which adequate information should have been gathered to define the problem correctly. The literature review, funding agency, Host Country agencies and collaborators, as well as potential project clients, have a role to play in the correct identification of the problem. (b) Inaccurate analysis of the variables to be manipulated in solving the problem. Again the resources mentioned

above can be useful in the correct specification of the variables important in the project's local context. (c) Inadequate or incorrect resources and their inefficient use particularly during the implementation stage are additional causes of project failure.

3. There are an array of assumptions within the concept of evaluation itself. These include: (a) the acceptance that there is a problem, (b) which is solvable by a project, (c) which should be assessed, because (d) assessment results will be used in a way that will influence some future activity.

Major Questions Asked in Project Evaluation Include -

- * EFFECTIVENESS - Are the planned objectives being achieved within the specified time framework? What are the unplanned results?
- * EFFICIENCY - Are the planned project objectives being achieved with the most efficient use of resources? Often this is determined using a benefit/cost ratio. This methodology is useful to the extent that human and social costs are factored in as part of the original design.
- * SIGNIFICANCE - Are the objectives of the project contributing to a "better quality of life" or to some other broad goal of international development? Do the persons involved consider themselves "better off?"

The World Bank's evaluation of projects includes an assessment of secondary benefits and costs including social costs. Resulting from technological spillover, these problems often occur further down in the system and are included either as a specific value or as the costs of averting the problem even when they do not occur at the project site. "Shadow prices" are used when the costs are not reflected in market prices. Secondary benefits are also incorporated into the economic analyses (Gittinger, 1982). AID frequently relies on the logframe as an evaluative tool, assessing both goal achievement as anticipated and the validity of the supporting assumptions.

Sometimes project managers appear to make little direct use of evaluations. However, the results can make significant statements which often appear in later projects, if not in current project modifications. For the Project Advisement group, on the other hand, such important data become the tools by which WID-related project modifications can be justified. Thus, WID advisors focus on the USE question throughout the evolution of the project.

- * USE - Who is to use the results of the project? For what ends?

The issue of effectiveness is an especially significant evaluation question and can be strengthened with appropriate WID inputs.

Issues of efficiency will sometimes be used to counter WID-related suggestions. However, past experiences with international development projects have suggested that short-term efficiency gained by excluding women and their families frequently sets up long-term losses. Attention to commonly accepted goals may balance this bias.

Evaluation and Project Actors -

There are many different actors involved in development projects who are sensitive to differing evaluation issues. Their interests and power to weigh evaluation outcomes vary based on national and organizational affiliations as well as on personal preferences.

The primary actors in these processes are:

- funding agency
- university administration
- Host Country government
- Host Country institution
- project team members
- evaluator
- clients
- WID consultant

The voices of the clients are usually muted in the project process--unless they are unusually powerful or the project systematically includes them. Until recently, the voices of women and children have not been heard at all. The role of WID advisors and consultants includes reflecting the interests of Third World women and children and continually finding ways to enter their voices into the project process. Of special importance is their role in evaluating project outcomes, especially when they were excluded from participation in project implementation.

Guidelines for Assessing WID Project Issues

The Project Advisement Task Force has developed some guidelines to help the WID advisor work with international development projects. The Guidelines can be used at every stage of the project cycle, including the evaluation stage. The items should be made specific to the particular characteristics of the project with which the WID professional is working.

Project Team Composition - Involving Women:

Women with project-related knowledge and skills are included in the project.

1. Women are included in top planning and decision-making capacities, as appropriate to expertise.
2. Women are included among employees at other levels--e.g. as technical consultants, educators, data gatherers, evaluators, etc.

3. Women who are involved receive remuneration and recognition commensurate with their input, equal to that received by men.
4. Inclusion of women without highly developed skills or extensive experience in apprentice-type roles.
5. If necessary, advertising/search process initiated to identify women who might contribute to the project.

Project Phases - Attention to Women and Families:

1. Preplanning.
 - (a) Identify the cultural values regarding the roles of women in their families.
 - (b) Gather data on women's current role in specific activities (e.g. farming, marketing, industry) related to the project's purpose.
 - (c) Gather data on factors that are barriers to or assist women's effectiveness in the above activities.
 - (d) Examine the variety of demands made upon women's time, energy, and other resources.
 - (e) Gather data on women's perceived needs.
 - (f) Exploit university libraries, reading rooms, and personnel to locate the above data, including use of computer data searches.
2. Planning (including planning in the field).
 - (a) Include women whom the project ultimately will affect in the planning process.
 - (b) Men and women often have access to different processes and communications mechanisms. Plan delivery of project services (e.g., technical consulting, education, credit, etc.) so that they can reach women. Consider:
 - communication procedures most familiar to women
 - women's time schedules
 - locations easily accessible to women
 - presentation style acceptable to women
 - (c) Pull together all data and information significant to project goals which can become the "baseline" against which later short-term and long-term project evaluations can be made.
 - (d) Consider the likely planned and unplanned effects of the project upon the items in section 3 of this checklist (Project's Impact).

- (e) Plan ways to monitor project implementation.
- (f) Plan for evaluation, both formative evaluation, which can be used for corrective feedback, and summative evaluation, to consider project impacts on women and families.

3. Implementation and Evaluation.

- (a) If not done during the planning process, arrange for the compilation of significant baseline data as discussed above.
- (b) Continuously monitor implementation of the program to see that women are being involved as planned and to get feedback from those women. Work with project personnel to meet challenges and to make adjustments.
- (c) During project implementation, evaluate impacts on women and families with the help of affected women. Keep continual line of communication open with project management to facilitate necessary adjustments.
- (d) Continually include new female participants to balance normal attrition.
- (e) For summative evaluation, gather specific data on the involvement of women and the impacts on women and families to compare with early baseline data. Include subjective reports from the women themselves if at all possible.

Project's Impacts:

The following are women in development issues--aspects of the lives of women and families which are likely to be affected by development projects. These aspects are interdependent in a variety of ways. Of course, this list is suggestive rather than exhaustive. The project's impact on these aspects should be considered.

1. Women's well-being, resources, and personal development.

- (a) Education, training
 - literacy and basic education
 - technical and vocational education
 - leadership training and experience
 - resource management training
 - health education
 - relevance to context
- (b) Remuneration for work done either at home or when employed outside of the home
 - control over income disposition
 - amount comparable to equivalent male worker's income
 - type of remuneration (e.g., cash, in-kind)

- (c) Extent of participation in and value of contribution to
 - family
 - institutions (economic, religious, educational)
 - community governance
 - government (state, regional, national)

- (d) Health
 - general health status
 - physical health-related resources
 - mental health-related resources

- (e) Self-esteem and motivation
 - individual basis
 - societal basis

- (f) Satisfying relationships
 - adult/adult
 - adult/child

- (g) Other _____

2. Family well-being.

- (a) Availability, production, selection, and preparation of food for family consumption

- (b) Socialization of children
 - teaching work-related and management skills
 - social/emotional well-being
 - physical development
 - teaching values

- (c) Quality and stability of family interaction

- (d) Time available for family interaction

- (e) Other _____

3. Societal Patterns and Resources

- (a) Employment opportunities
 - full-time
 - part-time
 - in home environment
 - outside of home environment

- (b) Community resources
- (c) Values about the status of women and families
- (d) Other _____

WID advisors and consultants need to be sensitive to the issues which are most pressing on the team at each point of the project cycle. Strategies and resources should be developed to meet the challenge of each phase in order to facilitate the contribution of all project professionals. It is through each individual project that the respect and the resources for women and families are created. The well-articulated project will serve as a catalyst both in the United States and in the Host Country for empowering women and their families for many years.

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5. PROJECT TEAM MEMBERSHIP

As seen in the previous chapters, international development projects are very complex systems, being the nexus of the interaction among multiple organizational, disciplinary, and cross-cultural realities. Universities have unique resources to contribute which are easily recognized by those interested in WID. The system's multiple needs and resources must be forged into a professional, task-oriented team, generally, in a relatively short time period. This is not easy. The WID dimensions often increase the complexities of this process.

Project Complexities

Although international development projects are simplifications of the larger, interdependent world, they are still quite complex. Traditionally, they have been predominantly based on single disciplinary or sector perspectives and have been male dominated. Currently, however, international research projects addressing development issues which are beyond the scope of any one discipline are taking a broader approach by including more disciplines (e.g., farming systems research) and more women as project participants. These approaches, however, introduce new problems for project structure, processes, rewards and costs.

Aspects of Project Structure:

1. Who develops the project's goal(s)?

Different project dynamics are generally created depending on whether the project goal(s) originated with the professionals who will staff the project, with the political leaders of a Host Country, with international agencies or with the project's clients. A single disciplinary perspective often dominates basic research projects originating with researchers, while a greater variety of perspectives frequently are included in those projects focusing on applied research. The multidisciplinary projects generally are more compatible with WID interests and expertise.

Issues affecting women usually are better addressed in projects originated and implemented by women (Dixon, 1980), partially because those issues are still considered unimportant by many males (Tinker, 1982a). However, when male-initiated projects include WID dimensions, they may be more influential.

2. How are different perspectives incorporated into the project?

Although single discipline projects may exhibit heterogeneous perspectives through the participation of short-term specialists from different but related disciplines, the variety is greatly expanded in projects designed to be cross-disciplinary throughout. Differences in disciplinary perspective are managed many ways.

In multidisciplinary projects, separate components of a central goal are generally assigned to the various disciplines. Interdisciplinary projects, on the other hand, emphasize the importance of having all the disciplines integrate their contributions into the totality of the project. The latter strategy, while having the potential for a more pervasive contribution, often necessitates increased numbers of meetings for project participants and has a greater potential for conflict.

These two strategies are reflected in WID questions regarding whether to develop the "women's component" separated from the rest of a project or to incorporate men and women's perspectives (gender sensitivity) in all aspects of a project.

Project heterogeneity also is created by the diverse characteristics of the participants including their nationality, gender, disciplinary paradigms and methodological preferences. There are usually fewer conflicts when the projects are either homogeneous or when the various professional perspectives are radically different from each other (Rossini et al., 1981).

3. What is the leadership style of the project director?

Leadership style interacts strongly with the goal and disciplinary mix of the project. Although a democratic open communication model is reported to be most effective for (U.S.-based) interdisciplinary projects, a more centralized authoritarian leadership pattern is suggested as more effective for multidisciplinary projects (Rossini et al., 1981).

Women's participation in decision-making is stronger when there are female rather than male project leaders (Dixon, 1980; Wily, 1981). It is unclear, however, how leadership style affects their active participation.

4. How are the resources identified and managed?

The identification of appropriate monetary and non-monetary resources is essential in project planning and implementation. In cross-cultural projects, where members of different cultures often control different types of resources, this identification is especially important. For successful collaboration, it is critical that all members of a project have equitable access and control over the resources (Bryant and White, 1982).

A resource created by female project team members is greater team access to women both in the field and in Host Country institutions. In turn, the resource created by female team members for Host Country women is their greater access to the project's resources and the international community.

5. What is the organizational structure and control of the unit carrying out the project?

Within the organization of the project, its size, geographic centralization, and educational level of project participants are variables which have significant influence on the ability of the group to perform project tasks (Rossini, et. al, 1981). Control over resources for project planning, implementation, and evaluation efforts will affect the ability of the organization to perform the tasks and to be responsive to the suggestions of a WID advisor or consultant.

Dynamics of Project Processes:

1. Language differences exist not only because of disciplinary "jargons" but also through words which sound the same, but have different meanings. Ex: "culture" to a social scientist is related to people, while to an agriculturalist it is related to farming practices or laboratory methods. Crossnationally, similar words also have different meanings; e.g., "technician" in the U.S. suggests a highly specialized person, while in some Latin America countries it may mean a low level of specialization. A "project lingo" (Wilpert, 1979) often develops among international project personnel and needs to be understood by all project participants.

Speech styles also vary cross-culturally and across gender. Some of the variations include (1) the use of esteemed variants in reference to colleagues; (2) the degree of dynamism in pitch and intonation; (3) the exercise of conversational dominance (Leffler, et. al, 1982). These variations affect the extent to which different members of the project team are heard when they speak.

2. Prestige factors exist based on status differences among disciplines, location of the individual within her/his institution, location of the nation within the world system, the individual's gender, and age. The significance of a given factor is frequently related to project tasks. Gender and age become more salient in amorphous situations or where the other characteristics are not recognized (Rossini, et al., 1981; Brislin, 1981; Golde, 1970).
3. Conflict is potentially rampant in international, cross-disciplinary projects. The participants will have varying and often conflicting agendas which may change at different points in the project cycle. Furthermore, norms for conflict resolution and negotiation vary greatly cross-culturally. The task of project managers in conflict resolution is strongly influenced by their social orientation (Rossini et al., 1981; Bryant and White, 1982).

4. Differences exist among the participants in their conceptualization of appropriate time frames, the use of certain expressions in conveying meaning, and in body language (Hall, 1959, 1966). These differences also appear in the perceived needs for technological or human infrastructures and in experience in crossnational and disciplinary collaboration (Moravcsik, 1976).

These factors are significant in the continuing negotiation of power within projects. The sensitivity of WID advisors to these factors will influence the strategies developed by projects to incorporate the WID concerns.

Dynamics of the Research Process:

Although many international development projects are not research projects, universities tend to be associated with those which have a greater research thrust. Disagreements may emerge in such projects over the following issues: (1) what counts as data, (2) the appropriate units of analyses, (3) the measurements and analytical techniques used, (4) the time frame for project activities, (5) project location, (6) resource control, and (7) who should be involved in project activities.

There is often a particularly strong conflict between those with a mathematical (and often experimental research design) orientation vs. those with non-mathematical (and often non-experimental research design) orientation (Rossini et al., 1981). Women's issues have often been identified with the non-mathematical, non-experimental orientations, which generally also have lower prestige.

Project Rewards and Costs:

1. The legitimacy of international project participation is an important issue considered by each of the project members. Some disciplines, institutions, and nations give greater rewards for such participation than others. Likewise, the legitimacy afforded interdisciplinary, problem-focused work differs among academic departments and disciplines (Moravcsik, 1976).
2. Thus, the personal and professional costs and benefits of participating in international, interdisciplinary projects also varies. Usually, the young or the firmly established researchers are the ones most apt to participate in such projects (Rossini, et al., 1981; Golde, 1970).
3. The evaluation of international development projects is problematic particularly if it is also interdisciplinary (Russell, 1982). It is difficult to identify evaluation criteria and expertise appropriate to the interdisciplinary approach. Non-tenured faculty are particularly threatened by the rewards and evaluation complexities, for their professional advancement is usually determined by disciplinary criteria.

Cross-national Factors

Brislin (1981) has carefully analyzed many of the dynamics of cross-cultural interactions based on his study of various groups of cross-cultural professionals. Factors which contribute to the dynamics of such interactions, include: (1) the history of the relationship between the interacting nations, organizations, and individuals; (2) individual characteristics, skills, and personality traits; (3) group characteristics (size, heterogeneity, etc.); (4) situational factors; (5) task-related factors; and (6) organizational support. These elements affect the ability of WID professionals to perform their tasks.

It is important for the project team members to be very knowledgeable about past interactions which have occurred between the nations, organizations, and individuals associated with the project. These interactions form a history that creates expectations which influence the functioning of the project.

The type and amount of organizational support provided at various levels within the project cycle are also important. The support will influence whether or not problems can be resolved and specific project tasks can be completed in the allotted time period.

Situational factors become especially salient for the participants in the international context. Some of these can be anticipated and modified, while others simply must be endured: (1) physical environment (e.g., altitude, heat), (2) professional demeanor, especially as related to self-confidence, gender and age within a specific cultural setting (Golde, 1970), (3) a person's anonymity or recognizability within the international context (greater recognizability operates as a social control of the participant's actions), (4) time constraints which may restrict the consultant's ability to do an in-depth analysis, (5) number and complexity of tasks which need to be performed, (6) presence or absence of a model and a niche in the Host Country, and (7) familiarity with the cultural situation (Brislin, 1981:168,169).

Other issues which affect the ability of American international development project team members to operate successfully within the project include the following:

- * "Guest status" is a powerful status often given to visiting professionals in developing countries, particularly if they are from the U.S. In contrast, Third World scientists have mentioned being stripped of ascribed power when coming to the U.S. Guest status usually allows the visitors to have greater freedom in professional and personal movement than persons in the Host Country--particularly the women (Brislin, 1981; Golde, 1970).
- * Culture shock is experienced by many persons involved in cross-cultural work. Some of its symptoms include irritability, a tendency to blame the host for things that go wrong, excessive worry about cleanliness, sensitivity to criticism, loneliness, self-doubt, and a strong desire to interact with others of one's own nation (Brislin, 1981:151; Golde, 1970:11).

- * Gender separation is still practiced in most cultures. Though the specific contours of the behavioral expectations vary greatly by nations and even by subregions and subgroupings within nations. the common characteristic which unites them is male dominance (Rosaldo, 1980; Blumberg, 1978; Chambers, 1981).
- * Time constraints are powerful determinants of the dynamics of international development projects making interpersonal communications skills extremely critical (Brislin, 1981; Warren, 1982). These skills often determine what the team members can accomplish in a given time period.

Chambers (1981) has listed several of the pitfalls which surround brief rural visits (e.g., "rural tourism") common among international development projects. These visits lead to the continued invisibility of poverty, especially of female poverty. Some of the biases introduced by using the rapid visits include (1) exposure only to roadside conditions thus ignorance of the greater poverty conditions away from the roads; (2) elite and male biases as the very poor and women do not speak up as freely to "visitors"; (3) specialization bias which makes it difficult for the professionals to quickly comprehend the interconnections of poverty; and (4) a dry season bias due to the impassability of roads in the wet seasons, and thus the invisibility of other seasonal activities.

These dynamics affect the ability of the international development project team members to perform their tasks well.

Women as Team Members

Generally, persons concerned with increasing women's participation in the international development process agree that an important component of this effort is that of incorporating women (as well as men with strong sensitivity to gender issues) on international project teams (Wily, 1981; Dixon, 1980). This incorporation has ramifications for: (1) the types of questions which are asked in project efforts; (2) the dynamics within the project team; (3) the access to "women's world" within the research setting.

Reasons for including women on project teams include:

1. Currently, issues of critical importance to women often seem trivial to men (Tinker, 1982a).
2. Women assigned to the U. S. project team can serve as professional support to Host Country female professionals. One of the most important sources of recognition for female scientists' work is in the active participation of other female scientists (Frieze, 1978).
3. The presence of women professionals on a project will often open the access not only to other female professionals from the Host Country but also to female clients, particularly in a culture where cross-gender interactions are greatly restricted.

Some general expectations have developed within scientific communities about female scientists' work, partially because of the invisibility of women in the scientific realm. Though these expectations exist in general professional work, they tend to be exacerbated within international development project teams where biases are more visible.

General expectations about female scientists:

1. The "quality" of a female scientist's work is inferior to that of a male scientist's work.
2. For an equal length of professional experience and productivity, women are often given fewer promotions and lower salaries.
3. Female scientists have little environmental support for their work--such as someone who performs the traditional household functions.
4. Women may negatively evaluate other women's work, and they are also the ones most apt to recognize the significant quality of appropriate professional contributions made by women.
5. The "Queen Bee" syndrome has been destructive of the support networks necessary to cultivate female scientists (Cole, 1979).

These expectations may lead to initial professional "testing" of the female team members making them even more "visible" in their work. The visibility which female project team members experience in working with their colleagues has ramifications for their field experiences.

Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1977) has suggested that women should work in critical mass units rather than as a single token person. She identified four roles which usually evolve for "token" women working within U.S. corporate structures: (1) mother, (2) seductress, (3) pet, (4) iron maiden. These parallel the experiences described by twelve female anthropologists working in many countries of the world. These social scientists also experienced protection reactions in the field--both to insure their safety and to protect others from their "seductive capacities" (Golde, 1970). Their being labelled professionally nonthreatening often provided greater access and information than given to male colleagues.

Some other common field experiences include:

1. Males and females have access to different types of information.
2. Often the surprise at the existence of "professional" women may make it harder to find an appropriate niche.
3. There may be difficulties arranging facilities--bathrooms, overnight accommodations.
4. Attention to a local female professional may change her relationships with her male colleagues.

Although there are many ways in which gender issues interact with international development work, there is danger in focusing so strongly on gender characteristics that they become too salient and detrimental to the general goals of the projects. Within the design of a research problem, for example, Eichler (1980) proposes using gender as a descriptive variable to examine differences and similarities between men and women. However, she strongly calls for NOT using gender as a causal variable for fear of reifying gender issues by focusing on them too strongly.

Thus the WID professional must tread carefully between being sufficiently informed and prepared to meet situations which are affected by gender issues, while not making them so salient that they become detrimental to the effective functioning of the project team and the performance of its task. To that end it is important that the WID advisor be prepared to contribute disciplinary competence as well as the WID perspective. In addition, it is not unusual to find the status and acceptance of the WID representative based heavily on disciplinary competence rather than on competence in WID per se (which is an unknown entity to many non-WID colleagues).

There are many professional and personal skills which can assist the WID professional in performing effectively as a team member.

Professional Skills

There are a number of professional skills useful in project advisement and consultation, many of which are routinely a part of particular disciplines. Some of the more general professional skills useful to the WID professional are needs assessments, applied creativity, and strategy building.

Needs assessment:

1. Survey of resources--what are the resources of the project, of the person.
2. Content analysis of those resources.
3. Life-cycle evaluation--of the project, of the person.
4. Personnel pressures evaluation.
5. Identification of needs.

Applied creativity:

1. Describing the context/environment of the project.
2. Discovering existing options.
3. Making new options.
4. The art of creative planning to make use of chosen options.

Human relations building strategies:

1. Making the link--the introductory letter/follow-up phone call vs. the introductory phone call/follow-up letter; the first meeting.
2. Power plays among project personnel including gender moves.
3. Team-building behavior.
4. Terminating relationships.

Personal Skills

Interpersonal skills are critical to successful project advisement because the WID professional tends to be an "outsider" to the project process. The skills which heavily influence success in the interpersonal realm are many; among them, skill in listening, empathizing, expressing ideas, diplomacy and self-maintenance. The following are a brief list of items which contribute to each of these skills.

Listening skills:

1. Attention to precisely what is meant by what is being said (beyond words--including tone and emotion conveyed, a very culture-laden process).
2. Toward what ends (creativity in envisioning possible ends).
3. Motivated by what (creativity in envisioning possible motivations).
4. Based on what data including what perceptions and what assumptions (narrow the possibilities).
5. With whose support in the group.
6. With whose opposition in the group.
7. Who is staying neutral--for how long.

Empathic skills:

1. Attention to sources of error in interpersonal perception such as cultural misunderstanding, stereotyping and self-perception bias.
2. Alert to emotions including needs and desires.
3. Attention to hidden dynamics such as defense mechanisms or projections of own situation onto others.
4. Attention to normal personal weaknesses such as fatigue.

Skills in self-expression:

1. Matching the message with its culturally acceptable form of expression such as appropriate ways to give criticisms or compliments between two persons of mixed or same age, gender, nationality, etc.
2. Attention to appropriateness of environmental context for the expression.
3. Decision of verbal vs. non-verbal expressions--taboos in verbal and non-verbal expressions, staying on the point, asking the right question, eliciting answers, terminating communications.
4. Attention to body language.
5. Deciding on the real intent of the message.
6. Organizing to convey that intent--reorganizing a second, third try if feedback suggests message not properly received.
7. Using props--analogies, examples, audio-visual aids.
8. Use of eye contact--cultural norms.
9. Use of touching--cultural norms.
10. Cultural amenities and protocol.

Diplomacy skills:

1. Non-personal, non-threatening criticism.
2. The art of asking questions.
3. The art of accepting compliments.
4. Making criticisms given by others constructive.
5. Keeping secrets, stopping gossip.
6. Supporting the dignity and self-respect of others.
7. Reinforcing the weak links/modulating and directing the strong.
8. Encouraging esprit de corps.

Self-maintenance:

1. Keeping personal and professional life separate.
2. Eating well, sleeping well and exercising.
3. Dealing with physical and mental stress.

Working towards competence, confidence and political prudence in these areas will help the WID professional to become a dynamic and important member of the international development project team.

* * *

Food for thought--

Borden and Tanner (1981) report on their research experiences in Costa Rica, Central America. Although Tanner (young, female student) was the head of the project, she was never introduced at communication events when Borden (older, male professor) and she were together. She was also recipient of "overt sexual harrassment," they report. Their conclusion is that women who are interested in doing research in Latin America should be prepared to go with male colleagues and to fade into the background when there.

Do you agree?

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6. CRITICAL FACTORS IN PROJECT ADVISEMENT

Definition and Function of Advisors

WID project advisement is a mutual learning activity carried out among domestic and non-U.S. international development colleagues to strengthen the potential for positive impact of projects on the lives of women and their families in Host Countries. Successful performance of project advisement makes it more likely that:

1. Women and men who understand and support women's interests in international development are a part of the project planning, implementation and evaluation processes.
2. The contributions made by the project are perceived as being positive by and for the women affected by the process.
3. A catalyst is created which encourages development efforts to continually explore and monitor WID issues from within the Host Country context.

The Project Advisement Organization

The Project Advisement Task Force (PATF) at Michigan State University has the responsibility for training, coordinating, assisting and developing resources for WID advisors and consultants as they work with the international projects. It initiates and responds to opportunities for WID project advisement and consultations.

There are several ways a particular project may come to the attention of PATF.

1. A project member approaches the group (usually through the WID Office) requesting assistance on a particular aspect of the project.
2. The group is approached by a funding agency (or a branch of the agency) requesting assistance for a specific project.
3. The original Request for Proposal (RFP) is sent to the Office of WID as part of the distribution of such information by appropriate offices on campus and referred to PATF.
4. The group initiates contact with a project team which PATF decides is important to women.

The way in which the project comes to the attention of the Task Force has strong implications for the types of involvement and legitimation of its work.

1. For those projects requesting assistance, in most cases the organization simply provides the assistance. The primary issue of such assistance is determining whether or not there are appropriate available resources. Most requests are for reviewing proposals, for short seminars, for research tools which are sensitive to gender issues, or for personnel with particular technical or cultural/language skills. Such WID consultation is usually considered legitimate and acceptable to the leadership .

This experience provides the opportunity for informal or formal follow through as appropriate.

2. When the Project Advisement organization is approached by a funding agency regarding a particular project, special tact must be used. If the funding agency is clearly interested in WID involvement, it usually works with a project team and may inform the WID Office of the project as a courtesy. In most cases, the project personnel will approach the Office directly to gain access to the resources represented. Either specific short-term consultation or more general longer-term advisement may be requested.

On occasion, a WID branch of a funding agency will approach the Office. When this is done, it is usually because the agency needs assistance in motivating project members to address gender sensitive issues. The Task Force needs to carefully decide whether or not WID involvement is warranted or possible under such conditions. In cases such as this, issues of resistance and legitimacy become central. Involvement must be handled very sensitively and competently as the interests of the WID branch of the grantor organization also may be at stake.

3. There are occasions when the Task Force or the WID Office decides that it is important to approach a project for WID involvement. In such cases, issues of legitimacy and potential contributions become paramount. Project members may not be aware of the ways in which the project will affect women and their families or they may think such issues are irrelevant. They may not have sought out WID consultation for lack of motivation or from lack of awareness of the WID perspective needing to be addressed. In such cases, building awareness among project personnel is the chief concern and tact is crucial in offering specific project strengthening services. Long-term advisement has been known to develop from successful efforts.

Criteria for involvement with projects are reviewed by the organization and form the basis for the decision to become involved. The involvement decision is made by the organization as a whole or by the PATF Chair (in consultation with the WID professional who may become involved) and the WID Office.

Criteria for Participation

WID issues are not appropriately a part of all international projects. Thus, each project must be examined for the relevance of a WID relationship.

There are factors associated with the projects themselves. For example, the ideal context for project advisement is one in which U.S. and Host Country project personnel perceive themselves as part of a mutually beneficial team of competent equals rather than as segments in a hierarchy. Assessment of internal dynamics is frequently difficult from outside the project. The experienced WID person approaches a pre-formed group very cautiously. Thus, of related importance is the issue of (1) whether a project is newly developing such that the WID professional can contribute to initial planning or (2) whether the project is on-going such that the WID professional meets an already established set of objectives, methodologies, priorities, commitments and linkages.

Collegial team relations and project cycle stage supersede other significant characteristics (e.g. funding level, access to resources) in importance for the WID professional because they define the extent to which the project is open to new understandings of perhaps only dimly perceived phenomena. For example, in professional training seldom are people encouraged to give credence to the indispensable nature of related disciplines. Many non-social scientists consider the social sciences "only common sense" and consider them all as a single entity (anthropology, sociology, psychology, political science, economics, etc.). The same is true of the perception by social scientists of non-social sciences (e.g., in agricultural fields such as pathology, agronomy, plant physiology, entomology).

Of the two characteristics, stage of project development is deemed less of a constraint than internal personnel dynamics. Even with on-going projects, when the staff are open to new thinking, adjustments and modifications can be seriously considered. On the other hand, closed, rigid persons may make participation for the WID professional difficult even in the project pre-planning stage when plenty of resources exist.

There are also individual factors to be considered by the WID professional before deciding to approach a project.

1. Available professional time over the long term.
2. Professional competence in a discipline that can make a substantive contribution to the project.
3. Language, cultural or geographical competence associated with the proposed Host Country.
4. Willingness to commit energy and ability to follow-through on initiatives.

5. Ability to work with the personalities associated with the project and to become a general contributor (not limited to WID issues) on the team. While this latter factor is somewhat controversial, it is frequently the characteristic that influences the development of a more permanent, and sometimes paid, place for the WID professional on the project. Of course, it is not uncommon for women to be taken for granted if they are not assertive in offering their expertise in such a situation.

Project Advisement Assumptions

The decision to become involved in advising international development projects is based on a number of assumptions.

1. In general, international development projects are worthwhile and appropriate advice would strengthen their significance.
2. Most project personnel would accept WID advice and make at least minimal adjustments if educated to the project-related WID issues in a non-threatening manner.
3. Intervening in an on-going project is worth the effort for the U.S. WID professional.
4. WID professionals have useful perspectives and resources to offer the project.
5. WID professionals can make a positive difference in the long run relative to the position of women and their families in the Host Country.
6. WID professional advice will be carefully researched so that it will not result in a more negative outcome than would have resulted had the advice not been given.
7. The WID professional knows who benefits from the advice given and has a reasonable idea concerning how such persons benefit.
8. The WID professional is willing to learn from others on the project team.
9. The Host Country recipients of the the project are accepting of the WID inputs and of the proposed results.
10. The participation of the WID professional will not undermine the integrity of the project.

Each of these assumptions is clearly open to question. Persons interested in becoming involved would do well to discuss and ponder such issues.

There are a number of factors hidden in the assumptions which can be examined on a project-by-project basis. Such factors include the political ideology of Host Country and U.S. project participants, the religious orientations of both groups, and the perceptions which each has of the concept "woman." Reflecting on the extent to which these factors influence project

dynamics and decisions may stimulate suggestions for strategies appropriate for the WID professional. They may also contribute additional data on which to determine whether or not to become involved in a particular project at all.

Linking-up with a Project

Joining a group which may or may not be receptive to the WID professional's role is never easy. The group usually considers the professional legitimacy of the new person and assesses that person's behavior.

Legitimacy:

Professional legitimacy is a relative term. It is based on the indicators of professional advancement used by the organization responsible for the project, e.g., the organization from whom the participants receive their professional rewards.

The persons with power in the organization interpret these indicators of professional advancement and judge the extent to which persons are acceptable and legitimate. This evaluation is by no means rigidly applied. There are two major criteria on which this evaluation is made, one which is somewhat straightforward and one which is intended to be used precisely when the other more inflexible criterion is not met. These two criteria are (1) level of credentials and (2) track record, both of which can be assessed from information gathered through informal, collegial networks as well as the formal information system.

Credentials can be formal or informal. The formal credentials are usually advanced as the number one priority in searches for professional personnel. Examples include published works, degrees, diplomas, licenses, and certificates. Such credentials mean that persons in the discipline have verified that the person holding these credentials can be predicted to perform certain functions at the indicated professionally acceptable level.

The informal and usually unstated credentials are the characteristics that may open the door to the consideration of the formal credentials, especially when the competition is heavy or the potential discipline's involvement in the project is distasteful. Examples of informal credentials include cultural/physical characteristics such as gender, ethnicity, physical attractiveness; social characteristics such as personality, class or other group membership. In this case, it is assumed that the persons directly involved can predict behavior based on understandings which are stereotyped.

Track record is the criterion frequently used in lieu of formal credentials. Matched with acceptable informal credentials, it often overrides formal credentials and is especially important when the competition is high. Professional track record is behavior demonstrated in past professional work experience. It includes the reputation one has acquired and the written recommendations which are on record. For example, one earns (for pay or as a volunteer) a relevant track record through (1) similar work as that anticipated on the new team, (2) dissimilar work but work requiring similar or related skills or behaviors, (3) any kind of activity which demonstrates basic professionalism

such as dependency, reliability, perseverance, honesty, punctuality, maturity, self-control, self-confidence, insightfulness, etc. Again it is assumed that competence and perhaps situation-specific behavior can be predicted reliably from these data.

Legitimacy (credentials and track record) can be confirmed by formal means, usually documentation of various kinds as suggested above. However, the most powerful (because it is presumed to be the most reliable) is the informal confirmation of legitimacy (telephone calls, informal conversations). In this case, nothing is on paper that could conceivably be damaging to the reporter. It is assumed, therefore, that the person being questioned can be more truthful. Such a case suggests how personal prejudices, insignificant but irritating transgressions invade the linking-up process. Professional legitimacy as an important criterion of acceptance is thus assessed.

Behavior:

A second criterion used in assessing the acceptability of the new team member is professional behavior. These behaviors are assessed from the track record, an application, or are observed over the course of an orientation period. They suggest the level of professional competency of the following:

1. Homework--the extent to which the person has taken the time in advance to find out about the project and the troublesome issues being addressed. Both written material and other more experienced resource persons can contribute to the acquisition of basic knowledge. The questions, as well as the responses, from the new persons reflect the level of understanding.
2. Written products--the extent to which prepared communications are clear, concise, insightful and professionally done. This is especially important for the WID professional since many non-WID project teams do not understand how the WID advisor can be useful or how the WID perspective relates to what they are doing. Negotiations for participation and specific project document input are facilitated when written material demonstrates potential contribution and its significance.
3. Administrative skill--the demonstration of ability to perceive and manage team dynamics. This includes (a) being able to analyze problems within the context of a project's life cycle, (b) having commanding stage presence in making oral presentations to move decisions, (c) having insight into the pressures being juggled by others, (d) being creative in suggesting ways to address potential trouble spots, and (e) being able to handle and resolve conflict.

Most of the behaviors observed suggest the extent to which the new person can be an effective, contributing team player. In informal conversations of project teams, evaluative issues come up such as a person's (a) business dress, grooming and body language, (b) voice volume (too loud or too soft) and verbosity (both over the phone and in person), (c) openness to discussion of the group's ideas and (d) willingness to work beyond the official time to get a task completed.

The role of the Project Advisement Task Force is crucial to the process. If possible, two WID professionals are assigned to work with a project if the involvement is potentially of a long-term nature. An attempt is made to combine talents in the substantive areas of the project as well as in the language and cultural areas. It is assumed that both professionals are acquainted with basic information about women in international development which is specific to the particular project either through international experience or through formal and/or informal training (e.g., WID seminars, conferences, literature, etc.).

Once a decision to work with a particular project has been made, then the Chair of the Task Force (or another designated person) meets with the project leader and the potential WID advisors. A report is immediately made of any interactions which occur between these WID persons and the project. A copy is sent to the WID Office and one is kept by the WID professionals. It is imperative that they and the Office be kept informed of every contact--both formal and informal. This is particularly important since the Office is held accountable for the actions and decisions of both WID advisors by the members of the campus community. In addition, information is sometimes requested of the Office in the absence of the WID professionals

Periodic reports are also made to the Project Advisement organization by the WID advisors and consultants which in turn are used by the organization's chair to report to the WID Advisory Council. It is within the organization's forum that new ideas are often discussed and resources are identified which may strengthen the professionals' work with the project. Although WID professionals have the primary responsibility for working with the projects, this is a team effort in which the members of the Project Advisement organization contribute back-up services.

Another duty of the Project Advisement Task Force is to provide feedback to the WID professionals about their activities. This feedback is important particularly if overenthusiasm and too much dedication threaten the other project team members or there looms a threat of personal burnout.

Timing Involvement

The appropriate time and methods for inserting WID issues into project development vary greatly. During the Preplanning and Planning phases, often the potential members of the project team are not clearly aware of what direction their efforts are going to take. This is usually a period of brainstorming and clarifying ideas. The importance of WID ideas to the substantive goals of the project must be apparent to the project members if the WID professional is to be an effective member of the team.

During this period of time, it is often wise simply to be visible at group meetings, inserting ideas from time to time but certainly not dominating discussions. This is probably one of the most difficult tasks for the eager WID person, but it is imperative to learn what is going on over time before speaking. As the project ideas are clarified, the WID issues can be defined within the scope of the project.

During this initial period, members of the project often voice their strong support of WID and women in general. Project Team leaders many times discuss a number of "proofs" of how much they believe in women and in WID. The argument may then be made that the Host Country government, a local agency, or the funding agency does not support the WID involvement, so even if the project wanted to include WID, it would be very difficult to do so--if not impossible. This is an issue which must be carefully assessed.

During the preplanning stage, the WID advisor can assess the orientations which the Host Country, local agency, and funding agency have toward WID issues. This may be obtained either through written documents, personal contacts, or through resources of the WID Office and other persons who have worked with the groups. This information can be used to demonstrate how the WID issues can strengthen the project's acceptability to the funding agency and the collaborating organizations.

Presence is important at as many of the formal and informal gatherings of the team as is possible. This does not mean that the WID voice has to be loud--in fact, the quiet voice is often more effective. If possible, it is helpful for male team members to introduce and follow through on WID issues so that the WID person is not the only person expressing these concerns. Care must be taken not to bring up WID issues too often--colleagues can find it tiring and difficult to deal with if the subject is constantly interjected in discussions of a project not perceived to be WID-specific.

During the planning stage, it is important for the WID professional to be present at meetings held with outside organizations. During this stage, trips are often scheduled to potential Host Countries in order to more clearly assess the field situations. The WID professional should not only be interested in participating in the formal introductory meetings with these outside entities, but s/he also should be interested in identifying potential professional collaborators with WID sensitivities and in identifying outside women's groups which represent local resources and contacts.

Sometimes Host Country contacts interested in WID issues are invisible to the local organization. The WID presence on the project planning team can help to legitimate them and to support their voices.

Issues of funding for the WID professional's participation in overseas travel may become an issue during the planning stage. Other team members may offer to gather the needed WID information and to make the appropriate contacts. This possibility should be carefully assessed.

As the project evolves, the advisors help to define the specific role of WID issues and personnel. Team members often fear that WID involvement will help the Team lose the project. This fear may be legitimate and, therefore, the WID advisor must work closely with, not against, the project team. To the extent possible, however, when the project document is developed, it should include statements relevant to WID.

During the Negotiations phase, it is important to be present both at the Host Country negotiations and during the negotiations with the funding agency. If the previous stages have been successfully completed, general issues of legitimacy and value have been clearly demonstrated. However, the general strides can be lost in the specific negotiations over personnel and budgetary issues. WID concerns may slip into obscurity if they are not clearly enunciated at this time, for this is the foundation for the rest of the project's performance.

During the Implementation phase, the danger is that the plans will be ignored and traditional behaviors emerge--especially regarding project personnel. Visibility at the appropriate times and constant formal and informal follow-up are important. Sometimes the WID professionals will feel that the project used WID involvement to get the funding and then ignored the substantive WID issues.

WID professionals are at a disadvantage if they are not able to go into the field with the members of the project to monitor ongoing project details. Well-laid plans can also be lost as field realities modify the implementation procedures. Field personnel interests and capabilities are critical.

Sometimes, WID professionals can strengthen the WID issues addressed by the project during the implementation stage even when the WID acceptance during the preplanning and planning stages have been weak. This is true when field conditions pressure the field personnel to consider WID. For example, in one project it was "serendipitously" discovered that women were the primary owners of small trading establishments. The WID professional was able to provide literature and identify resources within the Host Country to support the realities which the project field personnel were encountering. This is not an uncommon occurrence.

During the various Evaluation phases (and there may be several over the life of the project), it is important to make sure that WID components are part of the evaluation processes and the evaluation reports. This may be resisted more strongly if the WID concerns have not been built into the complete project process.

Generally, evaluation procedures may be threatening to different levels of project personnel. The sensitivity of the WID professional to ways in which WID issues can strengthen the evaluation results will increase the receptivity of project personnel to the perspective.

Throughout the project--and that may be over a period of many years--the WID professionals maintain close relationships with the WID Office and the Project Advisement organization so that all may learn from the experience. Through them, the professional also will be provided with important resources and support in the WID work.

Team Pressures

There are many potential problem areas which put pressures on the various members of the project team, including the WID advisor and consultant. Understanding these pressures is particularly important in making decisions and developing strategies.

Project Manager's Pressures:

General management pressures can be overwhelming when one is "up to the ears in alligators." The following are some of the categories frequently the source of problems (Kleinfield, 1982).

1. Personnel--personality conflicts, confusion as to responsibilities, incompetence, low morale.
2. Time--constant imposition of "brush fires," conflict between time demands of personal and professional life, need for creative thinking time.
3. Funds--inadequate for project goals, inefficient utilization, staying on top of expenditures.
4. General human relations--listening, being able to terminate, cultivating a supportive management style, facilitating communications and work relations among persons of different cultures, campus and interpersonal politics.
5. Meeting deadlines--from the funding source, from university management departments, from colleagues.
6. Knowledge gap--seeking experienced advice through an advisory group, seeking available written material that could be of assistance to the project.
7. Communication--reports, newsletters, telephone protocol and limitations, written records of interactions, keeping all informed.
8. Responsibilities--project versus other professional responsibility, demands of personal responsibilities.

There are also manager's pressures associated specifically with the funding agent and the university's desire to appear efficient to the funding sources whose money they administer on behalf of the project manager.

Information should be available instantly for organizing a presentation in terms of approved project objectives: achievements, tasks in process, expenditures. Audio-visual aids are invaluable in making oral presentations to funding agents, including prepared hand-outs and are an important tool which can release the manager from a great deal of stress in the long run. WID professionals should encourage inclusion of WID issues in such presentations.

University procedures, even those developed to assist projects, can be the source of additional pressure on the project manager. The WID professional should be knowledgeable in this area as well.

At M.S.U., the Advisory-Consultative Committee to the Dean of International Studies and Programs is an organized group formed to evaluate, for appropriateness, international projects before they are begun and to monitor those which are in process. This Committee, or its counterpart in other institutions, can be of real value not only to the Project Manager but also to the WID advisor seeking appropriate integration of WID issues. At M.S.U., on the basis of established criteria which include WID concerns, this group makes recommendations to the Dean suggesting approval or disapproval and indicates suggestions for change. At appropriate points in project development and implementation, through this mechanism or perhaps directly, the Office of the Dean of International Studies and Programs, as well as other affiliated deans, is kept informed of the project's progress. Throughout, the Project Manager will find it invaluable to seek the committee's guidance and enlist their advice in decision-making. Additional frequent communications with the appropriate administrators help avoid misunderstandings.

Departmental duties such as teaching, student advising, departmental and university-wide committees, faculty meetings, conferences with the Dean, report writing and course preparations cannot be put aside in favor of project demands. Irrespective of formal time assignments, these duties must be completed, which as has been noted often means an imposition on the manager's normal free or family time of evenings or weekends. Joint departmental appointments exacerbate this problem. Thus, time becomes one of the most critical resources.

The WID professional will be well received to the extent that s/he can alleviate some of these pressures by suggesting solutions rather than only identifying problems. At all times, an update of project progress and a general indication of budget status must be easily accessible for presentation. For large projects a budget officer can facilitate this task. Furthermore, the WID persons making time demand on project leaders will find themselves welcomed to the extent that they develop a reputation for being well organized, concise, to-the-point and, above all, brief.

Project Professionals' Pressures:

A well-organized operation runs smoothly to the extent that the co-participants know what is expected of them and get personal and professional satisfaction from their roles. Yet demands of time, concessions, arbitrations, organizational adjustments, personal support and recognition are all part of normal professional human interactions which cannot be slighted. Persons who can fit into the interpersonal dynamics of the project team with the least amount of disturbance are more readily accepted.

Regular communication among project personnel involving one another in project decision-making also supports smooth functioning. Persons making new demands on projects may find that the initial acceptance by the manager is only the first step and that the manager, to preserve project harmony and effectiveness, may have to involve other personnel in development and implementation of new directions. In the long run that may be helpful; in the short run it may mean having to repeatedly win over the skeptics. Repeated or continual skepticism of the importance of WID issues must be taken as an indication of need for education rather than personal rejection.

There are project pressures on the WID advisors and consultants. The WID professional needs to be sensitive to -

1. Subtle strategies to educate project members about the ways in which project activities may affect the lives of women and children.
2. When not to educate or say much about WID.
3. The dominant thrust of the project especially when it is not WID specific.
4. The time demands of the project cycle with months of little activity alternating with a great flurry of rushed activity.

Pressures which may be especially acute for the WID professional include pressures from others such as -

1. The project director's evaluation--the leader's perception of WID relevancy, time and resource demands.
2. The project director's spouse--the spouse may resent the WID involvement particularly if such involvement means greater time demands on the director.
3. The colleagues--when little is known or appreciated concerning WID, the WID professional is always on display, with side references about women often directed at the WID person even in casual conversation. The topic may be new and have great novelty to many colleagues.

There are also pressures from within the WID person which must be handled.

1. Feelings of inadequacy and anticipation of failure or fear of success
2. The pressure of living up to past achievements
3. Life goals or the lack thereof
4. Weak self-discipline, organization and the work drive
5. Maintaining family roles
6. Ego needs--inability to delegate, support others, take criticism

The stress engendered by these pressures can be tremendous. The valuable team players are those that help keep such pressures to a minimum. WID professionals who develop a reputation for contributing to the problem undermine their own effectiveness and mental health. Project advisement is for the mature and relatively self-confident regardless of age.

The M.S.U. Office of Women in International Development maintains both literary and personnel resources to reinforce the PATF participants working with M.S.U. projects. The WID network throughout the campus community and nationally can provide important support, information, and assistance. It is very important that these participants preserve their close relationship with their organizations and the wider WID network.

7. CONCLUSION

To be most effective, WID advisors and consultants need more than a command of project mechanics and WID issues in achieving the objectives of an international project. They must be intimately knowledgeable about all aspects of the project and have a sound working relationship with project participants.

Above all, however, the WID professional must have a firm sense of self. In accepting the responsibility of project advisor, the person has chosen to walk a very visible path which is often uncomfortable and leads to marginal status among those who have difficulty hearing or accepting the WID message.

As project advisor or consultant, the individual has chosen to work from within the international development community. It is important therefore to have come to grips with one's own concept of "development" and have the knowledge and the courage to choose NOT to be an advisor or consultant when appropriate. This assumes a mature acknowledgement of the limits to compromise.

Furthermore, the WID professional must be a political strategist, constantly monitoring the existing massive activities at the local, national and international levels. Even when well prepared, however, the professional will need to retain the sense of humility appropriate in such a complex context. And when the struggles become most difficult, it will be especially important to remember that resources are available far in excess of those available to most of the women and families of the world. This is a gift which is to be used wisely as the WID professional joins with the formerly muted voices of Third World women and families. Together the voices can be clear, tactful, yet resolute.

H. Hellberg (1982), World Health Organization member, summed up what working with the needs of world citizens meant to him when he said, "The risk for professionals working with the rural poor is the agony of involvement. More questions are raised than answered. . . ." and he pleaded, "Don't make the rural poor pay for the learning of the planners. Rural women especially have had to pay . . . the water and firewood are too far, and they are too pregnant." When people are powerless, there is a limit to the disappointments which they can take.

These sensitivities, skills and knowledge create a person who is not only in a good position to do an excellent job on WID issues, but is also competent to address other programmatic needs of the project. There are always "brush fires," conflicts or misunderstandings, documentation deadlines or important communications that require special and sensitive handling. Development of competence in such areas can reinforce competence in addressing WID needs.

However, taking on too many broader responsibilities can detract from the time and energy available to the WID consultant to organize and initiate WID activities. It is by setting priorities, and thus fulfilling both areas of responsibility at an appropriate level, that WID advisors and consultants make their most critical contributions, joining others from many nations in confronting the significant issues of women in international development.

TRAVEL TIPS

1. Health--To be effective in the field, one must be healthy. Thus, strict attention to preventive health measures is important. At the first hint of international project participation, the WID professional at M.S.U. should apply for or up-date the passport and check with the Health Center about shots. The nurse in charge of international travel keeps a regularly up-dated list of vaccines required for the country of travel. If the required shots are given in a series, it is necessary to know well ahead of the anticipated travel time, what is necessary. In areas where malaria is common, the traveler is given malaria prevention pills which must be taken exactly as directed. They are a very potent poison and can be fatal if an overdose is taken; however, less than the prescribed amount will be ineffective in disease prevention. Other routine preventive measures are important as well. During a recent trip to Africa, an M.S.U. professor and medical person, who should have known better, contracted a not very prevalent but painful mosquito-borne disease because he decided not to bother with his insect repellent.
2. Eating--Smart travelers take their medicines, drink bottled liquids or liquids boiled in front of them such as tea (boiled at least 15 minutes) and eat foods recently boiled or cooked in hot fat. Insistence on these procedures could be insulting to a host, so attention to proper respect is important. Raw foods which are peeled can be eaten, but care should be taken not to handle the inside of the fruit or vegetable and not to take one that has open blemishes.
3. Packing--Packing for international travel is an art--most experienced travelers having their own preferred way. All agree, however, that packing should be extremely light--for a short-term trip of a week or two, a carry-on piece should be all that is necessary. Especially is this possible if one carries detergent to wash out garments each night. The light luggage load is particularly significant (1) when late flights cause missed connections, (2) when one finds oneself running through airports with all one's belongings in order to catch the flight that for some reason decided to leave early and it's the only one to the destination of interest that week, or (3) when plane hopping via a series of "standbys" are the only way to reach the destination anywhere near the appointed time. In this regard, learning to use the "ABC" book of flight schedules is very important (available at any travel office or airline desk for perusal if the officials are cooperative--the latest edition is the only reasonably reliable edition). When stranded in a foreign country, being able to plan a new routing unaided can make the critical difference.

4. Travel funds--Travel advances for approved travel are available through the M.S.U. Travel Advance Office. There are regulations which should be checked, but such advances allow travelers to have cash or travelers checks on them in case their personal credit cards are not honored. It has been demonstrated that it is wise to keep all receipts for the inevitable day of reckoning (paying back the university for the advance). While meal receipts are usually not requested, if one can justify a higher than allowed amount expended for food, such as a luncheon meeting at which Host Country officials were paid for, then the receipts may be required. All money expended is accounted for immediately on return.

The amount of money allowed for daily expenses is frequently tied to a standard "per diem" rate for each country (including different rates for different cities or areas within the same country). The standard rate is adjusted periodically, the per diem sheet issued monthly and available for viewing from the M.S.U. Grants and Contracts Office. Persons there explain how the per diem works--the procedures change from time to time as well.

NEGOTIATING CONTRACTS

I. Host Country NegotiationsA. Opening Comments

1. U.S. Contractor is there to assist the Host Country.
2. Sensitivity to cultural differences.
3. Research the country and its customs prior to departure.

B. Budget Considerations

1. Budget worksheets should be developed.
2. Develop and use an overseas salary formula.
3. Direct charges (i.e., home campus coordination time) should be identified as direct charges on all contracts and consistently applied. AID and auditors approve of this procedure and it can assist in reducing indirect costs.
4. For AID-financed Host Country contracts, use the various allowances provided for AID Contractors in developing your budgets.

C. Negotiating Team

1. Composition: technical and contractual/financial expertise.
2. Designation of one spokesperson, the negotiator.
3. Necessity of practice sessions with team prior to departing for the Host Country.

D. Materials

1. AID Handbook 11: Host Country Contracting.
2. Standardized Regulations (Government Civilians, Foreign Areas)
Address: U.S. Department of State, Attention: Allowance Staff (A/ALS).
3. General Provisions and Additional General Provisions for Cost Reimbursement (AID 1420-41C and 41D); with an Educational Institution (1420-23C and 23D) dated 10-81.

4. RFP; Technical Proposal; Cost Proposal (with back-up information).
5. U.S. Contractor's "Policy and Procedure" Handbook.
6. Other Information to review before departing for the Host Country.
 - AID Project Officers' Guidebook - Host Country Contracting
 - State Department Post Report
 - UNCITRAL (United National Commission on International Trade Laws) and ICC (International Chamber of Commerce).
7. Don't forget your calculator (with tape!), paper, pencils, etc. and converters/adapters!

E. Contract Clauses

1. Definition of Terms

Make sure that all definitions are consistent with "understandings" spelled out in other contract clauses.

2. Statement of Work

- a. Be certain that the working relationship between the U.S. Team and the Host Country officials is spelled out.
- b. Make certain that statement of work is written as proposed in technical proposal and RFP. Obtain the terms of reference agreed to by USAID and Host Country, if possible, prior to departure and verify that Contracting Officer is familiar with these terms.

3. Key Personnel

Limit the number of key personnel - changes require Contracting Agency approval.

4. Reports

Be sure that the contract allows sufficient time for draft reports to be finalized and sent to the Host Country. (45 days is usually sufficient.)

5. Relationship of Parties, General Responsibilities

Be certain that "authorizing person(s)" is clearly spelled out in the contract.

6. Contract Amount and Payment

Payment is the biggest single problem of Host Country contracting. Be sure to get advances, and/or direct letter of credit with AID. Also, have some wording to the effect that ". . . the official shall provide a 'Certification of Performance' or a 'Certification of Non-performance of Specific Items' within 30 (or 45) days after receipt of request. If neither certification is provided within 30 (or 45) days, the Contractor shall be paid by the Government (or USAID)."

Make certain that the contract spells out the voucher process and what information must accompany the voucher.

7. Host Country Taxes

Be sure your field staff are exempt and that personal effects (including vehicles) are duty free.

8. Logistic Support

No matter who is providing logistic support (USAID or Host Country) be certain that a clause is included to allow the Contractor to provide the logistic support at contract cost if the agency does not provide such support in a timely manner. Obtain pouch privileges and access to medical facilities. Pre- and post- departure health exams should be included.

9. Nationality and Source

Make certain that appropriate Geographic code is included.

10. Air Travel and Transportation

Be certain that Home Office trips are included.

Travel clause should spell out allowances for air freight, shipping, storage, etc.

11. Disputes and Appeals

Use UNCITRAL or ICC arbitration rules. Make very sure that the case is heard by a neutral court (or the U.S. if you can get it!) not located in the Host Country.

12. Termination Clauses

Be sure that "Termination by the Contractor for Non-payment" is included.

13. Labor Standards

Be certain that the working hours for this clause are consistent with the definition of work month.

F. Other Information

1. Fringe Benefits - be aware that our definition of fringe benefits can be different from the Host Country concept of fringe benefits.
2. Overhead - be prepared to explain in depth. Also, do not allow a ceiling on overhead in the contract. NOTE: AID/W does not encourage a ceiling on overhead for non-profits. However, Handbook 11, in its cost principles, does recommend a ceiling. An inexperienced AID person in the field can insist on such a ceiling. Request that he send a telex to AID/W to SER/CM for a ruling regarding this issue.
3. USAID Support for Host Country and Contractor

Be aware that the USAID team will consist of a variation of the following: Project Officer, Contracting Officer, Controller, General Counsel and others.

Also be aware that this team is there to provide advice, clarification, etc. to both the Host Country and the Contractor.

The USAID team is not there to negotiate with you.

Remember that USAID is the paymaster and has final say regarding the document which you and the Host Country officials have negotiated.

4. Finally . . .

Do not let self-imposed time constraints interfere with the negotiation and resolution of a Host Country contract.

And, be very aware that things move slowly under Host Country contracting--payment, approvals, amendments, etc. Plan accordingly.

II. AID Negotiations

A. Opening Comments

1. Know your General Provisions, the Federal Procurement Regulations and the AIDPR's.

2. There are two kinds of AID contracting.
 - a. AID/W is the contracting agency; negotiations are in D.C.
 - b. USAID Mission is the contracting agency. In this example, the Area Contracting Officer negotiates with the Contractor; negotiations are at the USAID Mission.

B. Negotiating Team

1. Contractor team comprised of technical and contractual/financial expertise.
2. AID/W team comprised of contracts negotiator and project officer.
3. USAID Mission team comprised of variations of the following: ACCO, Project Officer, Controller, General Counsel, officials of the Host Country (involvement is with Statement of Work only).
4. Designation of one spokesperson, the negotiator.
5. Necessity of "orals."

C. Materials

1. In addition to those materials discussed under Host Country negotiations, be familiar with the Project Officers' Guidebook - Management of Direct AID Contracts, Grants, and Cooperative Agreements.

D. Contract Clauses

1. Statement of Work

Be certain that the work is clearly defined and includes those aspects of the technical proposal which you view as critical.

2. Payment

Non-profits such as educational institutions can receive FRLOC's which are the easiest payment methods. If no FRLOC is possible, then be sure to get an advance (depending on project size).

3. Other Clauses (i.e., Reports, Key Personnel, etc.)

Comments are the same as for Host Country contracting.

E. Other Information

1. Develop a working relationship with your counterpart at AID/W.
2. Be aware that change in the Standardized Regulations are often slow in reaching the field. Take current information.

3. Negotiating with AID personnel is usually much easier than negotiating with Host Country officials because U.S. procurement regulations are the foundation used by both AID and the U.S. Contractor.
4. Make certain that your field staff has the same logistic support provided to all U.S. Contractors. These include pouch privileges (referenced in General Provisions); exclusion from import duty, Host Country taxes; access to medical facilities; access to commissary privileges if applicable.
5. Salaries will usually be the most negotiated cost item whether AID contract or Host Country.

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