
MUCIA/WID

*Improving Statistics
and Indicators on Women
in Guatemala*

*Women In Development
Program In Technical Assistance*

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IMPROVING STATISTICS AND INDICATORS ON WOMEN IN GUATEMALA

FINAL REPORT

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

USAID/Guatemala is committed to the goals of "spreading the benefits of growth" and enhancing the effectiveness and efficiency of Mission projects. As part of this effort, the Mission is concerned with improving its information on the women of Guatemala so it may more effectively achieve its women-in-development goals. The technical assistance project reported here designed a Gender Indicator System to measure the effects of Mission activities on the productivity and well-being of Guatemalan women. Tables 1 and 2 (Section III) present indicators linked to the "Update of 15 Country Performance Indicators," and the "Revised Country Impact Matrix." Tables 3 through 8 (Section III) provide gender indicators for each of six major areas of Mission activities-- agriculture, natural resource management, health, education, private sector, and democratic initiatives. For each of these areas, indicators for one project are defined in detail; these are presented in Annexes E1 through E6.

Indicators are used to monitor changes in variables that cannot be measured directly. For example, the variable women's health can be monitored with indicators such as mortality and morbidity rates of women. Indicators allow the Mission to fulfill its women-in-development reporting requirements to AID/Washington and to evaluate project outcome. They provide baseline information about women's well-being that is essential to effective program design and information to monitor on-going projects.

The indicators are designed to measure the degree of women's participation in projects, the extent to which women can manage project demands in addition to their other responsibilities and obligations, and project impact on women. The participation indicators include both direct and indirect measures of women's participation. Participation is measured directly with indicators such as percentage of project participants who are women. Participation is measured indirectly with indicators of proportion of project resources going to women; in a credit program, for example, an appropriate indicator would be the percentage of loans extended to women. Both types of participation indicators can be specified by simply recording the gender of participants or recipients in project records. Indicators of women's participation in projects are especially important because experience has shown that project objectives are more likely to be achieved and that projects are more likely to have a favorable impact on women when there is an appropriate degree of women's participation in project activities. Since collecting data for participation indicators requires little technical expertise and since they are excellent indicators of projects' effectiveness at reaching women, they are highly recommended as both appropriate and practical.

The second and third types of indicators provide baseline data on women's lives and information for ongoing evaluation. These indicators are essential to adequate project planning, monitoring,

and evaluation. An example of an indicator of project task manageability by women is women's time use according to task; examples of indicators of project impact on women are the sources and amounts of women's income.

Many of the indicators of the Gender Indicator System measure access and equity. Access is a measure how many women of those eligible have access to a particular resource, for example, the ratio of number of girls enrolled in school to number eligible to be enrolled. Equity is a comparison of the access one group has relative to that of another group or to the total population, for example, the ratio of number of women receiving training to total number of persons trained.

The data necessary to specify the indicators of the System fall into two categories, enumerative data and complex data. Enumerative data involve counting persons or goods. For example, the indicator ratio of number of women employed to total persons employed in AID projects requires simply counting number of persons by gender. Complex data require interviews with women. Indicators of Maya women's bilingualism and literacy rates are examples of those that require complex data. Enumerative data are often relatively easy to collect; therefore, indicators that require enumerative data are those that the Mission can implement most quickly. However, indicators requiring interviews with women are also essential for the Mission and, where feasible, should be included in project monitoring and evaluation plans.

The indicators and recommendations in this report are designed to address the situation of Guatemalan women in general and Maya women in particular. While there are ethnographic and some statistical data on the Maya women of the Highlands, more information is needed both for baseline purposes (to aid project planning) and for ongoing project monitoring and evaluation. Understanding women's lives and attitudes and the constraints inhibiting change is essential to designing projects that effectively reach Maya women. Such understanding can best be gained by interviewing women in their own households. It is this information that we refer to as "complex data."

Our field visits and interviews with Maya women of the Highlands and review of various Mission documents and interviews with Mission staff indicated that where programs were designed with women in mind or where there were staff members with a commitment to women as project participants, projects were successful at reaching women. Where neither of these two variables were present, projects had less success at reaching women. We found that Maya women have an active desire to be involved in development projects and, particularly, to increase their income-earning capacity. Constraints on their doing so are monolingualism, illiteracy, geographic isolation from national markets, lack of knowledge of non-traditional markets and marketing, lack of capital and lack of training. Projects designed to address these constraints and to take advantage of Highland women's ambitions are likely to be successful at

improving women's well-being and economic contribution. Women's monolingualism and geographic isolation as well as inaccurate stereotypes about Maya women's roles and insufficient specific current ethnographic knowledge of the women and their families are challenges to the Mission undertaking effective program design and barriers to using simple data collection strategies for the indicators.

This report includes, in Section IV, a discussion of these constraints to collecting complex data and recommendations for conducting interviews. As further aid to those who plan, implement, and evaluate projects, we have assembled two bibliographies. The first is an extensive and partially annotated bibliography on "Women in Development and Women in Guatemala" (Annex G). These references provide the kind of ethnographic or "complex" data that are useful to program planners in understanding the women of Guatemala.

The second bibliography is a brief "User's Guide to Publications on WID Indicators and Data Collection" (Annex F). Since the Mission contracts out much of the implementation and evaluation of programs, Mission staff do not need a high level of expertise in data collection strategies. Program managers, however, do need some degree of technical knowledge in order to ensure that the Gender Indicator System is implemented. The "User's Guide," then, provides reference to a manageable number of sources of such expertise.

The Gender Indicator System of this report is divided into three levels of specificity. Table 1 presents indicators that monitor country-wide women-in-development (WID) performance with the small number of indicators. These indicators were designed to accompany the Mission's "Update of 15 Country Performance Indicators." Table 2 also monitors country-wide WID performance but includes a larger number of indicators and includes WID objectives for the Mission to consider. These indicators were designed to accompany the Mission's "Country Impact Matrix."

Each AID program area, however, requires specific indicators. For example, an appropriate indicator in a health program may be height for weight of children, whereas an appropriate indicator in a private sector program might be ratio of amount of credit extended to women to total amount extended. Therefore, this report includes, in Tables 3 through 8, indicators for six specific areas of Mission programming as follows: Table 3 for agricultural projects; Table 4 for natural resource management projects; Table 5 for health projects; Table 6 for education projects; Table 7 for private sector projects; and, Table 8 for democratic initiative projects.

The third level of specificity of the Gender Indicator System is in Annexes E1 through E6 where we present indicators and objectives for six projects, one from each of the six areas.

The recommended steps for implementing the Gender Indicator System include:

- o designing specific women-in-development objectives for every project. Scientifically sound indicators can be designed only in relation to explicit, detailed objectives. This report presents such objectives in Table 2 and in Annex E.
- o incorporating participation indicators into each current and future project that addresses people as participants or recipients of project benefits. With the recommended indicators in our report, this step can be implemented immediately.
- o including indicators on the extent to which project demands are manageable by women and on project impact on women. Some of these indicators will take longer to implement, but they are crucial to adequate planning, monitoring, and analysis of the final impact of projects on women's productivity and well-being. Many indicators of this type are defined in this report.
- o gathering further information from Spanish-language sources on Guatemalan women to add to the annotated bibliography in Annex G of this report.
- o interviewing women from target populations of projects to improve baseline data and project monitoring and evaluation. Section IV of the report concerns the conduct of such interviews.

The core of the Gender Indicator System is a set of indicators that track changes over time in specified variables. The indicators are closely linked to program and project goals and objectives regarding women. The general goal is enhancing women's well-being through the objectives of their participation in projects and positive project impact on women. Objectives of women's participation in projects and positive project impact on women and accompanying indicators have been specified. Baseline and existing ethnographic information are needed to determine particular objectives during project planning. Recommendations for collecting baseline data and sources of ethnographic information are also given.

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IMPROVING STATISTICS AND INDICATORS ON WOMEN IN GUATEMALA

I. INTRODUCTION

A major goal of USAID/Guatemala is "spreading the benefits of growth." As a step toward achieving this goal, the Mission is committed to improving its women-in-development (WID) strategy to ensure that women are equitably represented among the beneficiaries of development. Part of this effort involves improving statistics and indicators on women in Guatemala. The Gender Indicator System defined and presented in this report provides the Mission with the means to bring about this improvement.

This project is the implementation of a Scope of Work written by a Technical Assistant to the Mission. The funding was provided by the Office of Women in Development, Bureau of Policy and Program Coordination (PPC/WID), of the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID). The funds are administered through a cooperative agreement between PPC/WID and the Midwest Universities Consortium for International Activities (MUCIA). The cooperative agreement established the MUCIA/WID Women in Development Program in Technical Assistance, and the lead university office is the Office of Women in International Development, Michigan State University.

The Gender Indicator System in this report provides information on Mission needs and how to meet them in regard to statistics and indicators on Guatemalan women. Such information, usually called "baseline data," is one component of project design and also provides the base against which to measure project success. The Gender Indicator System can also be used to assess the degree to which women participate in projects. Women's participation is essential because enhancing women's well-being means assisting them in actively developing their own resources and abilities. Finally, incorporation of the Gender Indicator System will provide information on the success of project interventions. Information provided by the System will allow program strategies to be modified to make projects more effective. As an evaluation tool, the Gender Indicator System can be used to identify successful programs and this information then used to support proposals for similar projects as well as to fine-tune projects in process.

The core of the Gender Indicator System is a set of indicators that track changes over time in specified variables. The indicators are closely linked to program and project goals and objectives regarding women. The general goal is enhancing women's well-being through the objectives of their participation in projects and positive project impact on women. Indicators to determine whether the goal of positive impact and the objective of

women's participation have been reached can be specified. Baseline and existing ethnographic information help in determining particular objectives during project planning, and indicators for those objectives can also be specified. Thus, stating objectives and goals and gathering data and information are reciprocal activities.

The Gender Indicator System detailed in this report will assist the Mission in:

- o Stating general women-in-development (WID) objectives, and indicators at the country level
- o Stating WID indicators for six broad areas of Mission endeavor
- o Stating specific objectives and indicators for six specific Mission projects. Two of the six projects are still in the planning stage; thus, the WID objectives and indicators we recommend could be incorporated into the projects. The objectives and indicators can also serve as models for future projects.
- o Identifying existing reports that provide information on women in development in Guatemala
- o Identifying existing reports on data collection methods
- o Recommending what baseline information is needed specifically for Guatemala and how to collect it

II. BACKGROUND AND METHODOLOGY

OVERVIEW

Development approaches have traditionally been based on the assumption that economic growth can bring about a more equitable and efficient distribution of resources to populations in poor countries. Recent experience has shown, however, that in spite of an increase in economic output, inequalities of class, gender, and ethnicity prevail. To increase access to benefits and to further equality of opportunities for those groups most in need, specific policies need to be developed and implemented with these aims in mind. USAID/Guatemala's development strategy reflects these concerns. The Mission's "Revised Country Impact Matrix," Action Plan, and Country Development Strategy Statement include "spreading the benefits of growth" as a major goal. (See Annex C for the "Revised Country Impact Matrix.")

Of special concern to the Mission are the Maya of the Highlands of Guatemala. The Maya comprise 55% of the Guatemalan population but are the most politically and economically disenfranchised component of the population. The economy of the Highlands depends largely on farming, micro-enterprises, and a nascent tourist trade. The region is temperate and mountainous, with a high population density and extensive poverty. The official national language is Spanish, but many of the Highland Maya speak only their native tongue, which may be any one of the 21 distinct Mayan languages of Guatemala. The plurality of languages presents a unique challenge to development efforts in Guatemala.

The Mission's recent Cross-Cutting Evaluation (Smith, 1989) and other assessments of USAID/Guatemala projects suggest that the women of the Highlands have not been adequately addressed by the Mission's Projects. Consequently, the Mission has made a commitment to include Maya women as project participants and beneficiaries. It has done so both to equitably address the needs of women and because experience has shown that including women as project participants leads to higher project success rates.

To effectively include women as project participants and beneficiaries it is necessary to have appropriate and accurate information about women and the effect of projects on women. As a step toward meeting this need, this report provides a Gender Indicator System that can be used by the Mission in project planning, implementation, and evaluation.

TECHNICAL AND CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND ON WID INDICATORS

Indicators in General

An indicator is a way to quantify a variable that is difficult to measure directly; indicators are also used to track changes over time in variables. Indicators, in a sense, "operationalize" variables. For example, if one is interested in malnutrition, how is the variable "nutritional status" to be operationalized to monitor changes. In this particular case, a number of indicators have been suggested and used by experts in the health field, including weight for age, weight for height, height for age, and arm skinfold thickness. Often there is no single "correct" indicator: each one may have advantages and disadvantages. The task is to choose one that both provides a reasonable approximation of the variable of interest and that is practical to implement.

Indicators of Access and Equity

The concepts of access and equity are useful in designing a system to measure progress toward the Mission goal of "spreading the benefits of growth." In Guatemala the concepts are particularly useful in examining the case of Maya women. Access refers to how many people of an eligible group have a particular resource or are able to achieve a particular goal. Access is an intra-group issue. For example, the ratio of number of Maya girls graduating from 6th grade to number of Maya girls eligible to go to school is an indicator of access.

Equity refers to the amount of access one group has relative to another group. Equity is an inter-group issue. In the case of gender equity, for example, an indicator is the ratio of number of Maya girls to Maya boys who graduate from sixth grade. This indicator is adequate where the sex ratio in the population is near one. If this were not the case, the indicator should be ratio of Maya girls graduating to Maya girls eligible divided by ratio of Maya boys graduating to Maya boys eligible.

In this report, we usually indicate equity by ratio of number of women to total number of persons. In other words, we use "total persons" instead of "men" as a base (or denominator) for the indicator. On the one hand, an advantage of using the base "men" is that in a situation of perfect gender equity the value of the indicator would be 1 (one). Where the target goal is equity it is easy to note movement over time in the indicator toward or away from the value (one). On the other hand, using "men" as a base has a disadvantage: the indicator value may be misinterpreted. For example, where there were 50 women teachers to 100 men teachers, the indicator value would be 0.5. This may be misinterpreted to mean that 50% of the teachers are women when in fact only 33% are (50 women teachers to 150 teachers total).

In any case, technically speaking, either base may be used; but indicators with the base "total persons" are not as subject to misinterpretation as indicators with the base "men." For this reason, most of the indicators in this report use as a base the "total number of persons" in a given category.

Equity and access concerns are not limited to those of gender. In Guatemala a particularly salient dimension is ethnicity. About half the population of Guatemala is Maya; historically they have been oppressed and exploited. And it is well known that today there is inequity between Maya and Ladinos. The Maya generally live in rural areas and Ladinos are more likely to live in urban areas where they earn higher incomes and receive more government services. As the Mission notes in its Country Development Strategy Statement Update, FY 1990-FY 1994, the Maya are a "bypassed...long-neglected and oft-abused segment of the nation's populace..." (p. 5). Gender issues in Guatemala, then, are compounded by ethnicity and socioeconomic class, with Maya women being the most disadvantaged of the disadvantaged. The Mission is addressing these issues by directing much of its development efforts toward the people of the Highlands.

In Section III of this report, we will suggest some indicators that track equity by ethnic group as well as by gender. These indicators will be useful for examining equity and access where the base population includes both Maya and Ladinos. For example, the ratio of the percentage of literate Maya women to the percentage of literate Ladino women is an indicator of equity between ethnic groups of women.

It is important to analyze both access and equity because it is possible to have high gender equity but low access; that is, equal numbers of boys and girls may be receiving some good (a situation of high gender equity), but the total number children receiving the good may be low (a situation of low access for both girls and boys). And, since women often have less access to resources than do men, equity is monitored as well to assure that women have the same access relative to men. Monitoring both equity and access provides more complete information about the distribution of the "benefits of growth."

Indicators of Women's Participation, Project Task Manageability, and Project Outcomes

WID objectives and their indicators should measure women's participation in projects, the extent to which project demands are manageable by and acceptable to women, and the impact of projects on women.

Indicators of women's participation

There are three reasons for including the objective of women's participation in projects and for developing indicators to evaluate the achievement of that objective.

First, a number of investigations have shown that projects are more efficient when they explicitly address the issue of women's participation. As Carloni's 1987 report Women in Development: AID's Experience, 1973-1985 found:

Mainstream projects that ensure women's participation in proportion to their roles and responsibilities within the project's baseline situation are more likely to achieve their immediate purposes and their broader socioeconomic goals than are projects that do not. (p. xiv)

Second, not only are projects more successful if they include women, but women are more likely to benefit if they are explicitly included as participants. Projects that result in general, overall economic or social gains do not necessarily benefit women. In fact, our review of projects in Guatemala and our field visits have led us to conclude that women benefit from projects only where the project design specifically addresses them or where Mission staff are intent on including women as participants. Women's participation is a project-specific objective that will help women achieve improved access to and an equitable share in the benefits of development.

Third, achieving the objective of women's participation is particularly problematic in Guatemala because of gender stereotypes held by project implementers, especially about Maya women. The Mission implements many of its programs through the Guatemalan government's various regional offices of health, agriculture, or education. The staff of these offices tend to assume that Maya women are subordinate to their husbands, that they avoid agricultural labor, and that they operate only in the domestic sphere. Establishing participation objectives in projects and indicators to monitor them is an effective way to assure that women are included.

Our recommendations include both direct and indirect indicators of participation. An example of a direct indicator of participation is the ratio of number of women health promoters to total number of health promoters. An indirect indicator of participation is the amount of project benefits that go to women, for example, the ratio of number of loans extended to women to total number of loans extended. These two types of indicators, women's participation and amount of benefits going to women, are extremely useful. Not only are they good indicators of access and equity but, in most cases, collecting the data for the indicators is fairly straightforward, making it more likely that the indicators will be used.

In summary, women's participation as a project objective and as an indicator is recommended because women's participation is an indirect indicator of general project success and of project success at favorably reaching women. Women's participation is a goal in itself and is relatively easy to measure.

Indicators of task manageability

Project task manageability refers to the extent to which the project affects women's day-to-day lives. Since much of women's work is "hidden" or less immediately obvious than men's work, extra care must be taken to see that women can mesh their traditional responsibilities with new ones. Women have responsibilities in both domestic and public spheres. In farming communities, women care for children and husbands in the home, prepare food, fetch water and firewood, and make clothes, among other domestic tasks. They also contribute to provisioning the family and so operate in the public domain as well--working in the fields, preparing products for market, transporting products to the market place, and selling them. Here the primary indicators are those of women's time use. In an agricultural setting, for example, indicators should analyze women's use of time so that project planning can take time constraints into account. Indicators can also be used to monitor the project in process so that modifications can be made if necessary.

Indicators of project outcome for women

Project outcome for women refers to the effect of a project on the women of the target population. By using indicators, the actual project outcome can be compared with the desired outcome. For projects targeted to the Maya, for example, outcome indicators should be used to assess bilingualism, literacy, education level, income, and health (e.g., mortality, morbidity rates, etc.). Bilingualism, literacy, and higher levels of education are all associated with women's increased well-being. Health is another aspect of general well-being. For those in economically impoverished circumstances, increases in income are a measure of improved well-being and therefore a measure of program success. The choice of impact indicators will, of course, vary from project to project.

Indicators of participation, task manageability, and project impact are recommended in Section III and in Annex E on specific projects.

The Relationship between Indicators and Objectives

Throughout this discussion, we have noted that indicators are tied to objectives and goals. Indicators measure changes in variables, and, in the case of AID projects, there is always an intention of bringing about changes in a specified direction in specific variables. A project can be evaluated only when the variables and the desired direction of change in them (project objectives) are specified. Thus, it is necessary to specify a project's WID objectives before selecting the appropriate indicators. In addition to the "technical logic" of designing the system to include WID objectives, there is a second strong rationale. Specifically, projects are usually successful at reaching women only when they are explicitly designed to do so.

Indicators, Enumeration Data, and Complex Data

After the indicators are chosen, data must be collected to specify the indicators. The indicator itself implies the necessary data. In some cases the indicator requires only enumeration. For example, the ratio of number of women promoters to total promoters requires simply enumeration; the indicator ratio of number of loans extended to women to total number of loans extended requires counting number of loans by gender. Indicators requiring enumeration data are fairly easy to design and use. Record keeping can be done as part of normal project record documentation by directing those responsible to record the gender of the promoter, of the loan receiver, and so forth.

Other equally important indicators require data that are more complex to gather and evaluate. For example, data on women's income require visiting households and interviewing women. Income can be approximated by noting the type and condition of the dwelling and family possessions, by asking about expenditures, and by inquiring directly about income sources and amounts. However, direct questions about income are not sufficient in themselves since the answers depend on retrospection and approximations by the interviewee. Similarly, information on women's time use, family diet, and allocation of resources within the family require special techniques. These data are more costly and time-consuming to collect, but they provide invaluable information about women, women's involvement in projects, and projects' impact on women. To distinguish them from enumeration indicators, we will refer to these as "complex data" indicators. Often the "complex data" can be collected using rapid appraisal techniques. As an aid to program planners, managers, and evaluators, we have assembled a short "User's Guide" bibliography of sources on the technical aspects of data collection, indicators, and assessing WID issues, including sources on rapid appraisal techniques (Annex F). Generally outside consultants with technical expertise will be engaged to carry out data collection to specify the "complex" indicators, but AID staff need to be familiar with the techniques

to insure that the projects include the appropriate indicators and data collection plans.

THE SCOPE OF WORK

Upon arrival in Guatemala, the Technical Assistant met with Mission staff and the Research Associates to refine plans for implementing the Scope of Work (see Annex A). During discussions with USAID/Guatemala staff, specifically the Mission WID Officer (Carola Soto), Deputy Program Director (Tom Kellermann), and Information and Evaluation Specialist (Gary Smith), it was agreed that the technical assistance effort would focus on designing WID indicators and data collection strategies. Furthermore, the report would address "user information needs" to enable Mission staff to participate in systematic data collection. It was also agreed that the Technical Assistant would deal with six areas (specified as agriculture, natural resource management, education, health, private enterprise and democratic initiatives), develop indicators for the general areas, and design indicators for one specific project for each area.

One goal specified in the Scope of Work was to extract existing gender information in Mission reports. Our survey revealed that there was very little information available. This finding simply reaffirmed the Mission opinion that setting up a system for monitoring gender concerns was of crucial importance.

Another task specified in the Scope of Work was collecting and disaggregating data from Guatemalan sources. We reviewed several reports (see Annex H), and found that the task has two components. Disaggregating data from an existing report would mean getting access to the original raw data and, assuming they were coded by gender, re-analyzing the data and creating a new report. This would be a very time-consuming task for even one report, and the result would be, in most cases, a report with data five or more years old, making it of questionable utility. We recommend, as a more cost-efficient and useful strategy, that USAID/Guatemala work with the Guatemalan government and private agencies to encourage the inclusion of gender as a variable in future reports. The indicator system we present in this report, although tailored specifically for AID use, can also provide guidance for a wider array of organizations.

The second aspect of the task of collecting and disaggregating data would be reviewing reports for data on women, extracting information, and writing a summary report. This amounts to a literature review on the status of women in Guatemala, which would be useful to project planners wishing to consider WID issues in mainstream project design. We have taken the first step in such a literature review through the partially annotated bibliography in Annex G. The next step would be a similar bibliography of Spanish language sources. The final step would be to select and review

articles and reports from the bibliography and synthesize them in the form of a literature review. Quantitative data are not the only important information; the qualitative data from the ethnographic literature are equally important. Therefore our recommendation is that AID/Guatemala contract such a literature review, with special attention to Maya women, through a Technical Assistant fluent in both English and Spanish. Our bibliography provides a strong beginning for undertaking such a literature review and, meanwhile, provides Mission staff with English language sources of both quantitative and qualitative data on women.

The following steps were taken to implement the Scope of Work.

1. Assembling the Bibliography on Women in Development and Women in Guatemala: Annex G presents the methods used to assemble the bibliography and the bibliography itself, with selected annotations.
2. Methods for determining indicators that establish a system for data collection, project monitoring and evaluation included the following:

2.1. Reviewing documents. The first task was to specify WID objectives and indicators at the country level. The major documents that provided a base for this work were the Country Development Strategy Statement (CDSS) and its Update, the Country Action Plan, and the "Revised Country Impact Matrix." The "Matrix" is a condensed version of the goals and objectives of the Mission in the CDSS and the Action Plan. These documents lay out and guide all Mission policy and action; thus, they serve as the major planning documents of the Mission.

The next task was developing indicators for the major areas of Mission endeavor that have an impact on women. To develop the indicator system we reviewed various project papers from the six major Mission areas of programming: agriculture, natural resource management, education, health, private enterprise, and democratization. We also reviewed other many documents, including semi-annual reports of the Mission, technical reports on indicators and data collection methods, and the literature on women in Guatemala and Latin America.

Finally, with input from Mission staff, we identified one major project in each of the six areas, reviewed the documents relevant to the projects (including, at the suggestion of Gary Smith, documents of predecessor projects for a historical context of the projects), and developed WID objectives and indicators for each project. Annex H provides a list of all the documents we reviewed.

2.2. To provide a context for our work and an understanding of the data needs specific to Guatemala, we spent five days making

site visits to "sub-projects" in the field (irrigation and terracing, water and sanitation, micro-enterprise and primary education projects) of the main areas of review. On field visits we interviewed both field staff responsible for projects (primarily from Guatemalan Government Regional Offices--Health or Agricultural Extension) and women in the target region of the projects, including women who were not project beneficiaries. The visits were informal with open-ended discussion focused primarily on women's activities, changes resulting from the project, and women's incomes. In two days of field visits, we had the good fortune to have as our translator a native Quiche speaker, Mission staff member Gregorio Tum, who is also fluent in English and Spanish. This enabled us to interview women who are monolingual in Quiche. See Annex I for a list of localities visited and questions asked during field visits.

2.3. We interviewed various Mission and non-Mission personnel. For a list of those interviewed, see Annex J.

III. THE GENDER INDICATOR SYSTEM

The Gender Indicator System presented here is organized into four levels of specificity. At the broadest level (see Table 1) we designed a small number of WID indicators to monitor the Mission's country-wide WID performance. Table 2 provides a broader array of country-wide WID indicators and objectives. In Tables 3 to 8, we provide indicators for six specific areas of Mission programming-- agriculture, natural resource management, health, education, private enterprise, and democratic initiatives. Finally, Annexes E1 to E6 present objectives and indicators for six specific programs, one from each of the six areas.

A number of documents were especially useful in designing the indicator system. The Country Development Strategy Statement (CDSS), as its name implies, lays out the Mission's goals, objectives, its plans for meeting them through specific programs and indicators to evaluate performance. As the CDSS shows, the Mission, working with AID/Washington, structures its goals into two categories: economic goals and social goals. Economic stabilization and basic structural reform are economic goals. Under basic structural reform fall private enterprise, agricultural projects (including some infra-structure projects like building roads), and natural resource management projects.

Spreading the benefits of growth and strengthening democratic institutions are social goals. Under spreading the benefits of growth fall projects aimed at improving health (including some infra-structure projects like water and sanitation improvement) and educational opportunities and institutions. Initiatives to strengthen democratic institutions include strengthening the judicial system and a program for sending Guatemalan students to the USA (the CAPS program). Thus, the six main areas of Mission endeavor are all included under the two broad categories of economic and social goals.

The "Revised Country Impact Matrix" (see Annex C) is, in effect, a brief summary of the goals, objectives, and indicators laid out in detail in the CDSS. Recently the Mission received an "Update of 15 Country Performance Indicators" (see Annex B) with slight revisions as to which indicators should be used to monitor country-wide performance. The update also limits to 15 the number of indicators to be used to monitor country-wide performance.

In developing the Gender Indicator System, we followed the strategy of the "Update" for the material in Table 1; that is, we identified a very limited number of indicators to track country-wide WID performance. In Table 2 we continued to focus on indicators for country-wide performance but added more recommended indicators and also added WID objectives. Here, we found the Mission's "WID Action Plan" (see Annex D) useful for its strategy of linking WID objectives and indicators to Mission objectives and

indicators. In Tables 3 to 8 we relied on documents related to projects in the six areas. In the Annexes (E1 to E6) we used project proposals, evaluations, and other documents about the six specific projects.

Tables 1 and 2 present indicators at the most general and broad level. The next portion of the indicator system, Tables 3 to 8, becomes more detailed as it presents indicators by area of Mission program endeavor. The list of "program area" indicators here is not meant to include every possible indicator for these areas but to identify a half a dozen or so of the most important indicators for each area. The most detailed level of specificity is presented in Annexes E1 through E6. The objectives and indicators in Annex E may be used as models for including WID objectives and indicators in future projects or, in the case of projects not yet begun (there are two--the BEST Project and the Maya Biosphere Project), the indicators and objectives we recommend in the annexes could be integrated into the project.

In some cases the data for the indicators may not be currently obtainable or may require special planning on the part of the Mission to be obtained. Where this is the case, as for example in Table 8 on Democratic Initiative Projects, we discuss this in the comments following the table or in the notes within the table.

Annex K provides recommendations for the procedures to follow in implementing the Gender Indicator System.

TABLE 1

WID INDICATORS RECOMMENDED TO ACCOMPANY
UPDATE OF 15 COUNTRY PERFORMANCE INDICATORS

The left column lists USAID/G's 15 standard indicators of country-wide performance in the Mission's "Update of 15 Country Performance Indicators" (see Annex B). The right column lists the WID indicators recommended to accompany the Mission's indicators.

| USAID/G INDICATOR | RECOMMENDED WID INDICATOR |
|--|---|
| 1. Net domestic credit in current <u>quetzales</u> | 1. None. Not subject to gender disaggregation. See comments below. |
| 2. Real GDP growth | 2. None. See comments below. |
| 3. Gross value of non-traditional exports (value generated by AID projects) | 3. None. See comments below. |
| 4. Employment generated by all private sector programs (if possible, creation of new jobs through AID-supported initiatives) | 4. a. Ratio of number of women employed to total number of persons employed (jobs supported by AID initiatives) b. Ratio of number of women employed to number of women ages 15-65 (country-wide) |
| 5. Domestic savings as % of GDP | 5. None. See comments below. |
| 6. Country-level non-traditional agricultural production (attributable to AID projects) | 6. a. Ratio of number of women employed in non-traditional agriculture to total so employed (AID projects) b. Median income of women in non-traditional agriculture to median income of men (AID projects) |
| 7. Hectares of wildlands and/or reserves protected and properly managed | 7. Ratio of number of women employed in natural resources or conservation to total number so employed |

- | | |
|--|---|
| 8. Hectares under natural resource management | 8. Same as for item 7 above |
| 9. Contraceptive prevalence (couple-year protection) | 9. Same (couple-year protection) |
| 10. Infant mortality rate | 10. Ratio of mortality rate of girls to mortality rate of boys |
| 11. % children under age 5 receiving immunizations | 11. a. % of girls under age 5 receiving immunizations b. Ratio of % of girls under age 5 to % of boys under age 5 receiving immunizations |
| 12. % eligible indigenous children rolled in primary school | 12. a. Ratio of number of indigenous girls enrolled in primary school to number of indigenous girls eligible to enroll b. Ratio of % eligible girls enrolled in primary school to % eligible children enrolled |
| 13. Number of years to produce 6th grade graduate | 13. Ratio of number of years to produce a 6th grade girl graduate to number of years to produce a boy graduate |
| 14. Time needed to complete criminal law case | 14. a. Number of complaints filed of assault of a woman or rape b. Ratio of convictions for assault of a woman or rape to number of cases filed c. Time needed to complete a criminal law case involving a female defendant |
| 15. % of Peace Scholars whose attitude toward U.S.A. has changed | 15. Ratio of number of women Peace Scholars to total number of Peace Scholars |

Comments on Table 1

Mission indicators 1, 2, 3, and 5

These are indicators of national economic status and are not subject to gender disaggregation. For example, domestic credit in current quetzeles is not measured on the basis of individuals and so cannot not be reported "by gender." The country's economic status is, however, gender relevant in the sense that women make a substantial contribution to the economy and relevant if one presumes that as the economic situation in the country improves women's economic situation will improve as well. WID indicators 4, 6 and 7 in the Table 1 measure women's economic situation.

Mission indicator 1 (net domestic credit)

Related WID indicators:

- a. ratio of value of credit extended to women to total amount extended (country-wide)
- b. ratio of median value of loans to women to median value of all loans (country-wide)

Mission indicator 2 (GDP growth)

Related WID indicators:

- a. ratio of median yearly income of women to median income of total population
- b. number of women ages 15-65 employed per 100,000 women ages 15-65

Mission indicator 3 (gross value of non-traditional exports)

Women may benefit indirectly from an increase in agricultural production for export by virtue of overall improvement in the country's economic position. It does not follow that increased participation of women in production for export is necessarily a benefit to them (although this may well be a benefit to the production goal). For example, if large numbers of women were to be employed in agriculture at low wages, productivity might increase and the cost of the productivity kept low, but women's position might well be worsened. In other words, the goal of increased agricultural productivity for export might be achieved at the expense of women. Therefore WID indicator 6b takes into account women's income from non-traditional agriculture. The objective is not simply increased productivity but the extent to which women benefit from this increased productivity.

Another consideration is the degree to which non-traditional cropping affects women's and children's health. Although an intent, obviously, is to increase family income and thus family well-being through agricultural improvement programs, the effect of non-traditional cropping on diet and health has not been sufficiently documented. It is possible that the programs may inadvertently have a negative effect on crops used for home consumption and thus, a negative effect on diet and health. Therefore, agricultural improvement projects should also include selected social indicators.

Mission indicator 5 (domestic savings)

Related WID indicators:

- a. ratio of total number of women with savings accounts to total number of savings accounts
- b. ratio of median value of accounts in women's names to median value of all accounts

Both of these indicators are inexact in that one does not know if the woman who holds the account actually controls the money, nor to what extent women control money of an account in a man's name. Nevertheless, if data on either (a) or (b) could be obtained, they would give a rough indication of the extent to which women were increasing their success at savings and increasing their savings relative to the total.

Mission indicators 4 (employment), 10 (infant mortality), 11 (immunizations), and 12 and 13 (education)

These indicators measure well-being and access to resources that increase well-being. For such indicators, simply disaggregating by gender, as indicated above, provides information about program effectiveness or country-wide progress in reaching women as well as men. Additional indicators for the health and education areas are given in the next section of this report. Measuring employment rates (Mission indicator 4) is problematic. Employment rates for women are almost always lower than those for men. As economic development continues, however, the employment rate for women will increase, both absolutely and relative to the rate for men. Thus, over time, the ratio of number of women employed to number of women between the ages of 15 and 65, and the ratio of the percentage of women employed to the percentage of men employed are reasonable indicators both of women's economic position and of general economic progress. In our opinion, the ratio of number of women employed to number of women in the labor force (defined as the sum of those employed and those actively seeking work) is not a good indicator in the situation in which many women who may wish to be employed are discouraged from actively seeking employment because of perceived lack of opportunity.

In this report, for indicators that call for a measure of central tendency, we often specify the median. The median is the preferred measure of central tendency with skewed distributions. The distribution of income, for example, often fits this description.

Mission indicator 14 (time needed to complete a criminal law case)

This indicator is related to the objective of increased democratization. The simplest WID indicator for the Mission to use would be 14c (time needed to complete a criminal law case involving a female defendant). This indicator would involve disaggregating the Mission indicator by gender. Both Mission indicator 14 and recommended WID indicator 14c are measures of the efficiency of the justice system in bring speedy resolution of matters brought before them. WID indicator 14c simply measures whether cases involving female defendants are being resolved in a timely fashion.

An important WID goal is to have the judicial system be successful at reducing crimes of assault against women and rape. The opinion of those with whom we spoke in Guatemala is that abuse of women is common. We strongly recommend a study to determine the magnitude of the problem and to identify areas where it is most severe. Furthermore, as part of its efforts to improve the judicial system, the Mission might consider funding a program to train court personnel in dealing with abuse complaints and more effectively protecting women. WID indicators 14a and 14b are recommended for consideration when the record keeping component of the judicial system has improved so that the necessary data are available. Additional indicators and a further discussion are given in Tables 2 and 8.

Other useful indicators of democratization are voting rates and voter registration rates. Data on these could be disaggregated by gender for a comparison of voting and registration rates of women to those of men. In Tables 2 and 8, we propose indicators on women's voting and voter registration rates and a brief discussion of data collection issues.

Mission indicator 15 (% scholars whose attitude toward the USA has changed)

This indicator measures program effectiveness in causing attitude change. Mission staff are dissatisfied with this indicator as it focuses on attitude rather than behavioral change; in addition, constructing a valid and reliable attitude inventory and administering it is time-consuming and costly. An indicator for the Mission might be the extent to which returning Peace Scholars become involved in community improvement or development projects. Specifying this indicator would require village visits and interviews with the scholars and a few key community leaders in each area. This would certainly be easier to accomplish than an attitude survey and would yield more valid information. The WID indicator the Mission is already using (percentage of scholars who are female) is most appropriate. As Mission staff pointed out, using as a WID indicator the degree to which Peace Scholar women (compared to men) become community leaders is not reasonable because women in Maya communities do not often traditionally have public leadership roles. Five female Peace Scholars out of 25 taking a leadership role may be excellent progress for Maya women; yet an indicator showing only 20% of the women assuming leadership would make it look as if the program were unsuccessful for women. The indicator percentage of female scholars addresses the issue of women's participation and the equitable treatment of women in the program. Thus, it is the preferred indicator.

TABLE 2: WID OBJECTIVES AND INDICATORS RECOMMENDED TO ACCOMPANY THE REVISED COUNTRY IMPACT MATRIX

This list includes broad country- and program-wide WID indicators and WID objectives. Each country goal and objective from the "Revised Country Impact Matrix" (see Annex C) are listed first and they are followed by: (1) recommended parallel WID objectives in regular type where unchanged from the "WID Action Plan (USAID/G)" (see Annex D) or in boldface where modified for this report; and (2) recommended WID indicators for the objectives.

I Economic stabilization--growth in aggregate demand

WID objective and indicator: None. This indicator cannot be disaggregated by gender. See comments following Table 1.

II Structural reforms for sustained and rapid economic growth

IIA Expand and diversify productive economic opportunities

WID objective IIA 1: Increase women's participation in micro, small, and medium-sized enterprises at ownership, management, technical and worker levels

Indicators:

For each enterprise size, ratio of number of enterprises owned by women to number of enterprises in the category begun by Mission initiatives

Ratio of number of women in managerial or administrative positions to total number in managerial or administrative positions (Mission-initiated projects)

Ratio of number of women in technical positions to total number of positions (Mission-initiated projects)

Ratio of number of women employed to total persons employed in Mission initiated projects

Ratio of value of stock held by women to total value of stock (if data are available)

WID objective IIA 2: Increase size and number of loans to women. (Note: the following indicators may be used to assess women's equitable access to credit country-wide and, if stated in terms of Mission initiated projects, to assess their access to project extended credit.)

Indicators:

Ratio of median value of loans to women to median value of all loans (for each loan size category: small, medium, and large)

Ratio of number of women getting loans to total number of persons getting loans

WID objective IIA 3: Increase employment of women

Indicators:

Ratio of number of women employed to total persons employed

Number of women age 15-65 employed per 100,000 women age 15-65

Ratio of median hourly wage of employed women to median hourly wage of employed men

(Note: employment indicators should also be reported separately for Maya and for Maya women, e.g., ratio of median hourly wage of employed Maya women to median hourly wage overall; ratio of number of Maya employed per 100,000 Maya to number of persons employed per 100,000 population [age 15-65 for males and females]. Also, when using indicators of employment, the definition of "employed" needs to be specified, e.g., do wage and salary positions include self-employment? part-time as well as full-time employment? Also, see comments on employment indicators on page 17.)

IIB Increase Savings

WID objective IIB: Increase savings of women

Indicators:

Ratio of total number of savings accounts in women's names to total number of accounts

Ratio of median value of savings accounts in women's names to median value of all accounts

IIC Increase Agricultural Production

WID objective IIC 1: Increase women's technical skill and efficiency at using new methods for traditional agriculture and extraction. (Note: "extraction" refers to the harvesting of naturally occurring forest products. Indicators concerning extraction will be relevant once the Maya Biosphere project is underway. The Mission is interested in food sustainability and might turn its attention to traditional crops; if it does so the indicators below will be relevant.)

Indicators:

For each trainee category, ratio of number of women trained as promoters, as trainers, and as workers to number of positions in the category

Ratio of amount of traditional crops produced before AID program to amount produced after program

Median of women's income derived from extractive products

WID objective IIC 2: Increase women's participation, technical and managerial skills, and efficiency in non-traditional crop production

Indicators:

For each trainee category, ratio of number of women trained (in non-traditional crop production or marketing) as promoters, trainers, and workers to total number trained in the category

Mean income of women derived from non-traditional crops (Note: non-traditional crops are marketed; traditional crops are usually for home consumption)

Health of women and children (Note: see comments on pages 16 and 17 and see Table 5 for health indicators)

IID Manage and preserve natural resources

WID objective IID: Expand the participation of women at the administrative, technical, and worker levels in reforestation, water management,

conservation, and non-depleting, non-polluting
agricultural techniques

Indicators:

For each trainee category, ratio of number of women trained in the natural resource area to total number trained in the category

Ratio of number of women employed in natural resource conservation projects to total number employed

III Spread the benefits of growth

IIIA Increase access to voluntary family planning services

WID objective IIIA: Same as Mission objective IIIA above

Indicators:

Couple-year protection

Number of births per 1000 women aged 15-45
(Note: data available every 5 years from AID/G demographic and health survey.)

IIIB Reduce infant/maternal mortality and morbidity

WID objective IIIB: Same as Mission objective IIIB above

Indicators: same as Mission indicators (see Annexes B and C), plus:

Infant mortality rate by gender

Mortality rate of women due to childbirth complications (ratio of number of pregnant women who died during pregnancy plus number who died within 3 months of giving birth in the last year relative to number of women who gave birth in the last year)

Weight for age for children (indicator of malnutrition; see discussion in Table 5).

(Note: health indicators should also be reported for Maya as compared to the Ladino population, e.g., ratio of Maya infant mortality rate to Ladino infant mortality rate.)

IIIC Improve educational opportunities

WID objective IIIC: Increase literacy and educational achievement of females and bilingualism of Maya girls

Indicators: same as Mission's (see Annex C), plus:

Ratio of bilingualism rate of 14-year-old Maya girls to bilingualism rate of Maya boys

Ratio of literacy rate of 14-year-old Maya girls to literacy rate of 14-year-old Ladino children

Percentage of Maya girls age 14 who have completed 6th grade (Note: 6th grade is the Mission's long-term target; but 4th grade could be the short-term target as this level is the minimum necessary for maintaining literacy. The indicator could be changed accordingly, or, preferably, both indicators could be used.)

Ratio of number of Maya girls age 14 who have completed 6th grade to number of Maya boys age 14 who have completed 6th grade

IV Strengthen democratic institutions and processes

WID objective IV 1: Increase women's participation in executive, legislative, and judicial branches of government

Indicator:

Percentage of women in each of the above categories at national and local levels

WID objective IV 2: Increase women's registration and voting rates (Note: The Mission has data on women's voter registration rates but currently has no way of tracking any indicators for women's voting rates. The earliest attempt to do so would be late 1993 for planned local elections. Therefore, some of the indicators recommended below are suggestions for the future. For further discussion the comments on Table 8.)

Indicators:

Ratio of number of women registered to vote to number eligible to be registered

Women's voting rate (i.e., ratio of number of women voting to number registered)

Number of women voting per 100,000 women at or over the age of majority

Ratio of women's voting rate to men's voting rate

(Note: indicators on voting should include Maya rates, e.g., ratio of number of Maya women voting per 100,000 Maya women at or over the age of majority to number of persons voting per 100,000 population at or over the age of majority. See comments on Table 8.)

WID objective IV 3: Improve women's ability to obtain redress of assault crimes against them (Note: Current Mission programing does not address the problem of assault of women. However, as the Mission continues its efforts to improve the judicial system, we recommend that they consider addressing this problem and suggest the following indicators for future use. See the comments following Table 8 for further discussion.)

Indicators:

Number of complaints of assaulting a woman or rape filed per 100,000 women in the population (Note: target is an increase; see discussion following Table 8 of this report.)

Ratio of conviction rate of those accused of assaulting a woman or rape to number of such cases filed

Average length of sentence for those convicted of assaulting a woman or rape

(Note: Indicators of abuse should also be reported separately for Maya women.)

TABLE 3: RECOMMENDED WID INDICATORS FOR AGRICULTURAL PROJECTS

1. Percentage of project activities focused on areas in which women have primary responsibility and control of decision making
2. Proportion of budgetary allocations to areas likely to affect women
3. Proportion of consultants' and contractors' scopes of work that explicitly require the consideration of gender roles in the areas of concern
4. Changes in total family income (measure before, during and after project completion)
5. Size and sources of women's income before and after project
6. Ratio of amount of project-related credit extended to women relative to total amount extended
7. Proportion of income controlled by women and intra-family distribution of resources
8. Family health and diet quality
9. Women's labor time allocation by task (before and during project)
10. Type and amount of crops and livestock produced by women
11. Number of hectares purchased during project by women relative to total purchased
12. Number of land purchases that include wife's name as a co-purchaser relative to number with only male purchaser
13. Degree to which women are included in all market development activities

Comments on Table 3

Mission projects in the agricultural sector include encouraging agricultural diversification (by technical support, terracing and mini-irrigation), strengthening of agricultural cooperatives

(including training and credit), land purchasing assistance, small coffee farmer assistance, and assistance in the development of markets for the produce of small farms. The projects primarily target the small farms of the Highland area.

In most cases, the farm is a family enterprise requiring the labor and cooperation of husband, wife, and children. Programs target improvement in productivity and income and usually implement improvements through the male household representative, bypassing women either as project participants or beneficiaries. Women may benefit indirectly as the income of the family increases, but unless women exercise some control over the increased income, the benefits may be minimal. The project designs usually assume that only the male needs to receive training and that only he can do the work necessary to make improvements. Thus, WID considerations in the design of these projects are essential.

Gender considerations in the design of all projects in the agricultural sector should include objectives and methods for increasing the participation of women. Particular care should be exercised to ensure that the participation of women occurs not only among workers and beneficiaries but also in managerial positions, as trainers, and among those given access to credit, opportunities to purchase land, and opportunities to participate in training. All project evaluations should include indicators of women's participation and of the proportion of project resources going to women, as shown in Table 3. In addition to participation rates, project impact must be considered. The effect of non-traditional cash cropping on women's and children's well-being is unclear. Thus, in the indicators for the agricultural area, we have recommended a number that assess women's income, family diet and so forth. Also, indicators from the health area (see Table 5) should be used to see what effect cash cropping has on women's and children's health. Comparisons of women's and children's well-being should be made between similar regions with and without cash cropping. Finally, the effect of cash cropping on women's day-to-day lives must be monitored to see to what degree the project causes unreasonable demands to be made of women. Here studies of women's time use are important.

A classic problem in development efforts is that projects tend to erode women's traditional sources of income. As the area being developed becomes more technical and profitable it tends to be taken over by men. Women in rural communities in Guatemala are traditionally the marketers. As new markets are developed in urban areas and for export, there is a real danger that marketing will become an exclusively male activity. Given women's experience in the local market place, however, they are excellent candidates for inclusion in the development of these more sophisticated market activities.

The AID document, Gender Issues in Agriculture and Natural Resource Management (Russo, et al., 1989) is an excellent guide to

program planning, implementation and evaluation and therefore an excellent guide to helping implement some of the above suggestions. This document is the source of the first three indicators suggested. In addition, project planners and evaluators will find Nieves's (1985) report "Women in Agriculture in the Western Highlands of Guatemala: Suggestions for Data Collection" helpful.

Several of the indicators recommended in Table 3 are the type that must be specified by the "complex data" discussed in Sections II and IV of this report. For example, data on women's income and on family diet quality can only be obtained by home visits, interviews, and observations. Other indicators (e.g., amount of credit extended) require only enumeration data and can be obtained directly from project records.

Annex E1 provides more detail on indicators for one particular agricultural project (HADS).

TABLE 4: RECOMMENDED WID INDICATORS FOR NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PROJECTS

1. Percentage of project participants who are women
This should be specified at every level, for example:
 - % receiving training who are women
 - % promoters who are women
 - % in management who are women
 - % in technical assistance staff who are women
 - % of scopes of work that specify the consideration of women's roles
2. In addition, AID should contract studies for information about women's roles in activities likely to be affected by project activities, for example, the problem of pesticide contamination. Most information on women's roles in pesticide use and handling is from informal observation. Accurate information on women's roles is necessary if the Mission hopes to assist in preventing pesticide contamination. As another example, very little is known about the role of women in the Peten. The Maya Biosphere paper notes this and includes plans to study women.
3. There is an extensive list of natural resource WID indicators in Annex E2 on the Maya Biosphere Project, the Mission's largest and newest natural resource effort. Additionally, depending on the project, many of the indicators from the agriculture area (Table 3 and Annex E1) are appropriate.

Comments on Table 4

Projects involving the management of natural resources are cross-cutting projects; that is, they may occur as part of agricultural projects (e.g., terracing farm land), infra-structure projects (e.g., planting trees for firewood) or stand on their own (e.g., the Maya Biosphere project).

Threats to the environment in rural Guatemala are largely due to intensive farming and land tenure problems, lack of access to long-term credit, and inadequate marketing.

The Highlands is an agricultural area with a high population density. Most of the land is mountainous with very steep slopes

and most of the land is farmed. Farmers generally plant without terracing the slopes which causes severe soil erosion. The recent introduction of chemical fertilizers and pesticides presents a serious threat to water supplies. Furthermore, since the people depend on wood for fuel, the area has been almost completely deforested. Compounding these problems is the fact that the farms in the area are small, so efforts to introduce better land management techniques mean trying to reach tens of thousands of farmers.

The Peten is the other area of major concern. This is a relatively flat jungle area with thin but heavy soil that is fragile, because of poor fertility, high temperatures, and high levels of participation. The population density has been low but is now rapidly increasing. Farmers practice slash and burn agriculture which, under the conditions of increasing population pressure, results in deforestation and soil depletion. The Maya Biosphere Project proposal paper estimates that the area is being deforested at the rate of 40,000 hectares per year.

To address the problems in the Highlands, the Mission has initiated projects to improve farm management by irrigation, terracing, and tree planting projects. In the Peten, natural resource management efforts will stem from the proposed Maya Biosphere Project. Here the effort will be to protect forest lands by strengthening institutions involved in natural resource management and by developing ways for the people of the Peten to extract products from the forest without destroying it.

Addressing gender issues in these projects means taking into account the fact that women are involved in farming and in obtaining water and firewood and, therefore, need to be included as project participants and beneficiaries of technical information about land management. Programs tend to target men as recipients of technical information and as project participants and neglect the fact that women are involved in these activities and need information also. Especially important for women is the problem of pesticides. Applying pesticides may be done by men, women, or children. Women wash the clothes of those applying pesticides and so may get a second dose of pesticide from contaminated water. Since pesticides are likely to be stored in the home, women often decide where and how they are stored. Finally, women are responsible for fetching water for the home; they sometimes use empty pesticide containers for this purpose.

In addition, projects must include women in the managerial function. Most natural resource projects are implemented through regional Guatemalan government offices by staff not particularly aware of women's roles or concerned with including women in managerial positions. Thus, the Mission is constrained by the orientation of the program implementers.

Further information on indicators on women in natural resource projects is given in Annex E2 on the Maya Biosphere Project.

TABLE 5: RECOMMENDED WID INDICATORS FOR HEALTH PROJECTS

1. Infant mortality rates, by gender (i.e., number of deaths per 1000 live births)
2. Nutritional status of children, by gender. One indicator of nutritional status is "weight for age." Others are discussed in the reports cited in the comments below.
3. Vaccination coverage rates, by gender
4. Mortality rates, by gender, for diarrhea and respiratory illness
5. Oral rehydration use rates, by gender
6. Water and sanitation coverage. Number of homes with direct service to home or within 200 meters of home for urban areas, within to-be-specified number of meters of the home for rural areas. Number of homes with latrines.
7. Trends in infant breastfeeding and weaning
8. Ratio of number of women participating in project-related activities to total number of persons participating (disaggregated and reported by area of activity)

Comments on Table 5

Mission projects to improve health include disease prevention through immunization and oral rehydration therapy, nutrition education (e.g., teaching the preparation of non-traditional foods), health education, (e.g., teaching sanitary practices), making contraceptive devices, and information available, and water and sanitation projects.

Generally, health programs provide obvious and direct benefits to women. Indicators in this area can often be simple enumeration ones, for example, the ratio of girls to boys receiving immunizations, or the ratio of number of girls receiving immunizations to number eligible in the target area. An upcoming report, "Guatemala: Trends in Health and Nutrition Indicators in the 80s" by R. Miller, B. Burkhalter and E. Burleigh (contracted through Center for International Health, Arlington, VA) discusses

indicators in the health area, including a variety of nutritional status indicators and the importance of monitoring breastfeeding trends, and makes suggestions about sources of data to specify indicators (e.g., government census, special survey).

The report, "Strategies for Demographic and Health Research Among Guatemala's Mayan Population" (by B.C. Newman and V.M. Ward) provides valuable advice for research on health indicators. The reports, "The Maya Population of Guatemala: A Further Analysis of the 1987 Demographic and Health Survey" (by DataPro) and "Encuesta Nacional de Salud MaternoInfantil" (by Ministerio de Salud Publica y Asistencia Social, Guatemala) provide data on maternal and child health. (See Annex H, Documents Reviewed, for full citations.)

Annex E4 provides more indicators and objectives for a project in the health area.

TABLE 6: RECOMMENDED WID INDICATORS FOR EDUCATION PROJECTS

1. Ratio of number of women trained or educated to total number trained (for every program where training is given: new bilingual teachers, promoters, supervisors, bilingual MA degree graduates; graduates at all other levels targeted by Mission programs; those receiving skill-upgrading seminars; regional, district and department staff trained; adult professionals receiving training; etc.)
2. Ratio of number of new women teachers assigned to total number of teachers assigned
3. Ratio of number of bilingual teachers assigned to total number of teachers assigned in Maya areas
4. Ratio of number of girls enrolled to total enrollment at every grade level in target area
5. Ratio of number of girls enrolled to number of girls eligible to enroll in target area
6. Ratio of number of girls age 14 who have completed 6th grade to total number of 14-year olds completing 6th grade in target area
7. Ratio of number of 14-year-old girls who have completed 6th grade to number of 14-year-old girls in target area
8. Ratio of number of years to produce a 6th grade girl graduate to number of years to produce a 6th grade boy graduate in target area
9. Ratio of literacy rate of women to literacy rate of population as a whole. (Where target population is primarily Maya: same indicator with "literacy rate of Maya women")
10. Ratio of bilingualism rate of Maya women to that of Maya men
11. Ranking of curricular materials (used by students and in professional training programs) and of training programs for degree of inclusion of females in examples and illustrations, and for degree to which females are shown in a variety of roles, including those of authority

Comments on Table 6

Mission projects in the education sector include working with the Ministry of Education in developing and strengthening a bilingual education program, developing and implementing a program at a university in the Highlands to encourage degree completion by disadvantaged indigenous students, improving management of primary education, working with the private sector to implement a program for literacy of the rural poor, training of public and private sector representatives in labor relations and management, and increasing the number of books available to university students.

In education, the "gender problem" in Guatemala is that boys are much more likely than girls to complete grade school and more likely to go on to secondary and higher education. Women have both lower literacy rates and lower bilingualism rates than men. These problems are most acute among the Maya. Indicators 4, 6, 8, 9 and 10 are indicators of gender equity.

The second problem is that Maya children generally have less access to education than do Ladino children (that is, there is inequity between Maya and Ladino). Indicators 5 and 7 are indicators of access for girls in general; that is, over time, they provide information about the progress for a particular group (in this case, females). In rural Highland communities, indicators 5 and 7 will measure access of the group Maya girls because the population is over 90% Maya in these areas. Where the target population is more mixed (Maya and Ladino), however, indicators of ethnic equity should also be used. For example, ratio number of Maya girls enrolled to number of Ladina girls enrolled and, ratio of number of Maya children enrolled to number of Ladino children enrolled are appropriate. Such ethnic equity indicators may also be used at the country-wide level to measure the country's overall progress at providing equitable access to education to both ethnic groups.

The Mission currently does not have a way to track all the indicators recommended here, specifically, indicators 5, 8 and 10.

The Mission staff seems particularly sensitive to planning educational programs to reach Maya primary school girls. We did not review other educational programs (e.g., technical, university, or adult professional training seminars) but the lack of data on gender in semi-annual reports suggests the possibility that the commitment to reach females in education and training programs above the grade school level may not be high. It is essential that efforts to reach females not simply improve the situation of those at the lowest educational levels, but include efforts to recruit women into technical, professional, and adult training programs as well. While the available pool of women as potential training recipients at these levels may be small, the requirement of having at least some women in these programs sends

girls and young women the message that their efforts to become educated will be rewarded with further opportunities.

At a more complex level, the gender question is whether the instructional materials used and the training programs themselves (for teachers, promoters, etc.) are designed to appeal to women and girls. Here we suggest a qualitative review of programs and materials, rating each as to the extent to which it includes females and shows them in a variety of roles, including roles of authority.

See Annex E3 for a discussion of a particular education project, the BEST project.

TABLE 7: RECOMMENDED WID INDICATORS FOR PRIVATE SECTOR PROJECTS

1. Credit: In general, the ratio of the number of women receiving loans to total recipient population or to recipient men. For example:
 - Housing guarantees: ratio of number of female heads of household receiving loans to total number of people receiving loans
 - Businesses: ratio of number of women entrepreneurs receiving loans to total number of entrepreneurs receiving loans
 - Loan size: ratio of median loan to women to median loan to men
2. Training and Technical Assistance: ratio of number of women receiving training or technical assistance in any program to total number trained or receiving technical assistance
3. Employment Generation: ratio of new jobs employing women to total number of jobs resulting from AID initiatives
4. Implementation: ratio of the number of technical and professional women hired to total number of technical and professional personnel hired to implement a project

Comments on Table 7

The Private Sector Office supports programs strengthening businesses and entrepreneurs, low-cost housing, and private voluntary organizations. The Private Enterprise Development Project and the Micro-Business Promotion Project work with small, medium, and micro-sized enterprises. While the latter project primarily offers credit and training and has specific goals for reaching women, the former works on the policy level with the government and business associations. The Private Sector Development Coordination promotes non-traditional activities under the Caribbean Basin Initiative. Both this project and the Entrepreneurial Development Project work with the International Executive Service Corps to provide technical assistance. The Low-Cost Housing Program provides loan guarantees for the construction of low-cost housing. Finally, assistance from various sources for

private voluntary organizations is coordinated through ASINDES, an umbrella agency.

Several projects in this sector promote the development of certain kinds of businesses, such as "draw-back" assembly work on garments and supports for non-traditional agricultural products. Periodic studies should monitor how the development of these industries affects women. An example of longitudinal monitoring is the studies of towns affected by a non-traditional agricultural crop project (Kusterer et al., 1981; Blumberg, 1985; Von Braun, 1987, cited in Katz, 1990). These studies suggest that while increased use of non-traditional crops may increase family income on the whole, money available to women decreases, and children's nutritional status may not improve with an increase in male-controlled income. In another example, employment in assembly plants was cited as a better alternative to traditional jobs (Joeques and Maoayedi, 1987). Yet a beginning seamstress in Guatemala City earns only Q7 (\$1.65) a day, less than many domestic servants. Studies of family income distribution, women's work load, and family nutrition (such as that proposed in Nieves, 1990) can measure whether project "success" reaches all targeted beneficiaries.

Indicators for private sector projects should measure women's access to credit, training, technical assistance, participation in implementation, and new jobs generated by the businesses supported. In addition, close attention should be paid to the kinds of businesses being promoted and their effect on women. Project planners will find Lycette and Jaramillo (1984) on shelter issues and Gender Issues in Small-Scale Enterprise (Otero, 1987) useful.

The second indicator in Table 7 should include measurement of women receiving training at every level. For example the PED project found that one-fourth of those enrolled in training courses were women, but there were only 4 women among the 46 business owners who completed the crucial basic cycle.

Indicator 4 is important in two ways. First, women in professional positions provide role models to younger women. Second, women may be more understanding of and effective at dealing with constraints to women's participation than men.

Within the Private Sector Office, the Micro-business Promotion Project was selected for detailed analysis because it affects a large percentage of women. Specific indicators for that project are found in Annex E5.

TABLE 8: RECOMMENDED WID INDICATORS FOR DEMOCRATIC INITIATIVE PROJECTS

1. Where training or education is provided, ratio of women trained in each category to total number of people trained in the category
2. Ratio of number of women initiating criminal complaints after project start-up to number initiating before project start-up (baseline)
3. Number of complaints of assaulting a woman or rape filed per 100,000 women in the population (target is an increase; see discussion)
4. Ratio of conviction rate of those accused of assaulting a woman or rape to number of cases filed
5. Average length of sentence for convictions for assault of a woman or rape
6. Number of women murdered per 100,000 women in the population
7. Ratio of number of homicide of a woman convictions to number of women murdered
9. Ratio of number of women registered to vote to number eligible to be registered
10. Ratio of number of women voting to number of women registered
11. Number of women voting per 100,000 women at or over the age of majority
12. Ratio of women's voting rate to men's voting rate

Comments on Table 8

Democratic Initiatives include three types of projects. The CAPS and CLASP scholarship programs send Guatemalans to the United States for short-term and long-term training. Both the CAPS project and the new CLASP project target a high percentage of women to be trained. CAPS has been successful in meeting this goal.

The second set of projects aims at strengthening the judicial and legislative branches of the Guatemalan Government. These projects include the Improving the Administration of Justice Project (see Annex E6) and the Harvard Law School Judicial Development Project, which works with the judiciary. The Harvard Project's pilot court might be of particular benefit to Maya women (many of whom do not speak Spanish) because the project includes translators for non-Spanish speakers.

Third, the Election Support Project provides computer facilities for voter information.

The Mission is already collecting the data suggested by indicator 1 (ratio of women trained or educated to total number of people trained or educated) for some of its programs, such as the CAPS and CLASP projects. As other programs get under way, the Mission will be able to use this indicator for them; for example, in the new Improving the Administration of Justice Project, the indicator ratio of women trained as interpreters to total persons trained as interpreters can be used. The Administration of Justice Project, however, does not currently have a component that would deal with the items in indicators 2 through 7 concerning assault of women. Furthermore, collecting data for these indicators may not currently be feasible. Nevertheless, as the Mission continues its efforts to strengthen the judicial system, it should consider program components to improve the system's effectiveness at protecting women. Therefore, we present these indicators for the Mission to consider for future use and include a brief discussion of them.

A common problem for women in Guatemala, as in many countries, is physical abuse and the ineffectiveness of legal and police systems at limiting that abuse. Since domestic violence is likely to go unreported when women expect no help from the system, an increase in complaints filed by women indicates better access of women to legal recourse, increased confidence that the system will help, and increased societal intolerance of abuse of women. Homicide rates are very high in Guatemala. The project paper for the Administration of Justice Project reports that the homicide rate was 113.6 per 100,000 population in 1981. This rate is likely to be an underestimate since "disappearance" is not uncommon. Although a number of homicides go unreported, however, homicide is much more likely to be reported than is physical abuse of a woman. Therefore, the targets are a decrease in the homicide rate and an increase in number of complaints of assaulting a woman or rape filed.

The purpose of a homicide-rate indicator is to measure the effectiveness of the judicial system in protecting citizens. Generally, a decreasing homicide rate is an indication of progress. Where many homicides go unreported because they are politically motivated or there is corruption in the armed forces or police, however, an increase in reported homicides may be a

sign that the system is improving. In any case, although homicide-rate indicators are difficult to interpret, the data are worth recording and reporting. Indicators on the judicial system should also be reported by ethnic group, especially since the Maya have been the target of violent repression. Thus, the homicide rate for Maya and similar ethnic disaggregations of the indicators relative to that of Ladinos should be reported.

As mentioned in the comments on Table 1, the Mission might consider a study of the abuse of women and a program to train public prosecutors in dealing with abuse complaints.

Indicators 9 through 11 are those of access to the electoral process and indicator 12 concerns gender equity in the access to the electoral process. With the exception of voter registration rates, the Mission currently has no way of tracking indicators for increasing women's voting rate. The earliest possibility of using these indicators would be in 1993 for the planned local elections. We include these indicators on voting and voter registration rates for possible use at that time.

The statistics that are available on voter registration indicate that a low percentage of women were registered to vote in the last election. The indicator ratio of number of women registered to vote to number eligible to be registered applied to various areas, will provide information about where the Mission should direct its efforts to increase women's voter registration rates.

Voting rates should be disaggregated by ethnic group, as well as by gender, since increasing the participation of the Maya in democratic processes is one of USAID/G's goals. For example, when it is able to do so, the Mission could use the indicator ratio of Maya voting rate to Ladino voting rate. Since data on the ethnicity of voters may not be directly available, the Mission may arrive at an approximation of this indicator by comparing voting rates in areas that are predominantly Maya to areas that are predominantly Ladino. Since urban and rural voting rates are likely to be different, care should be taken to see that the areas chosen for comparison are similar along the urban-rural dimension.

A more detailed analysis of a specific project in the Democratic Initiatives area, the Improving the Administration of Justice Project, is presented in Annex E6.

IV. IMPLEMENTING THE GENDER INDICATOR SYSTEM: CONSTRAINTS AND RECOMMENDED SOLUTIONS

This section deals with problems that might be encountered in implementing the Gender Indicator System and suggests solutions to overcome the problems. Here the concern is complex data indicators, that is, those that go beyond enumeration and concern the context of women's day-to-day lives. This section documents the crucial nature of complex indicators in sound project planning, monitoring, and impact analysis.

In the first portion of this section, we discuss observations during five days of field visits in the Highlands where we noted the degree of women's participation in projects and constraints due to the "culture" of projects themselves. In the second portion we suggest ways to overcome these constraints.

Our task was to define gender indicators for the Mission, that is, to identify variables that would show how the programs and projects of the Mission affected women. There is, however, a problem with the strategy of focusing primarily on indicators as a way to attain the goal of favorable project impact on women; in Guatemala, projects that are not specifically designed to include gender considerations systematically exclude women. This is true for two reasons. First, the Western cultural beliefs about the gender roles of the indigenous population categorize males as the income earners, as heads of household, as the only ones capable of hard physical labor, and as the family contact with the public world; concomitantly, they categorize indigenous women as confined to the domestic sphere as wives, helpmates, and mothers. These beliefs tend to result in projects that consider women as recipients of exclusively domestic-related services and training (e.g., receiving potable water at the home or lessons in cooking non-traditional foods). Second, there is a gender division of labor among the Maya (the primary target of projects in the Highlands where the Mission is devoting much of its effort). Wherever there is a gender division of labor, development projects will not be entirely successful unless both women's and men's roles in project related activities are taken into account.

Thus, focusing solely on gender indicators, rather than on project design to include women, is not an effective way to achieve the goal of favorable project impact on women. This point has been well documented in AID/Washington's review of women in development experience from 1973-1985 (Carloni, 1987). Contrary to Carloni's expectations at the start of her study, she found:

Gender analysis by itself...failed to show the expected relationship to achievement of project objectives....Low levels of analysis were often associated with failure to achieve objectives, but better analysis of gender differences was no guarantee that objectives would be achieved....the

projects that did the best job of gender analysis nevertheless rarely made appropriate adaptations to overcome barriers to women's participation or to increase the benefit to women. (p. 13)

There is another, more technical problem with developing useful gender indicators. In many cases, the data needed to specify the indicator are difficult and costly to collect. It is a fairly straightforward task to collect enumeration data, e.g., on how many homes have water, how many miles of new roads were constructed, or how many women received credit. Collecting data on income, health, literacy or diet may be much more difficult. This is the type of data, however, that is needed for baseline information to design projects and for subsequent project monitoring and evaluation.

This leads us to three recommendations:

- o Consideration of women should be incorporated into the design of every project. This should be done not just in the social soundness analysis, but in the project objectives and log frame.
- o The Mission should contract studies to assess the current condition of women in various geographic areas where the Mission is focusing its efforts. Such studies would document the needs of women (and men), yield information on skills that women already possess or want to obtain to increase income, assist in including women in project planning, and provide a baseline against which to measure project WID success.
- o The Mission should contract follow-up studies in project areas to assess how the project has affected women.

It is only through the type of studies suggested above that the Mission can get genuinely useful information on women, that is, information useful for incorporating gender considerations in project design, designing programs that reach women, and evaluating the impact of those programs on women.

Until such studies can be completed, the best short-term strategy is simply to disaggregate by gender the data that are currently being collected as part of project monitoring and evaluation. Earlier in this report we referred to such data as "enumerative" to distinguish them from complex indicators. The difficulty is in specifying and collecting data for the complex indicators. Here one must consider the constraints on data collection that exist in Guatemala. These constraints include the geography, ethnic differences, and the "culture" of the projects themselves.

THE SITUATION FOR WOMEN IN THE HIGHLANDS

The following comments are based on five days of field visits in the Highlands, visits to a project in the city and conversations with Mission staff and Guatemala regional personnel. Although not representing a comprehensive picture of Guatemala's Highlands, they provide evidence for our findings that (1) projects do not reach women if they have not been specifically designed to do so; (2) the collection of truly useful data on women will be time-consuming and require special studies of an anthropological nature.

Ethnic and Geographic Constraints

The Highlands is a poor, densely populated, primarily agricultural region inhabited by several distinct groups of Maya peoples (primarily Quiche, Mam and Ke'chiquel) and relatively few Ladinos. Each of the Maya groups has a distinct language. These are not "dialects" in the sense of regional variations of a language that with some effort can be more or less understood from someone from another region. They are truly distinct languages; Mam is as unintelligible to a Quiche speaker as Spanish is to a French speaker. The different language groups live in close proximity--on one side of a valley one might find Mam speakers and on the other, 10 miles away, one might find Quiche speakers. Spanish is the official language of Guatemala and the one necessary to do business outside of one's most immediate community. While the majority of Maya men with whom we spoke were bilingual in Spanish and their indigenous language, women by-and-large speak only their Maya language. In town and in the market place we encountered bilingual women, but in the country side 10 miles away, we entered communities where no women or only one woman in the community was bilingual, and most of the women were illiterate as well.

Due to the rough mountainous terrain and poor and inadequate roads, travel in the area is difficult. Beyond the center of any town, most homes do not have electricity or water. Traveling from a rural Highland city to a town or village 20 miles away involves an hour's drive which had best be done in a four-wheel-drive vehicle. Although the Highlands are primarily agricultural, population density is high.

Constraints Due to the "Culture" of the Project

We found that only projects with a specific component oriented toward reaching women, or with project staff committed to WID issues, have done so. Projects assisting women in the micro-enterprise of weaving, and the CAPS project, which sends about equal numbers of men and women to the USA for training, are examples of those that intended to include women and that were successful at doing so. But projects without that specific intention--and they are the majority--or without staff committed to reaching women, do not do so.

In the farming families we visited, the women were always active participants in the agricultural enterprise. Typically they weeded, irrigated, and engaged in other tasks as well, including harvesting, sorting, and preparing vegetables for market. Some women own land. A few work at planting and terracing. Despite the intense involvement of women in farming, our admittedly limited visits showed that agricultural improvement projects did not explicitly include women as project participants. All the promoters were men, as were all the recipients of agricultural training or information; and almost all the recipients of payments for terracing were men. We were told the by the regional Guatemalan government personnel who implement the agricultural programs that, there was no point in paying women for terracing as they always give the money to their husbands. The assumptions of the DIGESA staff with whom we spoke seemed to be that women do not own farm land, make no decisions about jointly-held land, are involved in farming either not at all or in only passive secondary roles and need no technical information about new cropping techniques.

As far as we could determine, women were not consulted about sanitation and water projects, nor engaged in any of the project labor. The five health promoters in the region we visited were all men even though the people they were educating were women and the education was in the traditional women's sphere (e.g., how to care for a child with diarrhea). We were told that women could not be promoters because promoters are required to walk long distances. Women were presumed to benefit from the project by the availability of potable water and time savings. We visited one project where potable water had been available at the homes for three years. We could see no difference in the economic well-being of these families compared to those who had no water. Both the women who had benefited from this project and their husbands expressed a desire for training to help women generate income. This goal, however, was not a part of project design.

In the schools, with one exception, we found the well-known pattern of approximately equal enrollment for boys and girls in the first grade, with girls' enrollment diminishing with every grade thereafter. We saw sixth grade classes of all boys, a few classes with a sprinkling of girls, and one class with a single brave girl amongst all the boys.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR RESEARCH ON WOMEN

We begin with the strong assertion that collecting useful data on women requires, in most cases, interviewing women. Given the above-described situation in Guatemala, data collection on women requires interviewers who speak the Mayan languages. Because the language groups are in close proximity, getting a picture of even a small geographic region means that more than one language must be used to conduct interviews. Fluency in the language is

required for interviewers, and in most cases is available only from native speakers. Because travel is so time-consuming it would be most efficient for an interviewer to complete interviews in one village before moving on to the next. This would require staying in each village at least several days.

Research must include enough communities to provide an accurate picture of a region. The lives of women who live in town and those who live a few miles out of town are quite different. Our impression is that the differences among Maya groups account for less of the variation in the lives of women than do the rural-town dichotomy and socioeconomic class distinctions based on the sources and amounts of family income. For example, we found that where the family income came from selling firewood or weaving, the women were more likely to be bilingual; where the family were farmers, the women were more likely to be monolingual. Thus it is necessary to interview not only women who live in town, but also those who live close to town and in small communities surrounding the town. It is also important to interview women from regions where families have different sources of income.

Ethnic differences are, however, also relevant. We found, for example, that Mam women sometimes own farm land inherited from their parents but Quiche and Ke'chiquel women do not. This is essential information for agricultural improvement projects, which always assume that the farm is owned by the man and thus never direct training or resources to women farmers. In any case, given ethnic diversity, it is necessary to draw samples of women from the major ethnic groups represented in a target area.

Since the population consists largely of poorly educated or illiterate farmers who do not keep written records of farm transactions, the assessment of income may be difficult. Yet, income is a singularly important piece of information as an indicator on women's well-being. Income can be assessed only through indirect methods such as observing the type and condition of the family home and possessions and asking a variety of questions about expenditures. In addition, monolingualism and illiteracy cannot be assessed with any single direct measure because definitions of linguistic and writing competence vary.

Finally, there are the problems presented by the "culture" of the projects. They revolve around several issues: how and by whom data are collected; the gender neutrality of many projects; and the usefulness of the data that could be collected by incorporating WID indicators.

Much AID project money is channeled through the Guatemalan government or private agencies (e.g., CARE) and they are responsible for the basic record keeping necessary to assess projects. Keeping the detailed records necessary for AID to do sophisticated project impact studies is not a high priority for these agencies, nor would we expect that it should or could be.

What kind of data can we reasonably expect these agencies to collect? We suggest the following: 1) where promoters, trainers or technical people are hired, number of women relative to total number of persons hired or trained for each job category; 2) where education or training is given to project recipients, number of women relative to total number of persons attending the training sessions; 3) where money is disbursed (in loans, payments for terracing, or for other reasons), number of women receiving loans or payments relative to total number of persons receiving loans or payments, and amount of money loaned or paid to women relative to total amount loaned or paid; 4) in the schools, number of girls relative to total number of children enrolled at each grade level, and number of girls relative to number of boys repeating each grade.

Some data on health (morbidity and mortality), literacy, bilingualism, and income might be obtained from the government census, government departments (health, education, etc.), or hospital reports. But, we stress again that for indicators to assess project impact on women, specific studies of a given target region are necessary.

We frequently heard that Maya women were traditional, conservative, and subordinate to their husbands as the rationale for targeting men as household heads and guardians of the well-being of women and children. While there may be some truth in this, we saw another reality. The powerfully common theme in all our visits with women was that they were eager to improve their lives, especially their meager incomes. At the end of interviews, we asked if the woman had any questions of us or wanted to say anything else. And to a woman the response was: "We want to learn more; can someone come and help us; remember us."

In almost every case, women talked of self-improvement efforts. In one community the only bilingual woman was teaching the others Spanish; in another, the women had very well-attended consciousness-raising meetings, organized by the church, on what they called "human dignity;" in several others, women had tried to organize to learn a new skill, sometimes getting as far as promise of a trainer being sent in, but the promises were not realized. In another community, we asked a woman if she thought women would attend the now exclusively male agricultural information sessions if they were invited. She replied, quite practically, "Yes, I think they would, if the meetings were worthwhile."

In several places where women did have skills (usually related to textiles), they were eager to learn about marketing and to get enough capital to begin small businesses. Even the most supposedly "backward" women were well aware that it takes a bit of money to start making money. Furthermore, several men indicated strong support for their wives becoming involved in income-producing projects. One man, a self-appointed leader of a small

community, had tried to get outside help to assist the women in learning new skills. Another man said he regretted that he had not encouraged his wife to be more independent; that he could now see the value in this.

Our point here is that the image of the shy, home-bound Maya woman who wishes to connect to the public world only through her husband may be incorrect. There are many women, even in the rural and impoverished areas--illiterate, monolingual women with no formal education--who are quite eager to improve their lives and willing to work hard to do so. Maya women impressed us as being extremely practical and aware that they lived on the margins of a world that they wished to enter in some respects. The "culture" of "gender-neutral" projects simply does not take this into account. Only by designing projects that do take women into account are we going to see indicators showing the successful results everyone wishes for.

We recommend that, rather than limiting indicators and data collection strategies to simple enumeration data, some efforts also focus on the more complex indicators and data such as the following:

Household size and composition

Household income and source

Women's income and source

Nutritional status of family members and, where possible to gather data, family diet. Sources of family food (purchased and raised).

Health, particularly of children

Interest, or reasons for lack of interest, in learning to prepare non-traditional foods

Extent to which sanitary practices are followed in using latrines, hand washing, and keeping water uncontaminated

Skills women currently possess, with particular attention to uncovering skills that might be income-producing

Women's ideas for ways they could earn money

Women's daily and seasonal time use, with special attention to women's tasks and to those tasks that may yield income in kind or in cash (e.g., raising chickens) for the family

Problems encountered by women in their current or past income-generating tasks. (For example, we found two communities where women said they had tried to raise chickens but the chickens died. Presumably if the women had received

information about disease control and access to prevention methods or medicine this could have been avoided.)

Level of school completed

Bilingualism and literacy

Number of children ever born, number still alive, reasons for any deaths

Number of eligible children in school according to age, grade level, and gender

Whether the family intends to send their daughters to school and reasons for that intention

How family finances are handled and how decisions about allocating family resources are made

Obviously, getting a complete picture for all these items would take an ethnographic study by an anthropologist in residence. Nevertheless, at least a rough picture can be drawn by interviews of women from several communities in the target area, using a combination of direct interview questions and observation of the home and its immediate surroundings. The interview questions must be somewhat open-ended and the interviewer skilled at probing. For example, when asked if they do farm work, women often say "no." But if asked if they ever weed or irrigate, they say "yes." When we asked one family what they raised for home consumption, they said only the corn, beans, and squash in their garden. However the interviewer pointed to other things growing in the yard and found at least three other products that the family "raised." Because these were perennial or tree crops requiring little attention, the family did not include them when enumerating foods raised.

In addition, to estimate the income of a household, one can observe whether the home has electricity; running water; a latrine; how much space the family has for sleeping, cooking, and work areas (altogether and per family member); and whether they have any furniture or other possessions.

In conclusion, indicators and data collection on them fall into two categories. One is the enumeration category. Wherever projects routinely collect data on people, one can simply count up the number of women relative to total number of recipients or participants. Little WID expertise is necessary to do this; it is simply a matter of record keeping and instructing those who keep the records to collect the data and tally the data by gender.

The second is a more complex level of data collection and indicators on women that require more effort and expertise because

they need trained observation and interviewing women in the project area.

Many projects are not effective at reaching women because women were not included in the project design. There may be, of course, projects specifically designed for women, but women can and should be considered in ALL projects. Studies that collect the sort of complex data we have outlined here will provide a strong base for both designing projects that benefit women and for evaluating project impact on women.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As part of its efforts to achieve its women in development goals, USAID/Guatemala has worked with MUCIA/WID to develop and implement Scopes of Work addressing the situation of Guatemalan women. This report is one phase of that effort. It will allow the Mission to improve reporting on WID issues within programs and projects and will guide the data collection necessary to design projects that are effective at reaching women.

There are two general classes of cross-cutting indicators applicable to most projects:

- o Extent of women's participation in projects
- o Proportion of project resources going to women

The extent of women's participation can and should be considered at every level--from the participation of women as project beneficiaries to the participation of women in project management and technical assistance. Women's participation is important not only because it addresses the issue of equity but also because the participation of women is associated both with overall project success and with project success in terms of having a beneficial impact on women. Thus, participation indicators serve the dual purpose of being direct indicators of gender equity and indirect indicators of achievement of project objectives and goals.

Indicators of the proportion of resources going to women are, in effect, another way to consider the extent to which a project reaches women. This type of indicator measures the proportion of project inputs going to women, rather than the number of women involved.

Both indicators are what were referred to earlier in this report as enumerative indicators; that is, they involve measuring numbers of women participating or proportions of a resource going to women. Collecting data for these indicators is thus often straightforward and requires little technical expertise. They are, in short, indicators that are both appropriate and practical.

These indicators alone, however, are not sufficient. Each AID program area requires specific indicators. For example, an appropriate indicator in a health program may be "height for weight of children," whereas an appropriate indicator in a private sector program might be "ratio of amount of credit extended to women to total amount extended." This report presents indicators for each of six areas proposed by USAID/Guatemala: agriculture, education, health, natural resource management, private enterprise and democratic initiatives. The area-specific indicators include the simple enumerations of participation and project resources mentioned above as well as more complex indicators, such as those

for monitoring changes in women's time use. Collecting data for these complex indicators is time-consuming and expensive, yet they yield crucial information about women--information essential to effective project design and implementation.

The indicators and recommendations in this report are designed to address the situation of Guatemalan women in general and Maya women in particular. While there are ethnographic and some statistical data on the Maya women of the Highlands (USAID/Guatemala's main target population), more information is needed both for baseline purposes (to aid project planning) and for ongoing project monitoring and evaluation. Understanding their lives and attitudes and the constraints inhibiting change is essential to designing projects that effectively reach Maya women. Such understanding can best be gained by visiting and interviewing women in their own households. Therefore, we recommend that the Mission:

- o Expand the bibliography of this report to include Spanish-language sources of information on Guatemalan women (especially the Maya). Contract for a report reviewing the literature on women in Guatemala, and focusing especially on 1985 to the present.
- o Conduct interviews with women in their own households in the early stages of project planning to gain a better understanding of how the project could be designed to most effectively reach women.
- o Gather data on women at regular intervals to guide project modification.

As noted earlier, gathering data on women and identifying appropriate indicators does not ensure that women will be integrated into USAID/Guatemala projects. Setting specific WID objectives within mainstream projects is essential. USAID/Guatemala projects targeting women and projects whose staff are committed to including women have indeed been successful in reaching women. In contrast, "gender-neutral" projects, designed without specific WID aims, have been ineffective in assisting women. Therefore, we recommend that the Mission:

- o State specific WID objectives in project design. WID objectives may include: 1) women's participation; 2) manageability of project tasks by women; and 3) positive project impact on women.

The benefits of development have been slow to reach Maya women in particular. Many Maya women lack education, literacy, and knowledge of the official language of Guatemala. They are geographically isolated and often in poor health. Our field visits indicated that, despite these obstacles, Maya women are eager to learn new skills and earn income. Therefore, it is

incumbent on the Mission to seek strategies and solutions specifically targeting Maya women.

It should be kept in mind, however, that the Gender Indicator System is designed and recommended to be applied to all Mission projects and programs. This will enhance the continuing efforts of USAID/Guatemala to meet its goal of spreading the benefits of growth. Mission initiatives to encourage structural reform, reduce the extreme social and economic stratification, encourage an equitable tax structure, bring the benefits of public services and education to all citizens, and democratize the political and judicial systems will be more effective and efficient as the Gender Indicator System is used to ensure that women as well as men participate in and benefit from development.

ANNEXES

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ANNEX A

THE SCOPE OF WORK

MUCA/WID WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM IN TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

SCOPE OF WORK II, GUATEMALA

IMPROVING STATISTICS AND INDICATORS ON WOMEN IN GUATEMALA

This project will plan methods and conceptualize indicators to improve data on women in Guatemala. The work may include assessing, collecting, and disaggregating existing data on women in Guatemala. Activities will occur within a broader context in which the Mission's Information and Evaluation Specialist, currently seconded to AID/Guatemala and also a long-time staff member of USDA/OICD with many years of experience in Guatemala, is leading a major data collection effort. The goal is to assess the quality and availability of necessary information on Guatemala, to access published and fugitive materials from other sources, to determine what information needs are most pressing for the application of the development programs, and to put into place an overall plan for an information system for the future, including hardware and software. Building a women-in-development component into the information system thus will be crucial to the capabilities of the Mission for future planning and analysis.

The AID mission in Guatemala, working through its WID Committee, has just completed a WID strategy document. While that document provides certain statistical information on the situation of women in this nation, the information is clearly inadequate, as noted by the authors. For example, statistics on the "economically active" female population tell the reader that only 23.4% of Guatemalan women are in that category. The invisibility of women's contributions as unpaid family laborers, as participants in informal sector activities, as small-scale business owners, to say nothing of the economic value of maintaining the labor of others through domestic work, is pronounced in regard to national statistics. It is an invisibility which, unfortunately, carries over into familial, community and even national devaluation of women and their contributions. Other examples of statistical inaccuracies and gaps are legion, as in many nations of the world.

In the Guatemalan situation, the information issue is larger, however, than that concerning women; the Mission has identified as a major need the systematization and improvement of the information base required for all of its program sectors. Beginning in May, the Mission's Information and Evaluation Specialist will spearhead this work. It would be very valuable for that project to have a WID specialist in gender information systems as an integral part of this important mission initiative.

In preliminary thinking on this work, the plan is for an initial assessment of information needs for AID purposes, followed by a detailed assessment of existing information in the archives held by government, university and research organizations. Against that background, a new system of indicators across all sectors of AID/Guatemala's work will be designed and implemented. Assessment is expected to take a good bit of the first year of the project; design of the new system will take most of the second year. In that framework, discussion with the Mission's Information and Evaluation Specialist indicates that a Technical Assistant (TA) could be most useful in the

relatively early stages of the work, probably in the late summer or early fall months. Three to six months of information assessment, with a focus on gender-disaggregated data, would be very valuable to the project and crucial to meet the mission's WID objectives. (The Mission's Specialist further suggests that assistance of a second TA would be useful in the second year during the design phase, a request to be considered at a later time.)

This would seem to be a potentially valuable technical assistance possibility, a fortuitous combination of need and opportunity to utilize gender analytical skills benefiting all parties. The skills and knowledge of the Mission's Information and Evaluation Specialist who has worked in the agriculture sector in the last years would facilitate the entry of the TA into the critical agricultural development arena, the largest single sector of AID/Guatemala's portfolio. In addition, the Specialist's experience in other sectors will provide a broad development context and an opportunity to explore the relationships among sectors and connections of gender issues to the wide range of other development considerations.

SPECIFIC DUTIES OF THE TECHNICAL ASSISTANT

The TA would work closely with the Mission's Information and Evaluation Specialist in the early phases of the investigation described above. A substantial body of AID reports, each with varying degrees of both background information and evaluation data, has been accumulated in connection with the recently completed Cross-Cutting Evaluation of the work of AID/Guatemala over thirty years. A scan of that material for gender content would be a useful first step, introducing the TA to AID background in the country. The bulk of the TA's time in this phase would be spent in working with AID staff, both in the headquarters and in the field, to address perceived needs for data. Following that period (six weeks to two months), the work would turn toward collection and assessment of existing Guatemalan data, located in the records of various national organizations. The TA could be utilized profitably in this work for six months, but could accomplish a great deal in a three-month period by assisting in incorporating gender issues into this important effort of AID/Guatemala.

In summary, the TA would work on the following: 1) reanalysis of existing AID reports and evaluations for gender data, 2) participation in systematic inquiry regarding user information needs, and 3) collection and disaggregation, as possible, of data from Guatemalan sources, for a period of three to six months, depending on resources.

While the gender aspects of this work are part of the larger information system project, the materials gathered will also become a part of a much needed gender data base. Since WID crosscuts all programs of the mission, it is necessary to have one central resource location to facilitate overall WID planning. This portion of the TA's work would be coordinated through the WID Officer and Committee, working in concert with the larger information system effort.

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RESULTS

The results of this work would be embedded in the larger information system, but would also contribute to the establishment of a WID data and information center. The TA should prepare a report detailing measures developed and their rationales. In addition, the TA should be helped to assemble the major contemporary publications on Guatemalan women (and some historical sources as relevant), in order that they can be used by project and program staff. A number of studies have been sponsored by PPC/WID, Washington, and they should be available in the Mission's WID resource center. Today, when the relevant literature is so widely available, it is inefficient not to utilize all available knowledge in the planning of development interventions.

COLLABORATIVE LINKAGES

Within the AID mission, the Program Officer will be the initial contact. The current WID Officer is located there; in her temporary absence due to illness, the Deputy Program Officer will serve as liaison for the work. The work will require wide collaboration across all of the program sectors of the Mission, including persons in the field as well as those whose work is largely in headquarters. The location of the Mission's statistical analyst within the agency is in the Program Office. It would be helpful if the TA were located there to facilitate their collaborative work.

A wide variety of Guatemalan sources of statistics will be contacted, including the Instituto Nacional de Estadisticas (INE) and statistical sections of ministries including the Ministries of Health, Education, Agriculture and Public Finance. Regional and international organizations also will be sources of data, including the Instituto de Nutricion de Centro America y Panama (INCAP), the UN Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (CEPAL), and the USAID regional office (ROCAP), which is located in the AID offices in Guatemala City.

Contacts with academics will no doubt prove useful as well. There are at any one time a number of Fulbright scholars in the country, some of whom may be engaged in research or teaching on issues related to development. Through the Fulbright liaison office in the U.S. Embassy, these contacts could be made. They in turn would facilitate connections with faculty and departments in the Guatemalan university systems, public and private.

TIMING AND LOCATION

Work of the TA would likely be most productive between March and June, 1990. Valuable advance preparation would include reviewing literature on Guatemalan women, conducting a bibliographical search, drawing on the Statistical Data on Women Project which led to the AID Women of the World handbook on Latin America, and contacting the UN Statistical Office about its work on women. Also, the PPC/WID materials on Guatemala would be valuable to the project because no adequate collection of materials of this sort is currently available in Mission offices. Establishment of a resource collection on Guatemalan women, in the Mission, in collaboration with the larger information system is necessary for planning and implementing future projects. An

analysis of the literature on the status of women in Guatemala would be a logical next step for the Guatemalan mission.

QUALIFICATIONS OF THE TECHNICAL ASSISTANT

The TA on this assignment requires a good background in statistics and data analysis, with training in sociology, economics, agricultural economics, anthropology, or statistics. She should be broadly familiar with problems of statistical indices and knowledgeable about gender disaggregation. Analytical skills and knowledge of the WID literature are essential. Fluency in Spanish will be important for maximum usefulness in the field and for reading publications from Latin America.

RESOURCE REQUIREMENTS AND LOGISTICAL SUPPORT

MUCIA/WID: MUCIA, under its grant from PPC/WID will provide travel to and from Guatemala and per diem support for the TA; technical briefing and all necessary backstopping will be provided; facilities of the Office of Women in International Development at Michigan State University, other university libraries, and automated literature searches will be available for the TA's preparation.

Materials related to Guatemala. Although AID/Guatemala has produced a number of reports of use to this project, the documents could not always be located in the Mission offices. As an example, there is reference in a recent WID document to the Bureau for Science and Technology's Agricultural Policy Analysis project, a part of which was conducted in Guatemala; however, Mission staff did not know of the document or its contents. Since agricultural policy as it relates to the situation of Guatemalan women is a major issue in the WID strategy statement, the ability to utilize such documentation would be very useful.

USAID/Guatemala: Assistance in the location of suitable accommodations would be helpful, plus other minor logistical support. Limited secretarial help might be required. Consultation with the WID Officer and Committee would be essential since the work of the TA should be considered a major portion of accomplishing WID objectives.

SPECIAL REQUIREMENTS

There are no particular problems with regard to travel to and in Guatemala. A Tourist Card is issued to U.S. citizens on arrival at the airport at a cost of US\$1. No special health measures are necessary beforehand. The climate and physical environment are attractive and pleasant. While there is substantial street crime in the city, it is not a concern if reasonable caution is exercised.

RESPONSIBLE PROGRAM OFFICER

The WID Officer is temporarily away from the office. In her absence, the Deputy Program Officer will be the initial contact. Mission's Information and Evaluation Specialist will be the person with whom the TA works most closely. Members of the WID committee will generally provide advice and counsel as the work progresses, in order that the results be maximally valuable in fulfilling the institutionalization of WID within the mission.

ANNEX B

UPDATE OF 15 COUNTRY PERFORMANCE INDICATORS
(USAID/GUATEMALA)

ANNEX B: UPDATE OF 15 COUNTRY PERFORMANCE INDICATORS
(USAID/GUATEMALA)

The following list is from a fax memo from AID/Washington to USAID/Guatemala; listed as "unclassified state 069941/06."

5.1 INDICATORS. The Mission and LAC have reached agreement on a revised set of targets and indicators for tracking their achievement through 1994.

These conform to the 15-indicator limit in the new Action Plan Guidance and in some cases include both a country-level performance indicator and complementary Mission program performance indicator (in parentheses), as follows:

1. Net domestic credit in current Quetzales,
2. Real GDP growth,
3. Gross value of NTES (value generated by AID-assisted projects),
4. Employment generated by all private-sector programs, if possible (creation of new jobs through AID-supported private sector initiatives),
5. Domestic savings as a percent of GDP,
6. Country-level non-traditional agricultural production (attributable to AID projects),
7. Hectares of wildlands and/or reserves protected and properly managed,
8. Hectares under natural resources management (both country-level and from AID-assisted programs),
9. Contraceptive prevalence (couple-years of protection),
10. Infant mortality,
11. Percent of children under age five receiving immunizations (ORT usage and provision of tetanus toxoid),
12. Percent of eligible indigenous children enrolled in primary school (indigenous enrollment as a percent of total enrollment),
13. Number of years to produce a sixth-grade graduate,

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14. Time needed to complete a criminal law case,
15. Percent of scholars whose attitudes toward the United States are significantly affected by training (number of Guatemalan Peace Scholars who have completed training in the U.S.; gender disaggregated).

ANNEX C

REVISED COUNTRY IMPACT MATRIX (USAID/GUATEMALA)

| GOAL (CAI) | MISSION OBJECTIVE / PERFORMANCE INDICATORS | FISCAL YEAR | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|-------------|------|--------|------|------|-------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|--|
| | | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1986 | 1987 | 1988 | 1989 | | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | |
| | | Plan | | Actual | | | | | | | | | |
| I. Short Term Economic Stabilization | A. <u>Objective:</u> Maintain Growth of Aggregate Demand within Appropriate Limits | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | <u>Indicator:</u> Domestic Credit of the Banking System <u>1/</u> (% change) | 13.4 | 42.3 | 8.8 | -7.0 | 6.3 | 7.9 | — | 25.0 | 17.0 | 15.5 | 16.0 | |
| | or Net Domestic Assets of the Bank of Guatemala <u>1/</u> | -312.0 | 73.4 | 24.8 | -4.7 | 20.2 | -14.4 | — | 40.2 | 16.5 | 15.0 | 15.5 | |
| II. Basic Structural Reforms Leading to Rapid and Sustained Economic Growth | A. <u>Objective:</u> Expand and Diversify Productive Economic Opportunities | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | <u>Indicator:</u> Increased Formation and Expansion of Competitive Enterprises | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | 1. Gross value of Non-traditional exports (\$ mil.) <u>2/</u> | — | — | — | 4.8 | 12.5 | 26.6 | 49.0 | 48.1 | 74.5 | 98.3 | 120.7 | |
| | 2. Creation of new jobs (thousand) <u>2/</u> | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 9.1 | 15.0 | 20.0 | 25.0 | |
| | B. <u>Objective:</u> Increase Savings | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | <u>Indicator:</u> 1. Domestic Savings (% GDP) <u>3/</u> | 13.9 | 13.4 | 7.0 | 9.2 | 5.5 | 7.5 | 10.0 | 7.5 | 8.0 | 10.1 | 12.8 | |
| | C. <u>Objective:</u> Increase Agricultural Production | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | <u>Indicator:</u> Non-traditional agricultural production (Gross value in Q mil) <u>4/</u> | — | — | — | 12.8 | 34.3 | 37.0 | 46.2 | 41.1 | 58.5 | 73.9 | 93.1 | |
| | D. <u>Objective:</u> Manage and Preserve Natural Resources | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | <u>Indicator:</u> 1. Wildlands and/or Reserves Protected and Properly Managed (000 ha) <u>5/</u> | — | — | — | — | — | — | 345 | 45 | 1,500 | 1,500 | 1,500 | |
| 2. Lands under Natural Resources Mgmt. (000 ha) <u>6/</u> | — | — | — | 2.7 | 4.6 | 11.7 | 15.3 | 15.3 | 15.9 | 17.7 | 19.5 | | |

| CPI (CPI) | MISSION OBJECTIVE / PERFORMANCE INDICATORS | FISCAL YEAR | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|---|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------|-------|-------|-------|
| | | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1986 | 1987 | 1988 | 1989 | | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 |
| | | | | | | | | Pla | Actual | | | |
| III. Spreading the Benefits of Growth | A. <u>Objective:</u> Increase Access to Voluntary Family Planning Services | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | <u>Indicator:</u> Couple-Year Protection (000s) 7/ | — | — | — | 206.0 | 221.4 | 190.0 | 245.9 | 240.0 | 250.0 | 262.6 | 275.6 |
| | B. <u>Objective:</u> Reduce Infant/Maternal Mortality and Morbidity | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | <u>Indicator:</u> 1. Children under 5 yrs. who received complete series of Immunizations (% of total children under 5 yrs. of age) | — | — | 34.2 | 37.0 | 50.0 | 58.2 | 60.0 | 60.0 8/ | 70.0 | 75.0 | 78.0 |
| | 2. Children under 5 yrs. who were treated with ORT (% of total children under 5 yrs. of age) | — | — | — | 3.5 | 16.7 | 22.8 | 20.0 | 27.8 | 30.0 | 35.0 | 40.0 |
| | 3. Women Delivering in last 12 months who have two doses of tetanus toxoid (% of total women of reproductive age) | — | — | — | 0.4 | 12.4 | 17.3 | 23.0 | 20.0 8/ | 18.0 | 20.0 | 22.0 |
| | C. <u>Objective:</u> Improve Education Opportunities | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | <u>Indicator:</u> 1. Indigenous Children (7-14 yrs. old) Enrolled in Primary School (% of total primary school enrollment) 9/ | — | — | — | 28 | 28 | 31 | 31 | 31 | 31 | 33 | 34 |
| | 2. Years to Produce a Sixth Grade Graduate | — | 11.2 | 10.5 | 11.1 | 12.1 | 11.8 | 11.8 | 11.4 | 11.4 | 11.2 | 11.0 |
| | IV. Strengthen Democratic Institutions | A. <u>Objective:</u> Strengthen Democratic Institutions and Processes 10/ | | | | | | | | | | |
| <u>Indicator:</u> 1. Average Time to Complete Criminal Law Case (No. of months) 11/ | | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 5.3 | 5.2 | 4.8 | 4 |
| 2. Number of Guatemalan Peace Scholars who have completed training in the U.S. | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| - Total | | — | — | 212 | 798 | 1,070 | 661 | 1,000 | 884 | 565 | 516 | 471 |
| - Male | — | — | 87 | 612 | 448 | 377 | 454 | 422 | 298 | 268 | 253 | |
| - Female | — | — | 125 | 186 | 622 | 284 | 546 | 462 | 267 | 248 | 218 | |
| <u>NOTE:</u> (For Reference Only) Average Annual Increase of CPI in Percent | 13.1 | 10.8 | 18.7 | 36.9 | 12.2 | 10.9 | 9+ 3/ | 12.0 | 12.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | |

Footnotes

- 1/ Sources are Bank of Guatemala and USAID estimates. Central bank losses are included under net domestic assets of the Bank of Guatemala. There wasn't any planned percentage for FY 1989 in last year's Action Plan as this is a new indicator. The Mission believes that percentage change and not dollar value reflects relative importance of achievements in this area much better.
- 2/ Source for non-traditional exports is USAID estimate based on Guatemalan Drawback Producer Guild analysis of impact of USAID existing and proposed project portfolio. Source for creation of new jobs is USAID estimate of existing and proposed AID and GOG financed microenterprise development projects only as base line data for other areas doesn't exist yet. There wasn't any planned figure for FY 1989 in last year's Action Plan for creation of new jobs as this is new indicator.
- 3/ The 1989 projections for Domestic Savings (as% of GDP) and the CPI were based on the assumption of both an early implementation of appropriate macroeconomic policies and the freeing of domestic interest rates.
- 4/ Source is USAID estimate of current and proposed project portfolio. Projected data for NTAE during '89 and '90 - '92 period are based on results of recent Altiplano and other evaluations as well as economic analysis of HAD and other projects e.g. estimates of irrigated and improved land, suitable for production of fruits and vegetables and estimated per hectare value of those products. The estimated figure for 1989 was adjusted by "actual value" for 1988 with expected rate of growth of 25% as shown in previous years. The actual value for 1989 comes from Central Bank records, reflects the dollar value up to end 12/89 of fruits and vegetables, and reflects the impact of the freeze in December, which resulted in a loss of around 10%. In addition, once base line data becomes available in the Small Farmer Coffee project, the gross value of traditional exports will also be considered.
- 5/ Data refer to protected areas to be established under the Protected Areas Law. Difference in projected and actual figures in 1989 is due to GOG delay in preparing regulations for recently passed Law. It is expected that 1.5 million hectares of the Peten Department will be legally protected upon approval of Guatemalan Congress of the Maya Biosphere Reserve in FY 1990. Efforts will focus on the effective management of this area.
- 6/ Data refer to areas under soil/water conservation, pesticide/pest management and agro-forestry components under AID financed projects or areas reforested under DA, ESF and P.L. 480 financed reforestation activities. A majority of the land area under natural resources management is in watershed management.
- 7/ This statistic represents the consolidated efforts of A.I.D. supported family planning agency contributions to contraceptive usage. Couple years of protection means the number of years that individual couples are protected from conception through uses of any contraceptive methods. Data for the period 1990-1992 have been revised based on latest available information.

- 8/ This is Mission's best estimate for 1989, based on available data through end 11/89. The reason for the projected lower percentage in Tetanus toxoid immunizations by end of 1989 reflects a change of strategy on the part of the GOG to vaccinate all women, focusing on younger age group (15-16 yrs. old); the previous strategy, which focused on pregnant women, did not work effectively.
- 9/ Source of data is the BEST Project Paper for the first indicator and USIPE in the Ministry of Education for second indicator. It should be noted that overall primary school capacity and enrollment are increasing at roughly the same rate that the school age population is increasing. For this reason, Guatemala's gross primary enrollment ratio and the Mission's own indigenous primary enrollment ratios are relatively constant. It should also be noted that 1989 actual data represents an estimate only as there is a lag of one academic year in GOG reporting of such statistics.
- 10/ The Mission currently lacks sufficient base line data on legislative area but plans to deal with this problem during design of new Democratic Initiatives project in FY 1990. However, we hope to include one of the following indicators of program performance in the future, e.g. improved procedures for drafting until passage of bill or increased financing of the legislature.
- 11/ Period refers to the time between arrest and final disposition of the case. Data provided by Guatemala's Supreme Court under the Admin. of Justice Improvement Project. There wasn't any planned figure for FY 1989 in last year's Action Plan for this indicator as this is a new indicator.

ANNEX D

WID ACTION PLAN (USAID/GUATEMALA)

| <u>Overall Goals and Objectives</u> | <u>WID Objectives</u> | <u>Suggested Indicators</u> |
|---|--|--|
| I. <u>Goal: Short-term Stabilization</u> | <u>Objective: Stabilize Financial Structures</u> | This objective does not lend itself to disaggregation by gender. |
| II. <u>Goal: Basic Structural Reforms for Rapid and Sustained Economic Growth</u> | A. <u>Objective: Increase and Diversify Agricultural Production</u> | Increase the labor productivity of women in agriculture and in off-farm activities through extension services, training and improved technology. |
| B. <u>Objective: Strengthen and expand the Private Sector</u> | Socio-economic indicators needed; i.e., linkage of income gains to family nutrition and welfare, valuation of unpaid family labor by women and children in agriculture. Labor supply and demand studies. | |
| 1. Micro-enterprise Dev. | Expand access to credit, technical assistance and training. | Type of micro-enterprise by sex, availability of credit, financial gains by women, percent of women in training. |
| 2. Savings and Credit | Expand credit available to women. | Disaggregated figures on credit granted, defaults, changing patterns of micro ownership and credit needs. |

| <u>Overall Goals and Objectives</u> | <u>WID Objectives</u> | <u>Suggested Indicators</u> |
|--|---|---|
| 3. Drawback - Free Trade | Increased employment. | Employment data, retention, <u>wage differentials</u> , training opportunities, working conditions. |
| 4. Institutional Framework | Expand employment of women in small and medium enterprises particularly in management/technical positions. | Role of women in business; constraints to success in business, etc. |
| C. <u>Objective</u> : Manage and Preserve Natural Resources | Expand participation of women in reforestation and other conservation work. | Further analysis of women's roles in the use and abuse of the environment is required before indicators can be established. One indicator would be the proportion of women being trained in conservation. |
| III. <u>Goal: Wider Sharing of Benefits of Growth</u> | | |
| 1. <u>Objective</u> : Increase Access to Voluntary Family Planning | Same as Mission objective. | Same as Mission objective; helpful to disaggregate by class, ethnicity. |
| 2. <u>Objective</u> : Improve Health and Child Survival | Same as Mission objective, with added concern for time constraints imposed by women's work and child care responsibilities. | Infant and child mortality rates, maternal mortality data. |
| 3. <u>Objective</u> : Improve Educational Opportunities | Expand opportunities for women and girls, especially among the Mayan population. | Same as Mission, stressing disaggregation of enrollment and completion data. Employment of women in education. |

| <u>Overall Goals and Objectives</u> | <u>WID Objectives</u> | <u>Suggested Indicators</u> |
|---|--|--|
| IV. <u>Goal</u>: Promote Democracy | | |
| <u>Objective</u>: Strengthen Democratic Institutions | Strengthen participation of women in democratic institutions. | Women as voters, as poll takers, increased participation in executive, legislative and judicial branches as well as in labor, PVO and local community leadership roles. |

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PROJECT PORTFOLIO REVIEW

| <u>Project Goal/ Purpose</u> | <u>WID Constraints/ Opportunities</u> | <u>WID Related Activities</u> | <u>Monitoring and Evaluation</u> | |
|----------------------------------|--|--|--|--|
| | | | <u>Target</u> | <u>Means of Verification</u> |
| See Project Paper | Identify constraints and/or opportunities that should be addressed in project to promote objectives of Mission's WID Strategy. | List activities already identified in project documents and recommend new activities or adjustments in existing ones that will improve the project's responsiveness to WID considerations. | Quantitative or qualitative indicators associated with WID (along with suggested dates for action on or completion of activities). | Methods or sources for monitoring and evaluating WID activities and determining whether targets have been met. (See Section III of Annex B.) |

- 1/ The columns represent the procedural steps that will be followed in the review of each project in the Mission's portfolio. The reviewers will need a general understanding of WID concerns and WID-specific activities and objectives. The members of the Mission WID committee will work with project technical personnel to identify opportunities for WID interventions and will recommend methods for monitoring and evaluating progress toward WID objectives.

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ANNEX E

RECOMMENDED WID INDICATORS AND OBJECTIVES FOR SPECIFIC PROJECTS

- E1: HADS (Agriculture)
- E2: Maya Biosphere (Natural Resource Management)
- E3: EMST (Education)
- E4: Community Based Health and Nutrition (Health)
- E5: Micro-business Promotion (Private Sector)
- E6: Administration of Justice (Democratic Initiatives)

ANNEX E1: HADS (AGRICULTURE)

Project title: The Highlands Agricultural Project (HADS)

Project Number: 520-0224

Project description: The purpose of this project is to increase the small farmer's ability to produce cash crops. The method is to support farmers in mini-terracing and irrigation and to provide other supports including loans for seed and fertilizer.

Method: This project has a log frame and fairly detailed goals and objectives. Our method here was to identify WID objectives and indicators linked to each of the project objectives and then to add relevant WID objectives and indicators as necessary. We also reviewed similar, previous agricultural projects and the contractor's reports of the USAID/Guatemala Cross-Cutting Evaluation. We do not suggest that every indicator here be used but offer them as examples useful in monitoring women's participation and the impact of projects on women.

Unless a method of data collection is given, it is assumed that the data collection for the gender indicator is self-evident (i.e. that it mirrors normal project data collection activities). Non-WID project goals, objectives, and indicators were taken directly from the Project Proposal.

First, project goals or objectives and indicators from the project paper are given. Each is followed by recommended WID objectives and indicators.

1. **Sector goal:** to increase agricultural productivity

Project indicator: average income of target population increases more rapidly than in non-target populations

WID goals: income of target female household heads will increase more rapidly than that of non-target female household heads; in two-parent families income under the control of the female parent will increase over that prior to project intervention. (Target amount or rate of increase may be specified.)

WID indicators:

percent change in income of female household heads
 percent change in income from women's farm and market activities
 percent change in income controlled by or distributed to women for household expenditures (food, etc.)

Method: for the first indicator above: disaggregate the existing project indicator by gender; for the second and third indicators: household record keeping survey. (see Gender Issues in Agriculture and Natural Resource Management, p.69.)

2. **Project purpose:** to improve the productive resource base of the rural poor in the Highlands

Project indicator: 50 percent increase in agricultural production

WID purpose: to increase income from products marketed by women

WID indicator:

total income from each agricultural products marketed by women

3. **Project objectives:** terracing fields to increase production of food and grains

Project indicator: amount of land terraced (the goal is 5000 hectares)

WID objective: new demands on women's time during and after terracing will not interfere with child care, home production, or traditional income-generating activities

WID indicator:

amount of time spent by women in households, nonagricultural income generation, and agricultural tasks before, during, and two years after terracing

Method: interviews and checklist of women's labor by type and amount of time for a sample of women prior to, during and after terracing

4. **Project objective:** increased mini-irrigation

Project indicator: amount of land irrigated (the goal is 750 hectares)

WID objective and indicator: parallel to 3 above

Method: parallel to 3 above

5. **Project objective:** forest conservation to improve fuel wood availability

Project indicator: new forests (the goal is 124 hectares of new forests)

WID objective: reduce women's time in gathering firewood

WID indicator:

reduction in firewood gathering time (compare average daily time at project start-up to that some time after start-up; amount of time lapse between first and second measurement depends on the maturation rate of the species of tree being used)

Method: group interviews and where possible, observations

6. **Project objectives:** maintenance of roads for constant access to market

Project indicator: 1300 kms. of access roads maintained by year five

WID objective: increase women's income by increasing market accessibility

WID indicator:

income of women derived from marketing produce before relative to after project

Method: interview women for information on income derived from marketing and for differences in market locations where their products are sold

Comment: Improving markets and market accessibility sometimes has the unintended consequence of squeezing women out of traditional markets. Project attention to avoid this or to assure that women have alternative sources of income is important.

7. **Project objective:** increased on- and off-farm employment

Project indicator: 450,000 work days of paid labor during project life (presumably refers to payments for time lost from agricultural production during terracing and road maintenance)

WID objective: increased income or employment of women

WID indicator:

percentage of total payments to women made for terracing

Comment: Our field interviews showed that women do participate in terracing, although this is not common. They further showed that men do not especially like to work in terracing

and often do it simply as a precondition for irrigation, which is what they really want. Women probably do not enjoy this work any more than men do, but opening jobs in terracing for pay could increase women's income and may well improve project success at increasing amounts of terracing.

WID objectives and indicators within HADS not directly related to stated project objectives: This section recommends objectives and indicators that are not part of the current project design or purpose. These objectives were designed to benefit women and increase project effectiveness.

1. Increase nutritional status of farm family members

WID indicator:

weight for height and age, by gender, and where possible, quantity and type of food consumed, by gender

Method: anthropometric survey and, where possible, food consumption survey

2. Include women in project implementation, training, education, and as agricultural promoters

WID indicators:

percentage of terracing done by women
percentage attending training sessions who are women
percentage of promoters who are women

3. Minimize exposure to toxic pesticides, herbicides, etc.

WID indicator:

blood levels of toxic substances by gender, or water levels of toxic substances

Method: blood tests of people likely to be exposed, or water tests

Comment: Obviously, pesticides are a concern for women, men, and children alike. Informally noted in Cross-Cutting Evaluation, Vol. II (pp. 165-6), boys spreading toxic chemicals as part of their farm work, children nearby being exposed, chemicals kept in unmarked jars, possible water source contamination, etc. Exposure is of additional concern to women because they not only may be involved in the application, but they also have the task of washing the clothes of those who have applied toxic substances (and if the water is being contaminated, exposure is increased). Women may be at even higher risk of exposure than men. The

recommendations made by the contractor were excellent and should be implemented, with particular attention to exposure by gender. Where pesticide use training programs are instituted, women should be included as trainers.

Increase payoffs of terracing to women by teaching techniques of using risers of terraces to grow fodder and methods of raising livestock

WID indicators:

- number of women trained
- amount and number of loans extended to women to buy livestock
- income of women derived from live-stock raising

Comment: We heard the suggestion of growing fodder on the riser several times; it is mentioned again in the Cross Cutting Evaluation, vol. II. In our field visits we did not find anyone actually doing this. However, if it is feasible, it might provide an income-producing project for women.

ANNEX E2: MAYA BIOSPHERE (NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT)

Project title: Maya Biosphere Project

Project number: None; project is in the planning stage

Project description: This is a complex project with the overall intent of protecting the Maya Biosphere, a large tract of forest land (1.5 million hectares) in the Peten region. The area is under threat of ecological degradation as population increases in the region and as slash-and-burn methods of horticulture and other forms of deforestation increase. According to the Project Plan, the Peten jungle is being destroyed at the rate of 40,000 hectares a year.

The project includes many components: strengthening support for the Biosphere Administration, environmental education, improving natural resource management policy, and projects to use the resources of the area in a sustainable way.

The project is in the proposal stage and as such is an excellent candidate for the inclusion of WID issues.

This is a commendable project with potential benefits not only to the people of the area but to Guatemala as a whole and to the international community. The current Project Plan devotes only a few paragraphs to women (p. 38). In the accompanying Social Soundness Analysis there is a somewhat more detailed consideration of gender concerns (pp. 10-11). Both documents recognize the need for more knowledge of the gender division of labor in the Peten. Women are involved in the extractive activities that the project hopes to improve, have a lay knowledge of the area's ecology, and often operate as single household heads. The Social Soundness Analysis suggests special project efforts to provide women new sources of income. And as the Project Plan itself notes: "Whereas the role of women in many Project protection and management activities may be limited as the Project is now defined, roles for women as participants in, and targets of, awareness, environmental education, and appropriate outreach activities should be identified and promoted during project implementation" (p. 38).

We suggest that, in addition to the excellent suggestions of the project plan paper, the project also include objectives to involve women at the high end of the project, that is, in protection and management activities.

Recommended WID objectives and indicators

1. Biosphere administration

This component includes the "output" of four Government of Guatemala (GoG) institutions with personnel trained and equipped to protect the Maya Biosphere Reserve. The project inputs budget for salaries for USAID personnel and non-governmental organization (NGO) personnel, and for technical assistance to USAID and GoG.

WID objective: Set a target for the percentage of women to be among personnel trained and employed by the GoG and NGO institutions, including by level of employment and training; AID should also set a target for percentage of women employed by AID assigned to project.

WID indicator:

Percentage of women in each category relative to target level

Suggestion: Make a certain percentage of funding contingent on an affirmative action effort on the part of GoG and NGOs to meet this objective.

2. Environmental education, public awareness, and policy

WID objective: Set a target for percentage of women school administrators participating in planning workshops for in-service teacher training

WID indicator:

Percentage of women participating relative to target percentage

WID objective: In materials used in training include gender issues, especially those giving guidance for working with Parents' Associations and other groups in their community in how to encourage participation of mothers and women from these groups

WID indicator:

There is no easily quantifiable indicator for this objective. A review of materials for inclusion of gender issues will be sufficient.

WID objective: Include active recruitment of women as students in the project component of university level seminars and training workshops

WID indicator:

Percentage of participants in the seminars and workshops who are women

WID objective: In training workshops for NGOs, include a WID sensitivity component

WID indicator:

Review of materials for inclusion of this component

WID objective: There is a special fund to be used to "support activities of teachers, university students and professors and NGOs to undertake special environmental education programs and research." Set aside a certain percentage of this fund to go to female teachers, professors, etc., especially to women doing "special projects for university thesis work."

WID indicator:

Proportion of money going to women relative to target proportion

Comment: A commonly given reason for not including women at higher levels of employment and management is that there are none available with the appropriate training. Supporting women in the universities is an opportunity to increase the number of professional women in natural resource management and research.

WID objective: In public awareness materials, include the depiction of women in a variety of roles

WID indicator:

Review of materials

WID objective: The project paper indicates that funds will be set aside for studying and strengthening the role of women in natural resource management (p. 19)

WID indicator:

Amount of money actually spent on such projects relative to target amount

WID objective: Include women in the policymaker workshops, study tours for decision makers, and as presenters at the national conference

WID indicator:

Percentage of participants in workshops, study tours, and as presenters at national conferences who are women

WID objective: Include women in the USAID, NGO and GoG personnel hired and in the technical assistants contracted

WID indicator:

Percentage of those hired and contracted who are women

3. **Sustainable resource management**

WID objective: Extractors of forest products will be trained to use non-destructive extractive techniques. Include women in those trained.

WID indicator:

Ratio of number of women to total number of persons trained

WID objective: Another component is research on extractors of forest products on "ways to improve their working and living conditions." The research projects should include gaining an understanding of the gender division of labor among the extractors.

WID indicator:

Review of research proposals for inclusion of gender division of labor variable

WID objectives: Include women as tourism workshop, steering committee, and technical working group members; encourage the participation of women from local organizations

WID indicator:

Percentage of those participating in workshops, on steering committee, in working groups, and at local level who are women

WID objective: In the six studies of tourism impact and the studies of expanding and improving extraction techniques of wild products, include consideration of the impact on women

WID indicator:

Review of research proposals

WID objective Include women as recipients of training and technical information about small-scale commercial activity improvement

WID indicator:

Percentage of recipients who are women

. **Project management and evaluation**

WID objective: The project paper suggests that some of the baseline studies conducted include those that will yield information about attitudes of the local population including information of gender issues.

WID indicator:

Review of research proposals

Comment: On this and other indicators involving research on gender issues, we suggest reviewing the proposals of research under consideration for contract rather than reviewing results of the research. Ensuring that contracts go to those whose proposals include the gender sensitive research the mission requires is the most effective way to assure such research will be done.

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ANNEX E3: BEST (EDUCATION)

Project title: Basic education strengthening project (BEST)

Project number: 520-0374

Project description: The purpose of the project is to improve primary education through four sub-components designed to upgrade bilingual education, improve teacher support services, test two non-traditional instructional strategies, and support administrative improvement in the Guatemala Ministry of Education. This project is imminent, although it is also a continuation of ongoing efforts in educational strengthening.

Comment: We found this project to be well developed in terms of design, objectives, incorporation of a research component, monitoring and evaluation plans, and gender issues. We recommend this project as a model to other sectors. We frankly think it would be an unnecessary exercise to go through this project piece by piece suggesting WID objectives, indicators, and methods of data collection. Instead, we recommend that the project

1. Collect all data on participants and beneficiaries of project indicators by gender and report results by gender. For example, literacy rates, percent improvement in academic achievement, and percent reduction in repetition rates in bilingual schools all should be reported in gender-disaggregated form.
2. Set targets for percentages of technical assistants, contractors, and researchers who are women.
3. In the call for project proposals, explicitly require that contractors consider WID goals, indicators, and data collection strategies in each phase.
4. Specify a component in the research on bilingual education that examines why the grade school drop out-rate of Maya girls is so much higher than that of boys. In any other research, specify that results be disaggregated by gender.

See Table 6 of this report for indicators in education which are applicable to the BEST Project.

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ANNEX E4: COMMUNITY BASED HEALTH AND NUTRITION (HEALTH)

Project title: Community Based Health and Nutrition Project

Project number: 520-0251

Project description: This project is an extension of an earlier project. Its purpose is to provide potable water systems, latrines, and basic health education to small rural communities in the Highlands. The beneficiaries are primarily indigenous Maya. This project does not have a log frame with detailed objectives; the project paper simply states that the goal is to improve health and nutritional status and overall welfare and that the purpose is to provide water, sanitation facilities, and health education.

WID objective: The same as project objectives i.e., to improve the health of women and children by providing them with clean water, latrines, and health education

WID indicators:

Mortality rates and morbidity rates (from diarrhea and respiratory, infectious, and parasitic diseases) of the target population, disaggregated by gender

WID objective: Reduce time women spend getting water and thus provide time for women to engage in income-producing and home production activities

WID indicators:

Reduction in amount of time women spend getting water (average daily amount of time before project minus average daily amount of time after project completion)

Changes in time use related to income-generating activities
Women's average income two years after project completion relative to their income at project start up

(To collect data for these three indicators interviews with women will be necessary.)

WID objective: Include women in the implementation of the project and as promoters

WID indicators:

Rates of beneficiary women's participation in project implementation (e.g., percentage attending community meetings about the project who are women; percentage providing labor for the project who are women.)

Percentage of health promoters who are women

Suggestion: Our field visits reaffirmed the common AID perception that, where possible, integrated projects are best. Although this project is an obvious success in bringing potable water to homes and improving women's lives in terms of both health and reduced time in obtaining water these advantages (especially the time savings advantage) were not capitalized upon. Women are eager to have income-generating activities, when they have the time for them. Thus, a companion project of technical education or small enterprise development would be ideal.

Comment: Typically women receive training only in what is seen as the "traditional" female sphere, activities concerned with food, water, and child care. Even here the trainers themselves are usually male. We found in our field visits to one area that there were five health promoters, all of whom were male even though their audience was primarily female, providing information on such topics as sanitation and prevention of diarrhea in children.

See Table 5 of this report for additional health indicators.

ANNEX E5: MICRO-BUSINESS PROMOTION (PRIVATE SECTOR)

Project title: Micro-Business Promotion Project

Project Number: 520-0377

Method: The project is funded under OPG funding and therefore had no formal project paper. We reviewed relevant documents and interviewed Martha Olivares of ACCION/AITEC. Because there was no project paper or log frame, some objectives were taken from the project authorization. To link the indicators to Mission-wide objectives, other objectives were taken from the CDSS matrix, and from the WID objectives developed in conjunction with the matrix.

Project description: The Micro-Business Promotion Project was begun in 1987 to provide credit, technical assistance, and training to micro-entrepreneurs with no other sources of commercial credit. Additional funding was added in FY 1989 (\$1,350,000) for a new AID total of \$1,850,000. This was partially to replace a Government of Guatemala shortfall. The total Life of Project funding is \$2,740,240. The primary contractor, ACCION/AITEC, subcontracted the Guatemala City component to FUNTEC/GENESIS and the Quetzaltenango branch to FUNTAP/PROSEM, each of whom have recently established branch offices in smaller cities. Loans were to range from \$40-\$2,500 for individuals and from \$20 to \$800 for each member of solidarity groups. The project encountered initial delays, and is not meeting its goal of self-sustainability nor reaching the desired percentage of women participants (especially the PROSEM component); but it was considered a success by two evaluations in 1989, and additional funding was authorized.

Analysis: The project benefits women micro-entrepreneurs in three ways. First, the project authorization specifically targets women, although no figures are specified either by AID or ACCION. Secondly, the target group contained a high number of women. Finally, the project design addressed constraints faced by many micro-entrepreneurs, especially women.

In addition, the project is collecting its information on a case basis which permits disaggregation of its statistics by gender. In some cases this gender-disaggregated information is being reported in the monthly and quarterly reports, specifically in the number of women receiving loans for the first time. In other cases, information which might be useful in helping the project reach more women is not being reported, for example the average size of loans to women, number of women employees, etc. In a few areas, potentially useful information, such as the number of interested women who refused loans, is not collected.

Women's access to credit has often been cited in the literature as a prime stumbling-block to achieving two of AID's objectives:

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Women's access to credit has often been cited in the literature as a prime stumbling-block to achieving two of AID's objectives:

WID objective: Increase the size and efficiency of woman-owned businesses.

WID indicators:

Value of sales reported on second loan application relative to value of sales reported on first loan application. (For women-owned businesses)

Amount of profits reported on second loan application relative to profits reported on first application (for women-owned businesses)

Note: Project staff suggested that information on the first application is not completely reliable, due to lack of previous record keeping. This would hold for all information that had to be recalled for the first application.

Method: Collect data from loan applications. Of interest for training objectives would be to correlate the two indicators with amount of training received to see if there is a relationship between women's success in their businesses and amount of training received.

WID objective: Increase number of women receiving loans and increase size of loans to women

WID indicators:

Ratio of average size of loan to women to average for all recipients

Ratio of number of new women credit recipients to number of new recipients

Ratio of number of loans to microenterprises owned by women to total number of loans extended

Ratio of number of women applying for loans to total number of persons applying

Ratio of percentage of women applicants denied loans to percentage of men applicants denied loans

Method: Collect data from a sample of cases. There are two potential confounding factors: (1) Loans to repeat customers increase in size. Increasing the number of new woman clients will lower the average size of women's loans. (2) Loans to individuals in solidarity groups are smaller than those to others. Since women predominate in solidarity groups, the information should be disaggregated by type of borrower.

The last two indicators can be used to help determine whether failure to recruit desired proportion of women lies in reaching potential clients or in lending criteria. It will not, however, reflect those who are discouraged from applying during preliminary steps.

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WID objective: Increase women's business management skills.

WID indicators:

Ratio of number of women completing basic cycle of six courses to number of women initially enrolled

Ratio of number of women enrolled in training courses to total enrollment

Ideally close to 100 percent of women initially enrolled in courses should be finishing the entire cycle. If not, women's completion rate should be compared to men's to see if there is a gender differential in the drop-out rate. Also measure the proportion of women in second- or third-tier courses relative to total enrolled. Percentage of women who found training helpful should be measured at least one month after the end of course.

Method: Data are available from current documentation. In lieu of other measures, demand for subsequent courses could be seen as a measure of satisfaction, especially once participants are charged for attending. Ideally, however, evaluation of courses should be taken when the last loan repayment is made, based on a simple questionnaire administered by personnel not associated with the training component. These results should be incorporated into modifications of existing and planned training. In addition, an evaluation of training should address: (1) education level of participants, linked to their evaluation of course, (2) average distance of course from home or place of work, (3) the convenience of the scheduling. This information can be used to assess appropriateness of the training content, location, and scheduling.

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ANNEX E6: ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE (DEMOCRATIC INITIATIVES)

Project title: Administration of Justice

Project number: 520-0369

Project description: Funded for a total of \$7,055,000 (including counterpart), the project purpose is "to improve the capacity of the Guatemalan judicial system to provide fair, effective, and accessible services nationwide." There are three components of the Administration of Justice Project: 1) training of justice sector personnel; 2) improving the legal information system; and 3) improving the court system.

Project goal: Strengthen Guatemalan initiatives in order to promote social progress and economic well-being of the Guatemalan population.

Project objective: Increased equitable treatment under law

WID objective: Increased equitable treatment of women under law

1. Legal reform to increase the equitable treatment of women under the law

WID indicator:

Reform the laws that charge only women with adultery and infanticide

2. Training of women Judicial Sector personnel

WID indicator:

Ratio of number of women trained in each category to total number trained in each category

Comment: The Social Soundness analysis indicates that 86% of judges are male and 97.5% are Ladino; of lawyers, 92% are men and 96% are Ladino. However, Licenciada (Lic.) Aguilera and the Social Soundness Analysis point out that about half of law students are women, and Lic. Aguilera notes that women are becoming more numerous at lower court levels. Therefore, training a higher percentage of women is feasible.

Within this component it is especially important to monitor the small sub-component for training in support of the public defender's system (\$28,500 out of training even's costs totaling \$568,500). These offices provide "legal aid" counseling and are staffed by law students. This may be the only defense available to poor women, so it is important to measure whether all the training has been satisfactorily

completed according to the goal set in the project paper and the percentage of women students trained. If half of the current law students are women, then generally 200 of the 400 students to be trained are women. If this system of bufetes populares is to be replaced by a public defender system, the indicator should be the percentage of women trained and percentage employed as public defenders.

3. Improved legal information

Comment: The second component involves computerization of law and jurisprudence; there is no gender-specific activity.

4. Court system improvement to better serve women

WID indicator:

The new civil service system law for judicial branch employees passes 3rd Qtr. FY 1989. When the law has been operational for six months, measure the ratio of number of women hired to total number hired. Thereafter, measure annually the percentage of women promoted as well.

Comment: The development of a civil service judicial system is to remove political and personal considerations from judicial appointments. Once the system is instituted, the project should monitor the percentage of women hired and promoted. This measure can be compared with the pools of potential employees and those in line for promotions.

Method: Although about half of current law students are women, this may not be an accurate measure of potential employees for two reasons. First, many officials are students who have not completed their studies. Second, many graduated lawyers go into private practice. Lic. Agilera noted, however, two forces that might raise the percentage of women applying to over half: discrimination against women in private sector law and compatibility of court hours with women's family responsibilities. The comparison would have to be made either with the number of women who apply or with those who express their intention to serve in the courts in a poll.

WID indicator: Plan developed for interpreter corps to include a target percentage of women interpreters

Comment: It is proposed that people be trained to be court interpreters (between Spanish and Mayan languages) for monolingual clients. As constituted, the plan will be biased against women because priority is given to training existing court officials or alguaciles. According to Carmen Aguilera, all of the current alguaciles are men.

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WID indicator: Percentage of interpreters trained who are women. This is an especially crucial measure since women have a much higher degree of monolingualism.

Method: While 50% women would be ideal, this figure may have to be negotiated with the Guatemalan legal system, especially since priority has already been given to training the predominantly male court officials. The percentage of women trained should increase each year.

5. Studies of impacts on indigenous communities and on women

Comments: 1) Assessment of the impact of the formal justice system on Maya communities. The proposed study should specifically consider women as well as the community in general, and such should be written into the PIO/T. In addition, comparisons of impact on the major Maya groups involved in the project should be made.

2) Assessment of the special constraints for women in the administration of justice in Guatemala. The study as stated addresses women's participation in the legal professions, prosecutorial and investigative functions, and discrimination in the legal code. Measure the number of laws changed as a percentage of those targeted (see indicator under project goal). Factors that hinder women in obtaining justice need to be added to the study. For example, some factors such as monolingualism, physical isolation, and cultural and financial barriers to traveling to court sites are applicable especially to indigenous women. Other factors, such as illiteracy and the practice of predominantly male court officials of not taking women seriously, apply to poor women in general.

ANNEX F

A USER'S GUIDE TO PUBLICATIONS ON WID INDICATORS
AND DATA COLLECTION

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ANNEX F: A USER'S GUIDE TO PUBLICATIONS ON WID INDICATORS AND
DATA COLLECTION

The following is a brief annotated list of sources of technical information useful for incorporating WID concerns in project design, monitoring, evaluation, and data collection. Unless otherwise noted, the reports are available in the USAID/Guatemala WID library.

Alberti, Amalia. (1989). "Gender Issues in the Small Farmer Coffee Project." USAID/Guatemala, Office of Rural Development, Report No. 32.

Gives recommendations for including WID issues in project design and monitoring. The recommendations are applicable to other agricultural projects.

Anderson, Mary. (1986). Gender Issues in Basic Education and Vocational Training. (Gender Manual Series). Washington, DC: AID, PPC/WID.

Addresses the constraints in educating girls and women and suggests ways to design projects to eliminate these constraints.

Berger, Marguerite and M. Paolisso. (1988). "A Women in Development Strategy for USAID/Guatemala." USAID/Guatemala.

An excellent review of the socio-economic situation of women and the development implications, previous assistance efforts, and positive and negative factors by sector. Includes recommendations for assistance programs.

Carlioni, A.S. (1987). Women in Development: AID's Experience, 1973-1985. Vol. I. Synthesis Paper. Washington, DC: AID, PPC/WID.

A desk review of AID projects and their impact on women. Concludes that the crucial factors in successful projects are the degree of women's participation and efforts to remove barriers to their participation. How to achieve WID goals and objectives and suggestions for design and evaluation by sector are included.

Dixon, Ruth. (1980). "Assessing the Impact of Development Projects on Women." AID Program Evaluation Discussion Paper No. 8. AID, PPC/WID.

Advice about how to evaluate the impact of WID projects.

Kumar, Krisna. (n.d.). "Indicators for Measuring Changes in Income, Food Consumption and the Natural Resource Base" (The Findings of a Workshop). AID, PPC/CDIE.

An excellent source for anyone working with indicators. Discussion of selection and use of indicators, advice on measuring changes in income, food consumption, soil quality, and crop yields.

_____. (April 1987). Conducting Group Interviews in Developing Countries. AID Program Design and Evaluation Methodology Report No. 8. AID, PPC/CDIE.

A technical discussion of group interview methodology, but accessible to the non-expert reader. See article below for other rapid appraisal methods.

_____. (December 1987). "Rapid, Low-Cost Data Collection Methods for AID." AID Program Design and Evaluation Methodology Report No. 10. AID, PPC/CDIE.

A review of several methods for doing rapid appraisal. The report is especially good at methodology for group interviews.

Nieves, Isabel. (1982). "Elements of Women's Economic Integration: Project Indicators for the World Bank." International Center for Research on Women.

Discusses both the design and implementation of AID projects using the following three sectors as examples: credit, shelter and training. The recommendations are still germane today.

_____. (1985). "Women in Agriculture in the Western Highlands of Guatemala: Suggestions for Data Collection." USAID/Guatemala.

Suggests indicators which could be used in three rural development projects, Commercial Land Markets, Crop Diversification, and Cooperative Strengthening.

Norton, Maureen, and S. Benoliel. (1987). "Guidelines For Data Collection, Monitoring, and Evaluation Plans for AID-Assisted Projects". AID Program Design and Evaluation Methodology Report No. 9. AID, PPC.

Not focused on gender issues; nevertheless, the methods suggested here are the same as those used for data collection and monitoring on WID issues in projects.

Office of Women in Development, Bureau of Program and Policy Coordination, AID. (n.d.). "Gender Information Framework" and "The Gender Information Framework: Pocket Guide."

The "Gender Information Framework" is a mimeo giving a matrix of factors to be considered in development activities, gender considerations and key questions. The pocket guide identifies considerations of gender where they may intervene in production systems and gives guidance on including gender considerations in preparation of AID documents. Together these two documents give a quick yet thorough introduction to WID issues and incorporating WID issues into projects.

Otero, Maria. (1987). Gender Issues in Small Scale Enterprise. (Gender Manual Series). Washington, DC: AID, PPC/WID.

The manual is divided into three sections: a rationale for including gender issues; guidelines for integrating gender into project design; and guidelines for implementing, monitoring, and evaluating projects.

Russo, Sandra, Jennifer Bremer-Fox, Susan Poats, and Laurene Craig. (1989). Gender Issues in Agriculture and Natural Resource Management. (Gender Manual Series). Washington, DC: AID, PPC/WID.

The document reviews AID policy and previous research on WID, provides a rationale and detailed guidelines for design, monitoring, and evaluation. Includes guidelines for including gender considerations in AID documents. Also includes a brief description of several of the rapid appraisal methods discussed in more detail by Kumar. This is the most complete manual in the series, with practical advice and case studies, and is valuable to all sectors.

White, Karen, Maria Otero, Margaret Lycette and Mayra Buvinic. (1986). Integrating Women into Development Programs: A Guide for Implementation for Latin America and the Caribbean. Washington, DC: AID, PPC/WID.

Discusses the rationale for addressing women's issues, gives an overview of policy and institutional issues, and suggests project-level interventions for four sectors (micro-enterprise, housing, agriculture, and vocational training).

Additional Sources: We did not have the opportunity to review the following four documents prior to publication of this report. However, given the source of the documents (United Nations) and their titles, they appear to be worthwhile additions to this bibliography. The citations are given as they appear in the Publications Catalogue, 1990-1991 of the United Nations. The documents can be ordered through the United Nations, Sales Section, Room DC2-853, Dept. 701, New York, NY 10017. The telephone number is (212)963-8302.

Compendium of Statistics and Indicators on the Situation of Women. EF.88.XVII.6 92-1-061130-6 \$65.00 592pp.

Compiling Social Indicators on the Situation of Women. E.84.XVII.2 92-1-161195-4 \$12.00 94pp.

Improving Concepts and Methods for Statistics and Indicators on the Situation of Women. E.84.XVII.3 92-1-161206-3 \$8.50 80pp.

Improving Statistics and Indicators on Women Using Household Surveys. E.89.XVII.11 92-1-061133-0 \$23.50 234pp.

ANNEX G

BIBLIOGRAPHY: WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT AND WOMEN IN GUATEMALA

ANNEX G: BIBLIOGRAPHY: WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT AND WOMEN IN
GUATEMALA

This Annex is a bibliography of sources on women in development, women in Guatemala, and women in Latin America. The bibliography was assembled by the following methods: (1) an automated DIALOG search of The Economic Literature Index, PAIS International, U.S. Political Science Documents, and Sociological Abstracts from 1985 to the present, (2) requests to AID and PPC/WID in Washington for relevant publications, and (3) normal academic library research techniques, including the pursuit of references in relevant literature. We copied over 60 articles and book chapters and deposited them in the WID Library of AID/Guatemala. Where citations are annotated or abstracted, the source of the annotation is given in parentheses following the annotation.

AID policy paper: Women in development. (1982). Washington, DC: U.S. Agency for International Development.

Anderson, Mary B. (1986). Gender issues in basic education and vocational training: A manual for integrating the gender factor into basic education and vocational training projects. The gender manual series. Washington, DC: U.S. Agency for International Development.

Anker, Richard and Hein, Catherine. (1985). Fertility and employment in the third world. Populi, 12(2), 29-37.

Anker, Richard and Hein, Catherine. (1986). Sex inequalities in urban employment in the Third World. St. Martin's Press. Macmillan series of ILO studies.

Part of an International Labor Office research program on "Women's roles and demographic change," carried out within the framework of the World Employment Program. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 49: Pais International - 76-90/Mar (Copr. 1990 Pais Inc.)].

Arizpe, Lourdes. (1977). Women in the informal labor sector: The case of Mexico City. In Wellesley Editorial Committee (Ed.), Women and national development: The complexities of change (pp. 25-26). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Arizpe, Lourdes and Aranda, Josefina. (1981). The "comparative advantages" of women's disadvantages: Women workers in the strawberry export agribusiness in Mexico. Signs, 2, 453-473.

Maintains that the comparative advantage of the strawberry industry in Mexico is attained by taking advantage of local social characteristics of the region that allow the employment of women at sub-standard wages. (Falvey).

- Balderston, Judith B. (1981). Determinants of children's school participation. In Judith B. Balderston, et al., (Eds.) Malnourished children of the rural poor: The web of food, health, education, fertility, and agricultural production (pp. 83-105).
- Barnes-McConnell, Pat and Lodwick, Dora G. (1983). Working with international development projects: A guide for women-in-development. East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University Office of Women in International Development.
- Beneria, Lourdes. (1982). Accounting for women's work. In Lourdes Beneria (Ed.), Women and development: The sexual division of labor in rural societies (pp.119-147). New York: Pergamon Press.
- Beneria, Lourdes and Sen, Gita. (1981). Accumulation, reproduction, and women's role in economic development: Boserup revisited. Signs, 7(2), 279-298.

Discusses negative changes for women that arise from development. These include extra work; children in school and thus unable to help with domestic chores, loss of control over means of production and over product; loss of access to fuel and water; increased responsibilities as men take up migrant labor; marginalized labor; new forms of patriarchy; and new, worse, class differences. In agriculture, commoditization leads to less household production of household-consumed goods. Also discusses the effect of birth control on women, who makes birth control decisions on what basis, indigenous birth control, difference of opinion between women and other family members on birth control, and how childbirth affects other activities. (Falvey).

- Beneria, Lourdes. (Ed.). (1982). Women and development: The sexual division of labor in rural societies. New York: Praeger, for the International Labour Office.
- Benjamin, Medea. (Ed.). (1987). Don't be afraid, gringo: A Honduran woman speaks from the heart (Trans. Benjamin, M.). New York: Harper & Rowe.

An as-told-to (Medea Benjamin) story of the life of Elvia Alvarado, a Honduran campasina whose political awareness leads her to work on behalf of the campasinas and for agrarian reform. (Falvey).

- Berger, Marquerite, DeLancey, Virginia, and Mellencamp, Amy. (1984). Bridging the gender gap in agricultural extension. Washington, DC: USAID, Office of Women in Development, ICRW.

Berger, Marguerite and Paolisso, Michael. (1988). A women in development strategy for USAID/Guatemala: Annex B draft. International Center for Research on Women.

Birdsall, Nancy and McGreevey, William Paul. (1983). Women, poverty, and development. In Mayra Buvinic, Margaret A. Lycette, and William Paul McGreevey (Eds.), Women and poverty in the third world (pp. 3-13). Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Black, George. (1984). Garrison Guatemala. New York: Monthly Review Press.

A very detailed and well written history of Guatemalan government oppression and terrorism from the 50s until the early 80s. Especially good on the history and development of the opposition movement organizations and parties, both revolutionary and legal. (Favley).

Black, Naomi and Cottrell, Ann Baker. (Eas.). (1981) Women and world change: Equity issues in development. Beverly Hills: Sage Publishers.

Bossen, Laurel H. (1983). The redivision of labor: Women and economic choice in four Guatemalan communities. Albany: State University of New York Press.

Bossert, Thomas John (1984). Health-policy innovation and international assistance in Central America. Political science quarterly, 9(3), 441-455.

International agencies have increasingly emphasized primary health care--the provision of low-cost services to the most needy and the promotion of preventive health measures by medical paraprofessionals--as the best means of serving rural communities and marginal urban areas in the Third World. This article assesses the merits of two general strategies of international agencies involved in health planning: (1) an integrated approach that views health as a holistic problem which demands comprehensive planning, programming, and coordination by many agencies; and (2) a concentrated approach that stresses simplicity, limited goals, and specific projects. The author focuses on the implementation of these approaches in Guatemala and Honduras, comparing the conditions and constraints that lead agencies and recipient nations to favor one strategy over another. He identifies three determining factors in the choice of health care strategy: (1) the organizational goals and structures of the donor and recipient agencies; (2) changes in the policy environment; and (3) the character of bargaining between the agencies. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 93: U S Political Science Documents - 75-89/ISS 2.]

Boulding, Elise. (1983). Measures of women's work in the third world: Problems and suggestions. In Myra Buvinic, Margaret A. Lycette, and William Paul McGreevey, (Eds.), Women and poverty in the third world (pp. 286-299). Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Bourque, Susan C. and Warren, Kay B. (1981). Women of the Andes: Patriarchy and social change in two Peruvian towns. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

Bourguignon, Erika, et al. (1980). A world of women: Anthropological studies of women in the societies of the world. New York: Praeger and J.F. Bergin Publishers.

Bunster, Ximena B. (1983). Market sellers in Lima, Peru: Talking about work. In Mayra Buvinic, Margaret A. Lycette, and William Paul McGreevey (Eds.), Women and poverty in the third world (pp. 92-103). Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Burgos-Debray, Elisabeth. (Ed.). (1984). I. Rigoberta Menchu: An Indian woman in Guatemala (Ann Wright, Trans.). London: Verso. (Original work published 1983).

An as-told-to (Elisabeth Burgos-Debray) story of the life of Rigoberta Menchu, a Quiche Guatemalan woman. Rigoberta's father, Vincente, was one of those killed in the occupation of the Spanish Embassy in 1980. Her brother and mother were killed in other incidents. An activist with the CUC, she lived in exile for a period and returned to work with the Vincente Menchu Revolutionary Christians. Contains many details of Quiche life as well as a personal document of political oppression and terrorism. (Falvey).

Buvinic, Mayra. (1983). Women's issues in third world poverty: A policy analysis. In Mayra Buvinic, Margaret A. Lycette, and William Paul McGreevey (Eds.), Women and poverty in the third world (pp. 14-31). Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Buvinic, Mayra. (1986). Projects for women in the third world: Explaining their misbehavior. World development, 14, 653-664.

A large number of income-generation projects for poor women in the Third World designed during the United Nations Decade for Women (1975-1985) have "misbehaved"-- i.e., their economic objectives have evolved into welfare action. Project misbehavior and the prevalence of welfare interventions can be explained by three factors: (1) particular project characteristics define the typical intervention for women and facilitate the achievement of social rather than production aims; (2) these

characteristics are a result of the expertise in the welfare sector of women-based institutions that execute women's projects; and (3) the choice of women-based implementing agencies and the more generalized preference for welfare action are determined by the comparatively lower financial and social costs derived from the implementation of welfare- versus economic-based policies for women in developing countries. Some new, women-based, paid-staff agencies are evaluated as an alternative to the traditional volunteer-based model of women-only agencies. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 37: Sociological Abstracts 63-90/APR (Copr. Soc. Abstracts).]

Buvinic, Mayra and Horenstein, Nadine R. (1986). Women's issues in shelter, agriculture, training and institutional development: Assessment for USAID/Costa Rica. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Agency for International Development.

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Cain, Melinda L. (1981). Java, Indonesia: The introduction of rice processing technology. In Roslyn Dauber and Melinda Cain (Eds.), Women and technological change in developing countries (pp 127-137). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

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Catanese, Anthony V. (1985). Third world rural poverty: Field observations and solutions and some operating principles for religious groups. International journal of social economics, 12(6/7), 68-79.

Chaney, Elsa. (1984). Women of the world: Latin America and the Caribbean. Washington, DC: U.S. Bureau of the Census/USAID.

Charlton, Sue Ellen M. (1984). Women in third world development. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Chinchilla, N. S. (1977). Industrialization, monopoly capitalism and women's work in Guatemala. Signs, 3(1), 38-56.

Warns that capital/industrialization in developing countries does not advantage women. Statistics on employment by gender for Guatemala. (Falvey).

Cosminsky, Shelia. (1987). Women and health care on a Guatemalan plantation. Social science and medicine, 25(10), 1163-1173.

The role of women as family health care providers and decision makers on a Guatemalan sugar and coffee plantation is assessed. Information on illness episodes, health-seeking behavior, and expenditures was collected for plantation households (N = 35) during 1978; interviews with folk healers, spiritualists, and health care personnel in the area were also undertaken. The data suggest that a woman's health care decisions are based on the interaction of service characteristics, nature of illness, and available time and monetary resources. It is argued that improved living conditions and sanitation would reduce the incidence of disease. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 37: Sociological Abstracts 63-90/APR (Copr. Soc. Abstracts).]

Cuadra, Ernesto, Anderson, Mary, Moreland, Scott and Dall, Frank. (1988). Female access to basic education: Trends, policies and strategies. Washington DC: The Office of Women in Development, U.S. Agency for International Development.

Curtin, Leslie B. (1982). Status of women: A comparative analysis of twenty developing countries. Report on the World Fertility Survey no. 5. Washington, DC: Population Reference Bureau.

Dauber, Roslyn and Cain, Melinda L. (Ed.). (1981). Women and technological change in developing countries. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

DaVanzo, Julie and Lee, Donald Lye Poh. (1983). The compatibility of child care with market and nonmarket activities: Preliminary evidence from Malaysia. In Mayra Buvinic, Margaret A. Lycette, and William Paul McGreevey (Eds.), Women and poverty in the third world (pp. 62-91). Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Davis, Shelton and Hodson, Julie. (1982). Witnesses to political violence in Guatemala: The suppression of a rural development movement. Boston: Oxfam America.

A report of responses to a questionnaire about how political violence was affecting Maya life in Guatemala and to assess the status of the rural development movement. Respondents were members of various development, relief, and religious agencies working in rural areas. Includes appendices of amount of poverty and a chronology of violence from 1976 to 1982. (Falvey).

Deere, Carmen Diana. (1976). Rural women's subsistence production in the capitalist periphery. Review of Radical Political Economy, 3(1), 9-17.

Rural women's subsistence production in the capitalist periphery allows semi-proletarian male workers to sell their labor power to capitalist units of production for less than a subsistence familial wage. Thus, women's contribution toward the maintenance and reproduction of labor power within the rural labor reserve permits the non-capitalist mode of production to absorb the costs of production and reproduction of labor power. The division of labor by sex, based on the articulation between modes of production, serves to lower the value of labor power for capital, enhancing the relative rate of surplus value for peripheral capital accumulation. [Taken from article abstract.]

Deere, Carmen Diana. (1982). The division of labor by sex in agriculture: A Peruvian case study. Economic Development and Cultural Change, 30(4), 795-811.

Argues that for lower class families (contrary to Boserup's thesis), agriculture becomes more women's work as its importance declines in the face of industrialization. (Falvey).

Deere, Carmen Diana. (1983). The allocation of familial labor and the formation of peasant household income in the Peruvian Sierra. In Mayra Buvinic, Margaret A. Lycette, and William Paul McGreevey (Eds.), Women and poverty in the third world (pp. 104-129). Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

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- Deere, Carmen Diana and Leon de Leal, Magdalena. (1981). Peasant production, proletarianization, and the sexual division of labor in the Andes. Signs, 7(2), 338-360.
- Deere, Carmen Diana and Leon de Leal, Magdalena. (1982). Women in Andean agriculture: Peasant production and rural wage employment in Colombia and Peru. Women, work and development, 4, 1-23.
- Dixon, Ruth B. (1980). Assessing the impact of development projects on women. Discussion Paper No. 8, Washington, DC: Office of Women in Development and Office of Evaluation, Bureau for Program and Policy Coordination, U.S. Agency for International Development.
- Dixon, Ruth B. (1982). Women in agriculture: Counting the labor force in developing countries. Population and development review, 8, 539-566.
- Dixon, Ruth. (1983). Land, labour, and the sex composition of the agricultural labor force: An international comparison. Development and change, 14, 347-72.

Includes some 95 countries. Finds that female labor force participation in agriculture is highest where production is for subsistence and for local markets, and there are low levels of urbanization and male out migration. The agricultural labor force is more male where land distribution is skewed, production is for export, work is for wages and where women are migrating to urban areas. Of these variables landholding pattern accounts for the most variance in participation by gender.

Suggests that further macro analysis will contribute little to understanding the factors that account for the unexplained variance, and that case studies will be more beneficial. (Falvey).

- Dwyer, Daisy and Bruce, Judith. (Eds.). (1988). A home divided: Women and income in the Third World. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Theorists' failure to acknowledge intrahousehold negotiation over assets and possibly severe inequalities within households, the tendency to separate gender dynamics at the microeconomic level, allocational priorities women apply to their own income and other income they control, fertility decision making, gender-differentiated use of time, and how women perceive their

dilemma. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 49: Pais International -76/90/Mar (Copr. 1990 Pais Inc.).]

Early, John D. (1982). The demographic structure and evolution of a peasant system: The Guatemalan population. Boca Raton, FL: University Presses of Florida.

Elmendorf, Mary. (1981). Changing role of Maya mothers and daughters. In Roslyn Dauber and Melinda L. Cain (Ed.), Women and technological change in developing countries (pp. 149-179). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Elmendorf, Mary. The dilemma of peasant women: A view from a village in Yucatan. In Tinker, I. and Bramsen M. (Eds.), Women and world development (pp. 88-94). Washington, DC: Overseas Development Council.

Engle, Patricia L., Yarbrough, Charles, and Klein, Robert E. (1983). Sex differences in the effects of nutrition and social environment on mental development in rural Guatemala. In Mayra Buvinic, Margaret A. Lycette, and William Paul McGreevey (Eds.), Women and poverty in the third world (pp. 198-215). Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Fals-Borda, Orlando. (1985). Wisdom as power. Development, 3, 66-67.

A popular reaction toward renewing the autonomy of the common people is now occurring throughout the Third World. The rediscovery of traditional knowledge is a crucial element in this reaction. Participation is no longer merely a concession of established regimes meant to preserve their power, but a genuine counterdiscourse. Two crucial groups are now leading the struggle for transformation in Third World societies: women, and marginal young literates. The renewal of ancestral wisdom is vital to their struggle. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 37: Sociological Abstracts 63-90/APR (Copr. Soc. Abstracts).]

Ferguson, Anne and Flores, Marina. (1987). Guatemala: Resource guide to women in agriculture. The Bean/Cowpea collaborative research support program (CRSP). Michigan State University: USAID/BIFAD.

Fiedler, John L. (1985). Latin American health policy and additive reform: The case of Guatemala. International journal of health services 15(2), 275-99.

Discusses the problems of the Guatemalan oligarchy in resisting health care aimed at primary care for all. Outside agencies, such as USAID, have tried with some success to deliver such primary care. But this has been,

the author says, "tacked" on to the in place classist system. Recommends the necessity of continued support for these outside agencies so that their gains will not be lost. (Falvey).

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Flora, Cornelia Butler. (1982). Socialist feminism in Latin American. Working papers on Women in International Development {14}, Office of Women in International Development, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI.

Freeman, H.E., Klein, R.E., Townsend, J.W., and Lechtig, A. (1980). Nutrition and cognitive development among rural Guatemalan children. American journal of public health, 70(12), 1277-1285.

Women and children from four Guatemalan villages participated in a voluntary food supplementation program for seven years. In two of the villages, they received a vitamin and mineral fortified, high-protein calorie supplement. In the other two villages, the vitamin-mineral fortified supplement contained a relatively small number of calories and no protein.

Cognitive tests were administered regularly to children ages three to seven, and anthropometric measures obtained. In addition, measures of families' social milieu were collected at several points in time.

Using multiple regression analysis, we find that both nutritional and social environmental measures are related to various dimensions of cognitive competence. The results suggest that nutritional intake, independent of social factors, affects cognitive development. There is also some evidence that the children who receive the high-protein calorie supplement (and whose mothers received it during pregnancy and lactation) are more likely to score high in cognitive performance. Our results, while not diminishing social environmental explanations of differences in cognitive function, suggest benefits from nutrition intervention programs in rural areas of lesser-developed countries. [Abstract from the article.]

Geertz, Clifford. (1963). Agriculture involution: The process of ecological change in Indonesia. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Explores the dual economy in developing countries--a capital intensive modern sector and a labor-intensive traditional sector. The first is created by colonialism and is a foreign export sector. The second sector is

"rigorously stereotyped" and becomes a reserve economy that fills in when the export sector shrinks due to poor world markets. The traditional sector subsidizes the export sector through low wages. (Falvey).

Gonzalez, Nancie Loudon. (1984). Rethinking the consanguineal household and matrifocality. Ethnology, 23(1), 1-12.

The social organization of the Black Caribs in Livingston, Guatemala, exhibits a remarkable flexibility in residential and marital arrangements. Throughout their lifetimes, most Black Caribs (or Garifuna) in the community change their living arrangements many times, alternating between consanguineal and affinal households according to the needs of the moment. This marital and residential instability is a successful adaptive strategy to cope with circumstances of poverty, stress, and dependence on the outside world. The three major ideational themes of Garifuna culture are: (1) Individualism, (2) Matrifocality, and (3) Migration. Households in Livingston are units of consumption rather than production, and their members cluster together to pool resources for mutual aid. Matrifocal family and consanguineal household institutions provide a relatively secure and stable environment in a precarious social and economic order. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 93: U S Political Science Documents - 75-89/ISS 2.]

Gross, Joseph John and Kendall, Carl. (1983). The analyses of domestic organization in Mesoamerica: The case of postmarital residence in Santiago Atitlan. In Kendall, Carl, Hawkins, John, and Bossen, Laurel (Eds.), Heritage of Conquest Thirty Years Later (pp 201-228). Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press.

Guatemala: The human rights record. (1987) London: Amnesty International Publications.

Testimony of various victims and witnesses to human rights violations: these include Indians, trade unionists, and clerics. Discusses the massacres of Montt's and Victore's regimes and the failure of government courts to address the abuses. Includes appendices on: Amnesty's recommendations; a short list of violations during 1986; list of massacres during 1982; and list of disappeared people, 1981-1984. (Falvey).

Handy, Jim. (1984). Gift of the Devil: A History of Guatemala. Boston: South End Press.

A well done and thorough political history of Guatemala from Colonial days through Montt's regime in the early 80s.

Maintains that, in most periods, the Army has not been effectively controlled by government and was filled with corruption at highest levels. "Revolts" within the Army were instituted by those who saw corruption as weakening the Army. The ebb and flow of the ineffective Army resulted in guerrilla occupation of many areas, followed by Army reaction of intensification of brutality in those areas.

Politicians look for support from the urban middle class who are willing to support those who make life in the city stable--thus producing a rural-urban division. Economically, Guatemala has an inadequate tax structure; it depends on exports of its agricultural products (has little internal market), and much of its wealth is invested outside the country.

Attempts at land reform have met with strong resistance from the wealthy land owners. Corruption in the military resulted in high ranking officers grabbing large tracts of land. (Falvey).

Hearing and Briefing on the Ninety-Fifth Congress. (1978).
International women's issues. (Catalog No. Y4.IN 8/16: W84).
 Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Herrera, L.A., et al. (1980). Testimonies of Guatemalan women.
Latin American perspectives, VII(2 and 3), Issues 25 and 26.

Two extensive interviews, one with a campesina and one with a politically radical upper class Guatemalan woman. This article provides a welcome and necessary account of the real lives of women who are reduced to impersonal statistics in most studies of Central American women. (Falvey).

Hoy, Don R. and Belisle, Francois J. (1984). Environmental protection and economic development in Guatemala's Western Highlands. Journal of developing areas, 18(2), 161-176.

In developing countries, economic growth and environmental protection are often regarded as incompatible, rather than complementary, goals. In Latin America, this conflict has been especially intense, due to the rapid rate of population growth, the environmentally exploitative nature of economic growth, the environmentally exploitative nature of economic activity, and the enormous pressure on overtaxed resources. This article examines the environmental problems of Guatemala, with special reference to the Western Highlands. The authors analyze the ambivalent attitudes and competing objectives of Guatemalan government officials and business leaders in regard to economic development and the environment. They

discuss the major ecological problems of the nation, including: (1) growing population pressure, (2) deforestation, (3) soil erosion and depletion, (4) water contamination, (5) urban-industrial pollution, (6) pesticide misuse, and (7) habitat destruction. They suggest the need to incorporate environmental concerns into economic planning and to devise development strategies that put less stress on the nation's natural resources. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 93: U S Political Science Documents - 75-89/ISS 2.]

Iglitzin, Lynne B., and Ross, Ruth. (Eds.). (1976). Women in the world: A comparative study. Santa Barbara, CA: Cilo.

Jacobson, Jodi L. (1988). The forgotten resource: Third world women have had their economic potential shackled by discriminatory laws and misguided development assistance. World Watch, 1, 35-42.

Jameson, Kenneth P. (1988). Education's role in rural areas of Latin America. Economics of education review, 7(3), 333-343.

Jamison, Ellen. (1985). Women of the world: A chartbook for developing regions. Washington, DC: Office of Women in Development, Bureau for Program and Policy Coordination, U.S. Agency for International Development.

Jaquette, Jane S. (1982). Women and modernization theory: A decade of feminist criticism. World Politics, 34(2), 267-284.

Reviews the feminist critique of liberal modernization theory, feminist-socialist critique of Marxist theory, and the critique of the separate sphere perspective. Concludes that gender disaggregated data are essential in understanding the impact of development on women. (Falvey).

Jayachandran, J. and Jarvis, George K. (1986). Socioeconomic development, medical care, and nutrition as determinants of infant mortality in less-developed countries. Social biology, 33(3-4), 301-315.

Using United Nations and World Health Organization statistical data for 60 less-developed countries, 1950-1982, a causal model is constructed in which medical care, nutrition, status of women and socioeconomic development are examined as determinants of infant mortality. Social and economic development are treated as exogenous variables; medical care, nutrition, and status of women are endogenous variables. The model is tested by maximum likelihood methods. Results indicate that good nutrition and the presence of informally trained health care personnel, i.e., midwives, are more significantly related

to low rates of infant mortality than are the employment status of women and the presence of formally trained health care personnel such as physicians and nurses. The general level of social and economic development conditions these relationships. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 37: Sociological Abstracts 63-90/APR (Copr. Soc. Abstracts).]

Jensen, Eric. (1985). Desired fertility, the "Up to God" response, and sample selection bias. Demography, 22(3), 445-454.

Kardam, Nuket. (1987). Social theory and women in development policy. Women and politics, 7, 67-82.

The adverse impact of policies of development agencies toward poor women of developing countries has been documented since the 1970s. Policy proposals have included training programs, research and data collection on women and allocation of resources to employ more women professionals to set up and monitor programs related to women and development, but implementation has been minimal. The question of why these problems have persisted is explored from an epistemological perspective by considering women in development within the prevailing discourses of gender, development, and development research. Definitions of what women can and cannot do are determined by the gender discourse. The discourse on development allows the inclusion of women only within the limits set by the gender discourse; it may be willing to consider the constraints on women posed by the gender discourse if these constraints affect the economic success of projects, but otherwise, its assumptions and methodology have, in general, not been receptive to the consideration of women. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 37: Sociological Abstracts 63-90/APR (Copr. Soc. Abstracts).]

Kelly, Gail and Carolyn M. Elliott (Eds.). (1982). Women's education in the third world: Comparative perspectives. Albany: SUNY.

Kelly, Maria Patricia Fernandez. (1981). Development and the sexual division of labor: An introduction. Signs, 7(2), 268-278.

Kendall, Carl. (1978). Female-headed households and domestic organization in San Isidro, Guatemala: A test of Hammel and Laslett's comparative typology. Journal of comparative family studies, 9(1), 129-141.

- Kendall, Carl, Hawkins, John and Bossen, Laurel. 1983. (Eds.). Heritage of conquest: Thirty years later. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press.
- King, Elizabeth and Evenson, Robert E. (1983). Time allocation and home production in Philippine rural households. In Mayra Buvinic, Margaret A. Lycette, and William Paul McGreevey (Eds.), Women and poverty in the third world (pp. 35-61). Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- La Belle, Thomas J. (Eds.). (1975). Educational alternatives in Latin America: Social change and social stratification. University of California, Los Angeles: UCLA Latin American Center Publications.
- La Belle, Thomas J. (Eds.). (1972). Education and development: Latin America and the Caribbean. University of California, Los Angeles: UCLA Latin American Center Publications.
- Laboratory of Comparative Human Cognition. (1986). Contributions of cross-cultural research to educational practice. American psychologist, 41(10), 1049-1058.
- Leacock, Eleanor. (1981). History, development, and the division of labor by sex: Implications for organization. Signs, 7(2), 474-491.

Briefly reviews obstacles to women's advancement in the development process. Argues that women's position is not improving and is often deteriorating. Asks why study this further; why not simply get on with reform programs? Maintains that further study is essential to reform in that it could raise women's morale and help them determine goals and institute reform at the "grass-roots level." In particular, suggests studies that will: (1) counter assumptions of male dominance; (2) analyze women's lives during European modernization; (3) analyze historical changes in the sexual division of labor and its effect on third world women; and (4) analyze the connections between the sexual division of labor, capitalism, and patriarchy. (Falvey).

- Leitinger, Ilse A. (1985). Women's legal status and role choices in six Latin American societies: A cross-cultural, longitudinal analysis (1950-70) and a single-case update (1980). Working Papers on Women in International Development 91, Office of Women in International Development, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI.

Lele, Uma. (1986). Women and structural transformation. Economic development and cultural change, 34(2), 195-221.

The role of women in primary production and economic processes in developing countries is examined. The literature on this subject is briefly reviewed, as are overall trends in the economies of developing countries over the past two decades. Women's influence on production is analyzed by examining the degree of substitution between their labor in agricultural production and other activities, between labor and capital, and between male and female labor under different conditions. The implications of women's differential access to factors of production and social services for their individual and family welfare are also considered. Policy implications of this evidence are identified, and areas where further research is needed are pointed out. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 37: Sociological Abstracts 63-90/Apr (Copr. Soc. Abstracts).]

Leslie, Joanne. (1989). Women's time: A factor in the use of child survival technologies? Health policy and planning, 4(1), 1-16.

Through time allocation, studies have shown that women in developing countries face severe time constraints, that they have been less clear about the time women spend on sporadic rather than daily activities--e.g., self- and childcare in the home and utilization of health services. Reporting such activities as a daily average masks the true cost of periodically losing half a day or more of work time. Almost no direct empirical data have been collected on women's time costs of breastfeeding, immunizations, growth monitoring, or oral rehydration therapy for diarrhea, nor on whether time costs are an important determinant of the utilization of such health measures. Specific research designed around the introduction of child survival projects and the evaluation of ongoing projects could fill this gap. Even without additional research, the evidence thus far suggests that time constraints may be a significant deterrent to mothers' use of child survival technologies, and that outreach efforts may be an important means of increasing utilization. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 37: Sociological Abstracts 63-90/APR (Copr. Soc. Abstracts).]

Leslie, Joanne. (1988). Women's work and child nutrition in the third world. World development, 16, 1341-1362.

Lim, Linda. (1981). Women's work in multinational electronic factories. In Roslyn Dauber and Melinda L. Cain (Eds.), Women and technological change in developing countries (pp. 181-190). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Lindsay, Beverly. (Ed.) (1980). Comparative perspectives of third world women: The impact of race, sex, and class. New York: Praeger Publishers.

Livingstone, Neil C. (1983-84). Death squads. World Affairs, 146(3), 239-248.

The death squads--largely right wing, but also existing on the left--now endemic in Central and South America trace their origins to the Guatemalan White Hand organization which sprang up following the CIA-inspired overthrow of President Jacob Arbenz in 1954. It is argued that the savage acts perpetrated by death squads in Honduras, Nicaragua, Brazil, Uruguay, and Argentina were an effective form of anti-terrorism and that such methods are relied upon when the state is too weak to contain leftist terrorism. The self-appointed vigilantes arise to fill the power vacuum. Leftist terrorism was eliminated in Turkey and Argentina by death squads before democracy could reappear. The author asserts that the termination of US aid in Argentina and Guatemala during the 1970s encouraged the death squads as poor substitutes for internal security and that human rights abuses are inevitable during internal wars. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 93: U.S. Political Science Documents - 75-89/ISS 2.]

Lustig, Nora and Rendon, Teresa. (1979). Female employment, occupational status, and socioeconomic characteristics of the family in Mexico. Signs, 5(11), 143-153.

Concludes, indirectly, that the higher labor force participation rates of women from higher income families is due to their advantage in education, their lower fertility rates and their financial ability to hire child care. Low SES women had lower participation rates due to low skills, many children, and unsatisfactory job opportunities. Unpaid women workers occur most often in households where the man was self employed. Self-employed and unpaid working women were the poorest. The poorest women were the ones most frequently unemployed. (Palvey).

McBride, Mark E., Bertrand, Jane T., Santiso, Roberto and Fernandez, Victor Hugo. (1987). Cost effectiveness of the APROFAM program for voluntary surgical contraception in Guatemala. Evaluation review, 11(3), 300-326.

Comparative analyses of the relative cost effectiveness of five Asociacion Pro Bienestar de la Familia (APROFAM) service delivery methods for providing voluntary surgical contraception (VSC) in the interior of Guatemala, focusing primarily on the relative effectiveness of fixed facilities with local physicians or mobile teams. A retrospective analysis of 1979-1984 program records finds that the mobile teams are relatively more expensive than using local physicians. This result was tempered by an analysis of monthly cost and service-level statistics, which revealed that the mobile teams are relatively cheaper to use, and that the fixed facilities need high demand levels (which are unlikely to occur in the interior) to achieve low costs at the margin. The findings led the funding agency to retain the mobile team model. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 37: Sociological Abstracts 63-90/APR (Copr. Soc. Abstracts).]

McClintock, Michael. (1985). State terror and popular resistance in Guatemala: The American connection (Vol. 2). London: Zed Books.

A good analysis of USA-Guatemala relations. Begins with a brief history of the Colonial period and moves into the contemporary period of the United Fruit Co. and through the early 80s. Documents the role of the USA in assisting directly and indirectly in the Guatemalan government oppression of the campesinos-Indian and Ladino. (Falvey).

McDowell, Paul. Guatemalan stratification and peasant marketing arrangements: A different view. Man, II, 273-281.

Mendez-Dominguez, Alfredo. (1983). Family and household structures in Guatemalan society. Journal of comparative family studies, 14(2), 229-255.

Merrick, Tomas and Schmink, Marianne. (1983). Households headed by women and urban poverty in Brazil. In: Mayra Buvanic, Margaret A. Lycette and William Paul McGreevey (Eds.), Women and poverty in the third world, 244-71. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Miller, Barbara. (1982). Women in public domain in developing countries. Women's studies quarterly, 6-9.

- Mueller, Eva. (1983). Measuring women's poverty in developing countries. In Mayra Suvinic, Margaret A. Lycette, and William Paul McGreevey (Eds.), Women and poverty in the third world (pp. 272-285). Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Nash, June. (1983). Implications of technological change for household level and rural development. Working papers on Women in International Development {37}, Office of Women in International Development, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI.
- Nash, June and Safa, Helen Icken. (Eds.) (1976). Sex and class in Latin America. New York: Praeger.
- Navarro, Marysa. (1979). Research on Latin American women. Signs, 5(1), 111-120.
- Argues that Latin American scholarship, with its dependency model, is not truly feminist. (Falvey).
- Nelson, Nici. (1979). Why has development neglected rural women? Women in development series, 1, 108. Elmsford, NY: Pergamon Press.
- Nieves, Isabel. (1979). Household arrangements and multiple jobs in San Salvador. Signs, 5(1), 134-142.
- Maintains that in urban San Salvador consanguineal household arrangements among the poor are more beneficial to women than other arrangements. (Falvey).
- Nimis, Marion Marshall. (1982). The contemporary role of women in lowland Maya livestock production. In Kent V. Flannery (Eds.), Maya Subsistence: Studies in memory of Dennis E. Puleston (pp. 313-325). New York: Academic Press.
- O'Brien, Patricia J. (1983). Population policy, economic development and multinational corporations in Latin America: Issues and impacts. Working papers on Women in International Development {32}, Office of Women in International Development, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI.
- Odell, M.E. (1982). The domestic context of production and reproduction in a Guatemalan community. Human ecology, 10(1), 47-69.

Investigates the relationship between fertility and domestic adjustments that people have made to changing conditions of production and consumption in a rural community in western Guatemala. Present and past systems of production and the domestic factors affecting the timing of family formation and the incidence of sexual activity within unions are described. Analysis of

variance for demographic variables among three productive sectors reveals that the greatest changes in fertility over time have occurred in the families of labor-intensive garlic producers and in those of poor basketmaking specialists. The results are discussed as direct and indirect outcomes of earlier family formation due to recurrent labor crises and chronic subsistence stress. [Abstract from the article.]

Orlansky, Dora and Dubrovsky, Silvia. (1978). The effects of rural-urban migration on women's role and status in Latin America. Paris: UNESCO.

Otero, Maria. (1987). Gender issues in small scale enterprise: Guidebook for integrating women into small and micro enterprise projects. The gender manual series. Washington, DC: U.S. Agency for International Development.

Overholt, Catherine, Anderson, Mary B., Cloud, Kathleen and Austin, James E, (Eds.). (1985). Gender roles in development projects: A case book. West Hartford, CT: Kumarian Press.

Palmer, Ingrid and von Buchwald, Ulrike. (1980). Monitoring changes in conditions of women--a critical review of possible approaches. Geneva: UN Research Institute for Social Development.

Peacock, Walter and Green, Gary. (1988). Home production in peasant households: Family labor, farm structure, and cultural factors. Association paper of the Rural Sociological Society.

In recent years there has been a resurgence in research on the structure of peasant economies. Much of this literature has relied on either the Chayanovian theory of utility and demographic differentiation or neoclassical economic theories of the firm to explain the economic and political logic of peasants. These theories are used here to examine one component of the organization of the peasant household--the home production process. Analysis of the interaction between family labor characteristics, farm structure, and cultural factors in influencing the extent of home production among peasants in Guatemala indicates that cultural factors are the strongest predictors of home production activities. There are, however, different patterns in the production of food,

clothing, fuel, and furniture. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 37: Sociological Abstracts 63-90/APR (Copr. Soc. Abstracts).]

Pebley, Anne R. and Stupp, Paul W. (1987). Reproductive patterns and child mortality in Guatemala. Demography, 24(1), 43-60.

Phillips, Joseph M. and Marble, Robert P. (1986). Farmer education and efficiency: A frontier production function approach. Economics of education review, 5(3), 257-264.

Pohl, Mary and Feldman, Lawrence H. (1982). The traditional role of women and animals in lowland Maya economy. In Kent V. Flannery (Eds.), Maya Subsistence: Studies in memory of Dennis E. Puleston (pp. 295-311). New York: Academic Press.

Poole, Debbie. (1975). Parallelism in Andean social structures: The effects of social change on women's status. Paper in women's studies, 1(3), 122-146.

Popkin, Barry M. (1983). Rural women, work, and child welfare in the Philippines. In Mayra Buvinic, Margaret A. Lycette, and William Paul McGreevey (Eds.), Women and poverty in the third world (pp. 157-176). Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Redclift, Michael R. (1981). Making farming systems research serve the needs of peasant producers: A Guatemalan case. Human organization, 40, 352-355.

Examines the work of one team of agricultural scientists from ICTA working with small farmers. Suggests that if Guatemala small farmers are less willing to migrate to work on big farms, increasing the efficiency of their own small farms is necessary. Maintains that the best way to do this is not with didactic information dissemination but through a two-way interactive learning process whereby the scientists also learn from the farmers about their indigenous farming techniques. (Falvey).

Rogers, Barbara. (1980). The domestication of women: discrimination in developing societies. New York: Tavistock Publications.

The book is mostly an essay criticizing development agencies for not considering women. Many narrative examples. Chapter two on theory is a useful review. (Falvey).

Rogers, Susan Carol. (1978). Woman's place: A critical review of anthropological theory. Comparative studies in society and history, 20, 123-162.

Rosenberg, Terry J. (1985). Women and development: Latin American perspectives. Peasant studies, 12(4), 279-286.

A review essay on Laurel H. Bossen's The Redivision of Labor: Women and Economic Choice in Four Guatemalan Communities (Albany: State University of NY Press, 1983), and Susan C. Bourques's and Kay B. Warren's Women of the

Andes: Patriarchy and Social Change in Two Peruvian Towns (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1981) which illustrate trends in the study of women in development. Bossen's monograph describes a year of fieldwork in Guatemala, involving participant observation and interviews in a range of communities. In her view, the evidence compiled documents a worsening of women's status as the modern world system and capitalism impinge on their lives. However, there are numerous flaws in Bossen's data collection and in the logic of her final evaluation. In contrast, Borque's and Warren's work provides an application of current theoretical and methodological innovations; they present an excellent review of the literature and an outline of original theory, and include information from a full decade of fieldwork in two small communities in the Peruvian Andes. The life histories of select women in these communities are analyzed meticulously and objectively. The importance of women's networks is highlighted, along with the complex process of which sexual inequality is negotiated. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 37: Sociological Abstracts 63-90/APR (Copr. Soc. Abstracts).]

Russo, Sandra, Bremer-Fox, Jenniger, Poats, Susan and Graig, Laurene. (1989). Gender issues in agriculture and natural resource management. The Gender Manual Series. Washington, DC: U.S. Agency for International Development.

Sachs, Carolyn E. (1983). The invisible farmers: Women in agriculture production. Totowa, NJ: Rowman and Allanheld.

Sachs, Carolyn E. (1987). Women, minorities, and children as special targets of development in third world nations. International journal of contemporary sociology, 24(3-4), 113-126.

Women, children, and ethnic minorities often represent major portions of the poor populations in developing countries. The role of these three groups in the development process is examined, with emphasis on the need for structural changes in the regional, sexual, and racial distribution of power. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 37: Sociological Abstracts 63-90/APR (Copr. Soc. Abstracts).]

Safa, Helen I. (1981). Runaway shops and female employment: The search for cheap labor. Signs, 7(2), 418-433.

Saffioti, Heleieth I. B. (1977). Women, mode of production, and social formations. Latin American perspectives, 4, 27-37.

Schuster, Ilsa. (1982). Review article: Recent research on women in development. The journal of development studies, 18, 511-535.

Sexton, J. D. (1977). Development and modernization among highland Maya: A comparative analysis of ten Guatemalan towns. Human organization, 36(2), 156-172.

As interest grows in the process of development and modernization among indigenous peoples, researchers are producing conflicting reports on the correlates of modernization. Some authors emphasize community development while others focus on individual modernization. The latter includes changes in economic and social behavior as well as attitudinal shifts.

From an examination of the literature, we derived a general guiding hypothesis: measures of town or community development should correlate positively with measures of individual modernization. On a more specific level we also hypothesized that development and larger populations will coincide; and that the larger the percentage of migrants within populations, the more individual modernization we will find.

With respect to the first hypothesis, we expected to find specifically that town development correlates positively with (1) modern forms of wealth; (2) ladinoization; (3) change from folk Catholicism (the civil-religious hierarchy) to reformed Catholicism and Protestantism; (4) motivation (a combination of life dissatisfaction and occupational aspirations, the latter a form of need-achievement); (5) deferred gratification; and (6) exposure (education, literacy, mass media, and travel.) On the other hand, we expected town development to correlate negatively with (1) traditional wealth; (2) folk Catholicism; and (3) traditional personality

characteristics (a combination of the acceptance of traditional beliefs and fatalism).

Regarding the second hypothesis, we expected to find specifically that the most developed towns would have the largest number of residents. With the third hypothesis we thought we would find that internal migrants in the town populations would be more individually modern than native born residents.

By testing these hypotheses with data from ten towns surrounding Lake Atitlan, we hoped to reveal a hierarchy of predictors with respect to town development and individual modernization, the latter involving a combination of economic, social, and psychological

variables. If there is such a hierarchy, it would have important implications for culture change theory and for change agents working in developing communities.

This paper has presented an analysis of the relationship between modernization (individual change) and development (community change) with a focus on both material and nonmaterial changes. Factor scanning was used to identify clusters of variables considered relevant to the modernizing process. The variables are somewhat arbitrarily labeled, but these classifications coincide with ethnographic information.

In the more developed towns, ladinoization is best predicted by exposure, a cognitive variable, whereas in the more traditional towns it is best predicted by modern wealth. A change in religious behavior is best predicted by personality and motivation variables in developed and underdeveloped towns alike. Delayed gratification is inversely related to development, but internal migration correlates directly. There is a rather weak relationship between population and development.

Patterns of relationships within the towns suggest that there is a hierarchy of predictors beginning with economic variables, progressing to social variables and culminating with psychological variables. This implies a process of priority changes toward modernization.
[Abstract from the article summary.]

Sivard, Ruth Leger. (1985). Women: A world survey. Washington, D.C.: World Priorities.

Smith, Carol. (1976). Guatemalan stratification and peasant marketing arrangements--a different view--rejoinder. Man, 11(2), 278-281.

Smith, Carol. (1984). Local history in global context: Social and economic transitions in Western Guatemala. Comparative studies in society and history, 26, 193-228.

Critiques Marxist and Dependency models for viewing the "local systems as the passive recipients of global processes" (page 225). Argues that the uneven and unanticipated results of capitalist-development can better be understood by viewing capitalism as "a social and cultural phenomena as much as an economic one, as a process that can be and is affected by class struggle and human agency..." Class formation and conflict exist prior to the wage labor and capital class formation. Also reviews Guatemalan social class history from the colonial period through the "Prerevolutionary Crisis (1978-1981)." (Falvey).

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Smith, Carol A. (1983). Regional analysis in world-system perspective: A critique of three structural theories of uneven development. In Sutti Ortiz (Ed.), Economic anthropology: Topics and theories (pp. 307-359). Monographs in Economic Anthropology, no. 1. Lanham, MD: University Press of America and Society for Economic Anthropology.

Smith, Gary, et al. (1989). Forty years on the Aliplano: A cross-cutting evaluation of USAID-supported programs in the republic of Guatemala from the decade of the 1940s to the present. USAID/Guatemala: Guatemala.

Smith, Sheldon. (1982). Human ecology, socio-natural systems and the central-satellite plantation system of Guatemala and Columbia. Studies in comparative economic development, XVII(1).

Staudt, Kathleen A. and Jaquette, Jane S. (Ed.). (1982). Women in developing countries: A policy focus. Women and politics, 2.

Streeten, Paul, et al. (1981). First things first: Meeting basic human needs in the developing countries. New York: Oxford University Press, for the World Bank.

Stover, Ronald G. and Baer, Linda L. (1987). Invisible to development: The status of women and children. International journal of contemporary sociology, 24(3-4), 57-68.

An investigation of the effects of development on two vulnerable segments of society--women and children. International survey data were used to construct indices of development and quality of life (QofL) for two points in time-1960 and 1980. The relationship between the current level of development and the current QofL of both women and children was determined, along with the relationship between the change in the level of development from 1960 to 1980 and the current QofL of both women and children. Findings suggest that improvements in the QofL of women and children are not strictly a function of economic development. While the two factors were somewhat related for the countries of South America (a continent long since freed from colonialism and characterized by a moderate degree of development), the two were virtually independent for the countries of Africa, which have only recently been freed from colonialism and are still in the early stages of development. Clearly, the stage of the development process and the timing of that process must be considered as critical variables in the relationship between development and QofL. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 37: Sociological Abstracts 63-90/Apr (Copr. Soc. Abstracts).]

Swetnam, John J. (1988). Women and markets: A problem in the assessment of sexual inequality. Ethnology, 27(4), 327-338.

Peasant market women in Guatemala have the image of being liberated and economically equal to men. Despite the existence of some conspicuously successful women, it is argued that most female market vendors sell products with the highest risks and lowest profits and have far less likelihood of accumulating wealth than men have. On the basis of a study of the ethnic and sexual composition of the Antigua marketplace, the author shows evidence for a degree of women's financial independence among a minority of urban vendors, primarily Ladina. Rural Ladinas and Indians have small inventories and are constrained in numerous ways. Domestic responsibilities, such as child care, stiff competition, and inhibited freedom of travel limit women's success. Although the market women are respected and autonomous by Guatemalan standards, they are marginal participants in the market and affected by the pervasive sexism of Guatemalan society. [Abstract from DIALOG File 93: U S Political Science Documents - 75-89/ISS 2.]

Terrell, Katherine. (1989). An analysis of the wage structure in Guatemala City. Journal of developing areas, 23(3), 405-423.

Tilly, Louise A. (1981). Paths of proletarianization: Organization of production, sexual division of labor, and women's collective action. Signs, 7(2), 400-417.

Tilly, Louise A. and Scott, Joan W. (1987). Women, work, and family. New York: Methuen.

A history of women's work in France and England from 1750 to the present, using census lists, biographical, and autobiographical material. Concludes that, "the interplay between a society's productive and reproductive systems within the household influences the supply of women available for work. The characteristics of the economy and its mode of production, scale of organization, and technology influence the demand for women as workers." (Falvey).

Tinker, Irene. (1976). The adverse impact of development on women. In Tinker, Irene and Bramsen, Michele, (Eds.), Women and world development (pp. 22-34). Washington, DC: Overseas Development Council.

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Townsend, John, et al. (1983). Cost-effectiveness of family planning services in the SINAPS primary health care program in Guatemala. In Ismail Sirageldin, David Salkever and Richard W. Osborn (Eds.), Evaluating population programs: International experience with cost-effectiveness analysis and cost-benefit analysis (pp. 458-475).

United Nations. (1985). World survey on the role of women in development: Report of the secretary general. Document prepared for the World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of Women for the U.N. Decade for Women, Nairobi, Kenya, 15-26 July 1985. New York: United Nations.

U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID). (1982). Policy paper on women in development (43). Washington, DC: U.S. Agency for International Development, Bureau for Program and Policy Coordination.

U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. (1980). Illustrative statistics on women in selected developing countries. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Commerce, for the Office of Women in Development, U.S. Agency for International Development.

Warner, Rebecca L., Lee, Gary R., and Lee, Janet. (1986). Social organization, spousal resources, and marital power: A cross-cultural study. Journal of marriage and the family, 48, 121-128.

Ethnographic data on 100+ nonindustrial societies are employed to test the hypotheses that wives have more power in marriage: (1) in societies with nuclear rather than extended family structures, and (2) in societies with matrilineal rather than patrilineal customs of residence and descent. Both hypotheses are supported. Residence and descent practices are important predictors of wives' power on the cross-cultural level. These findings, interpreted in the context of resource theory, highlight the fact that organizational resources may be as important as material resources in the determination of conjugal power structures. [Abstract taken from DIALOG File 37: Sociological Abstracts 63-90/APR (Copr. Soc. Abstracts).]

White, Karen, Maria Otero, Margaret Lycette, and Mayra Buvinic. (1986). Gender issues in Latin America and the Caribbean. The gender manual series. Washington, DC: U.S. Agency for International Development.

Whyte, William Foote. (1983). Toward new systems of agricultural research and development. In William Foote Whyte and Damon Boynton (Eds.), Higher-yielding human systems for agriculture (pp. 164-193). Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

Youssef, Nadia H. and Hetler, Carol B. (1983). Establishing the economic condition of woman-headed households. In Mayra Buvinic, Margaret A. Lycette, and William Paul McGreevey (Eds.), Women and poverty in the third world (pp. 216-243). Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

ANNEX H

DOCUMENTS REVIEWED

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ANNEX H: DOCUMENTS REVIEWED

The list of documents reviewed is divided into three sections. The first section comprises AID documents of general interest, with annotations. The second section lists project-specific or program-specific documents from USAID/Guatemala. In a few cases, where project-specific evaluations have wider implications, they are listed in both sections. The third section lists documents from other sources. Comments in parentheses note where the document is located in the USAID/Guatemala Mission.

AID DOCUMENTS RELEVANT TO GENDER ANALYSIS

Agency for International Development. (n.d.). Gender Information Framework. (Source: available in WID Office of USAID/Guatemala.)

Alberti, A. (1989). Gender Issues in the Small Farmer Coffee Project, Office of Rural Development #32. (Source: available from The Office of Rural Development).

The team interviewed a number of women associated with the project and ANACAFE's interventions. Women's participation was affected by ethnic affiliation (Ladino women being less likely to participate), socioeconomic status, aspects of the physical environment, and la violencia. Alberti lists factors which affected women's participation and well-being, both gender-related and in general, and gives a series of recommendations, including the kinds of information needed to examine gender issues, specifically gender-disaggregated data.

_____. (1989). Review of Central American WID Strategies and Action Plans. Regional Office for Central American Programs. (Source: available from J. Kelley).

The WID documents for Guatemala, Honduras, Costa Rica, and El Salvador were reviewed, with the conclusion that only Guatemala's documents had a WID Strategy.

_____. (1989). The Process of Development in Four Central American Countries: Women and Emerging Employment Trends. Regional Office for Central American Programs. (Source: available from J. Kelley.)

Beginning with a discussion of the undercounting of women's economic contribution, the paper documents the growing involvement of women in agricultural and manufacturing sectors, especially areas which are labor-intensive, and in service and informal sectors. Although the cases are Central American, the paper draws on research in other areas. Good bibliography.

Anderson, M. (1986). Gender Issues in Basic Education and Vocational Training. AID, PPC/WID.

This is a simplified flowchart guide which addresses the constraints to education of girls and women and suggests ways to design projects to eliminate these constraints.

_____. (1990). Report on World Conference on Education for All -- Meeting Basic Learning Needs. Cable 112620, April 9, 1990. (Source: available from The Office of Human Resource Development).

Conference emphasized opening the education process and the need to improve female education.

Asmon, I., J. Jones, M. Schwartz and A. Funagalli. (1987). Small Farmer Diversification Systems Project (520-0255)--Final Evaluation. USAID/Guatemala. (Source: available from The Office of Rural Development).

Points out advances made by beneficiary farmers but also serious problems in project design and execution. Despite the fact that family labor is involved in activities, the evaluation does not mention women at all, and suggests that family-extension activities "blur the focus" of the project.

Berger, M. and M. Paolisso. (1988). A Women in Development Strategy for USAID/Guatemala. USAID/Guatemala. (Source: available from WID Library.)

An excellent review of the socio-economic situation of women and the development implications, previous assistance efforts, and positive and negative factors by sector. It includes recommendations for assistance programs.

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Blumberg, Rae L. (1989). Making the Case for Gender Variables, Women and the Wealth and Well-Being of Nations. AID/WID, Technical Reports in Gender and Development, Nos. 2-89. (Source: available from J. Kelley, Regional Office for Central American Programs).

This publication documents the under-measuring of women's contributions to national economies. While not taken into account, the degree of women's control of resources can have large positive or negative effects on development goals and project success. Blumberg presents a strong argument against the "black box" model of households as units involved in consumption, production, and income earning, and urges the easing of constraints that limit women's participation in development. Women's contributions and constraints are addressed by sector. Data on the effect of women's education are presented not in terms of earnings, but in relation to lower fertility, better health practices, and so on.

_____. (1985). A Walk on the 'WID' Side: Summary of Field Research on 'Women in Development' in the Dominican Republic and Guatemala. (Draft). AID, PPC/WID. (Source: available from WID Library).

Discusses the Ademi micro-entreprerprise in the Dominican Republic and follows up on the communities involved with ALCOSA in Guatemala to show the impact on women of AID projects.

Brooks, M. (1980). The Status and Needs of Guatemalan Women: 1980. USAID/Guatemala.

The report provides an overview of demographic data on women, a survey of organizations working with women, a review of Mission policies and practices, and recommendations. There is also a bibliography.

Brown, T. (1990). Guidance for Preparing Semi-annual Reports. AID/Washington. (Source: available from Project Development and Support Office).

Of interest is the emphasis on including gender-disaggregated data, especially in Section II on Project Status Reports (pp. 4, 14, and 15).

Carlioni, A.S. (1987). Women in Development: A.I.D.'s Experience, 1973-1985. Vol.I, Synthesis Paper. Washinton, DC: AID, PPC/WID. (Source: available from WID Library).

This paper is based on extensive desk reviews and field studies. It presents the rationale for including women's issues in project design and evaluation, including comparison of projects that do and don't include women's issues. The conclusion is that, while a good gender analysis is important, the crucial factor is whether it is used to adjust the project to remove constraints to women's participating or benefiting. Achievement of goals and objectives and suggestion for design and evaluation are included by sector. Page 42ff presents 10 steps in gender analysis, using an agricultural project as an example.

The Mission does not have a copy of Vol. II, Field Studies, but might wish to order one since Guatemala was one of the selected cases.

Chaney, E. (1984). Women of the World: Women of Latin America and the Caribbean. Bureau of Census and AID, PPC/WID. (Source: available from WID Library).

Based on the 1970 census round, this is a reanalysis of existing data. Expense limited the number of analyses that could be performed and all results are dependent on the accuracy of the original data.

Dixon, R. (1980). Assessing the Impact of Development Projects on Women. AID Program Evaluation Discussion Paper No. 8. AID, PPC/WID.

Engle, P. (1988). Mother's Income and Children's Nutritional Status in a Guatemalan Town. Paper for International Conference on Women, Health and Development. E. Lansing, MI: Michigan State University.

Research in Petapa in 1986, compared with previous study. Supports other research that households do not pool income, but rather that each parent has specific responsibilities. Women's income is applied at a higher percent for food, but father's also covers other expenses, such as housing. Women's income had negative effects on nutrition during the first year (possibly because women who were not breastfeeding had higher incomes) but was positive thereafter.

Grosz, R. (n.d.). Developing a Women in Development Strategy for USAID/Tanzania. AID, PPC/WID. (Source: available from WID Library).

Defines terms: issue vs constraint, gender vs women, participants and beneficiaries. Paper reviews background and develops strategy and recommendations. No indicators.

Hart, J. and A. Gomez. (1989). An Evaluation of the Microbusiness Promotion Project in Guatemala. Development Alternatives, Inc., for USAID/Guatemala. (Source: available from Private Sector Office).

This is the second evaluation of the project performed in 1989, prior to authorizing an add-on. Among the criticisms was the lack of enforcement of savings which would enable clients to "graduate." The Guatemala-based component, GENESIS, was more successful in achieving broad coverage, especially for women, but at a higher administrative cost and with a higher default rate. The Quetzaltenango based PROSEM had adopted a more conservative approach, loaning more to repeat borrowers and individuals and with a lower percentage of women. Does not identify source of information, and some findings, such as satisfaction with training, contradict Revere's findings. Notes that men default much more often than women. Report raises issue of accounting for "invisible" employment generation by counting hours worked by owner.

Jamison, E. (1985). Women of the world: A chartbook for developing regions. Washington DC: AID, PPC/WID.

Joekes, S. and R. Moayed. (1987). Women and Export Manufacturing: A Review of the Issues and AID Policy. Washington, DC: AID, PPC/WID. (Source: available from Private Sector Office Library).

Discusses work in export industries, especially Export Processing Zones which employ a high percentage of young women. A gender-oriented review of AID documents show some project level support for woman's issues, but a dearth of gender focus on Action Plan and CDSS level, leading to missed opportunities to make projects work better. Although work in the textile, clothing, and electronics industries is poorly paid and insecure, sometimes with hazardous working conditions, it still attracts workers because it is better than domestic labor. Suggested AID interventions range from policy dialogue to taking advantage of the concentrated location of potential beneficiaries to provide health care, etc. Bibliography.

King, E. (1990). Educating Girls and Women: Investing in Development. World Bank (forthcoming study), AID Basic Education Workshop, Washington. (Source: available from Office of Human Resource Development).

There is a worldwide gender gap in education, which is most pronounced in Africa and India, and especially in low-income countries. The paper reviews the benefits of female education with its links to higher economic productivity, lower infant and maternal mortality, longer life expectancy and lower fertility. It also discusses possible explanations for the effects. King discusses constraints to female education, such as the low perception of benefits and high opportunity costs. Suggested approaches include increasing access, culturally appropriate facilities, training and posting female teachers closer to home, and financial assistance (including Guatemala's AGES program). Other measures are lowering opportunity costs and enhancing benefits (social marketing and changes in the kinds of education).

Kumar, K. (n.d.). Indicators for Measuring Changes in Income, Food Consumption and the Natural Resource Base. (The Findings of a Workshop). AID, PPC/CDIE.

An excellent source for anyone working with indicators. Discussion of selection and use of indicators, advice on measuring changes in income, food consumption, and soil quality and crop yields.

_____. (1987). Conducting Group Interviews in Developing Countries. AID Program Design and Evaluation Methodology Report No.8. AID, PPC/WID.

_____. (1987). Rapid, Low-Cost Data Collection Methods for AID. AID Program Design and Evaluation Methodology Report No.10. AID, PPC/WID.

Kusterer, Kenneth, Estrada, and Cuxil. (1981). The Social Impact of Agribusiness: A Case Study of ALCOSA in Guatemala. AID Evaluation Special Study No. 4. (Source: available from WID Library).

The study is a follow-up and amplification of the original LADD study on the impact of the introduction of diversified non-traditional crops and a processing plant. Blumberg's 1985 analysis follows Kusterer.

Lycette, M. and C. Jaramillo. (1984). Low-Income Housing: A Women's Perspective. AID. (Source: available from WID Library).

Details women's issues for housing construction projects. Two main considerations are whether female heads of household are given equal consideration and whether constructed housing is convenient to where women work.

Mackenzie, J. and A. Tambe. (n.d.). Small Farmer Diversification Systems Project: Analysis of Survey Data.

Discusses the technical aspects of information gathering and presents results of large survey. Questionnaire was not included, but it appears that no gender-disaggregated data were gathered. Of interest is the large portion of family labor involved in everything from terracing to pesticide application.

Newman, B.C. and V.M. Ward. (1990). Strategies for Demographic and Health Research among Guatemala's Mayan Population. Guatemala: Datapro.

Nieves, I. (1985). Women in Agriculture in the Western Highlands of Guatemala: Suggestions for Data Collection. USAID/Guatemala.

Nieves suggests indicators which could be used in three Office of Rural Development projects, Commercial Land Markets, Crop Diversification, and Cooperative Strengthening. Although the 1979 census counted women's participation in agriculture there is no baseline for the sexual division of labor by tasks. She suggests several indicators (p. 11ff) which can be incorporate easily in proposed 1986 study. [note: Office of Rural Development did not know whether this information had actually been collected.]

Otero, M. (1987). Gender Issues in Small Scale Enterprise. Washington, DC: AID, PPC/WID.

The guide is divided into three sections, a rationale for including gender issues; guidelines for integrating gender into project design; and guidelines for implementing, monitoring, and evaluating projects.

Richards, M. et al. (1990). Land Tenure, Land Utilization and Household Economy of Cooperative Members Affiliated with FEDECOAR. Land Tenure Center for USAID/Guatemala, Office of Rural Development. (Source: available from Office of Rural Development).

An extensive questionnaire was used on affiliates of agricultural cooperatives (coops were mostly for purchase of agricultural inputs). Although much of the data, including the sex of the respondent, were not gender-disaggregated, some interesting findings appear. Household income reported was less than reported expenditures. Although extrapolating holiday food expenditures for the year may be one reason for this, Richards hypothesizes that many small income-producing activities occur daily that are not taken into account. This may be a good example of how women's contributions are underreported. Women are responsible for the majority of on-farm non-crop activities, from animal care to weaving, and over 24% of responsibility for family businesses. There was some disaggregation on education (grade completed but not enrollment) and Spanish competency of native Mayan speakers.

Regional Office for Central American Programs. (1989). Women in Development Action Plan, November 1989-April 1991.

Reviews the Regional Office for Central American Programs project portfolio and lists specific project activities, along with the people responsible.

Russo, S. et al. (1989). Gender Issues in Agriculture and Natural Resource Management. Washington, DC: AID, PPC/WID.

The document reviews AID policy and previous research on WJD and provides rationale and detailed guidelines for design, monitoring, and evaluation. It also includes guidelines for including gender considerations in AID documents. This is the most complete manual in the series, with practical advice and case studies, and is valuable to all sectors.

Smith, B. (1990). The Impact of the Education of Girls and Women on Social and Economic Development. Concept Paper for USAID/Guatemala. (Source: available from Office of Human Resource Development).

A discussion of the correlation of girls' education with a number of development indicators, such as fertility, health, and nutrition, with recommendations.

Stewart, S., et al. (1989). Baseline Study: CUSG/AIFLD. USAID/Guatemala. (Source: available from WID Library).

Baseline socioeconomic study of members of agricultural unions. Interviewed union members were mostly male heads of household.

Ward, V. and B. Newman. (1990). Strategies for Demographic and Health Research Among Guatemala's Mayan Population. USAID/Guatemala Concept Paper. (Source: available from J. Lyons).

Gives specific ideas for field interviews in indigenous areas, especially for dealing with linguistic barriers and cultural biases. Stresses the importance of supplementing quantitative with qualitative data and of using existing ethnographic studies. Bibliography on methods and content.

White, M O., M. Lycette and M. Buvinic. (1986). Integrating Women into Development Programs: A Guide for Implementation for Latin America and the Caribbean. Washington, DC: AID, PPC/WID.

Discusses the rationale for addressing women's issues, and gives an overview of the policy and institutional issues, suggests project-level interventions for four sectors (microenterprise, housing, agriculture and vocational training).

USAID/Guatemala. Semi-Annual Report: April 1, 1989-September 30, 1990

_____. (1989). WID Strategy for USAID/Guatemala.

This document was reworked from Berger and Paolisso.

_____. (1989). USAID/Guatemala WID Action Plan.

Details the steps envisioned to incorporate women.

_____. (1989). Country Development Strategy Statement Update for FY 1990-1994. USAID/Guatemala.

AID PROGRAM-SPECIFIC DOCUMENTS

Private Sector Office

Documents related to the Micro-Business Promotion Project No. 530-0377

Project Proposal, ACCION/AITECH

Project Agreement

Project Amendment (authorizing add-on funding, 1989)

Micro Enterprise Development Project--Concept Paper, Lindskog, 1988

Revere, E., An Impact Evaluation of the Microbusiness Promotion Project (18-month internal evaluation for ACCION), May, 1989.

Hatch, J., An Evaluation of the Microbusiness Promotion Project in Guatemala, Development Alternatives for AID, Dec., 1989.

Monthly reports for 1990

ACCION monthly report, EST-IN90 and EST-CA90, in process

GENESYS client documentation forms

FUNDAP/PROSEM Statistical Analysis of Borrowers on Fourth or Subsequent Loan, January, 1990

Document related to Private Enterprise Development Project No. 520-0341

PED Project evaluation USAID/GUATEMALA. March-April 1990. Draft, MSI, Dicker, Connell, Pereira, and Schrier. (Source: available from Program Office).

Office of Rural Development

Documents related to Small Farmer Diversification Systems Project. Project No. 520-0255

Mackenzie, J. and A. Tambe (n.d., about 1987). Small Farmer Diversification Systems Project: Analysis of Survey Data. Office of Rural Development Report No. 38.

Asmon, I., J. Jones, M. Schwartz, and A. Funagalli, 1987.

Small Farmer Diversification Systems Project (520-0255)
Final Evaluation. Office of Rural Development.

Documents related to Highlands Agricultural Development.
Project No. 520-0275 (HADS)

Project Paper, 1983

Proyecto Desarrollo Agricola, Resultados del Sondeo,
Primera Revision, 1990. (for HADS II)

Document related to Small Farmer Coffee Project. Project No.
520-0381

Alberti, A., 1989. Gender Issues in Small Farmer Coffee
Project. Office of Rural Development Report No. 32.

Document related to Maya Biosphere Project (No number yet)

Maya Biosphere Project Proposal Paper (in draft), 1990

Office of Human Resource Development

Documents related to education

Bilingual Education. Project No. 520-0258

Project Paper, 1979

Chavez, J.J., 1989. Evaluacion del Rendimiento Escolar y
Niveles de Desercion, Repitencia y Promocion, 1980-84.
PRONEBI.

Rural Primary Education Improvement. Project No. 520-0282

Project Paper, 1984

Basic Education Strengthening Project. Project No. 520-0374
(BEST)

Project Paper, 1989

Request For Proposals, December 1989

Documents related to Democratic Initiatives Program

Administration of Justice. Project No. 520-0369

Project Paper, 1988

Central American Peace Scholarship Program. Project No. 520-0362 (CAPS)

CAPS Project Paper, 1985

Project Development and Support Office

Community-Based Health and Nutrition. Project No. 520-0251

Project Paper, 1980

Project Paper, 1985

Program Office

Gender Considerations in Development: Latin America and Caribbean Region WID Training Workshop, November 1988, Antigua Guatemala.

Compilation of Women in Development Items in the A.I.D. Administrator's Weekly Reports, January - August 1989. AID, PPC/WID.

Women in Development Action Plan for USAID/Guatemala (April 1989-March 1991)

Women in Development Strategy. USAID/Guatemala, March 1989.

Evaluation Reports:

USAID/Guatemala Education Projects. CDIE, 1988

USAID/Guatemala Agricultural Projects. CDIE, 1988

USAID/Guatemala Health Projects. CDIE, 1988

Smith, G. et al., 1989. Forty Years on the Altiplano: A Cross-Cutting Evaluation of USAID-Supported Programs in the Republic of Guatemala from the Decade of the 1940s to the Present. Volumes I - III.

Regional Office for Central American Programs

Women in Development Action Plan for ROCAP, November, 1989-April, 1991.

Review of Central American WID Strategies and Action Plans
(1989).

DOCUMENTS FROM SOURCES OTHER THAN USAID

Barnes-McConnell, P. and D. Lodwick. (1983). Working with International Development Projects: A Guide for Women-in-Development. Office of Women in International Development, Michigan State University, East Lansing , MI.

Buvinic, M. and N. Horenstein. (1986). Women's issues in shelter, agriculture, training and institutional development: Assessment for USAID/Costa Rica. Washington, D.C.: USAID.

Buvinic, M. and I. Nieves. (1982). "Elements of Women's Economic Integration: Project Indicators for the World Bank. Washington, D.C.: USAID. (Source: available from WID Library).

Discusses both design and implementation factors, using the three sectors as examples: credit, shelter, and training. Although the paper is not current, the factors remain the same.

Canadian International Development Agency. (1987). Incorporation of Cross-Cutting Issues into Members' Evaluations, Development Assistance Committee.

Group of development organizations, which tried to include evaluation of their projects' impact on women in the terms of reference for evaluations, were not successful in most cases because projects were ongoing, but found that the most impact was in the fields of agriculture, education, health, and water. Most evaluations did not take women into consideration; a requirement in the Scope of Work was an effective way to focus attention but there was still a lack of baseline data, specific guidelines, and tools. There was also little attention to women in planning, even when women were target beneficiaries. Lessons Learned dealt with problems of access to credit, education and training, women's workload and household roles, and the importance of capitalizing on their traditional knowledge.

CINDEG. (1990). Impacto que la Educacion de las Ninas Tiene en el Desarrollo Economico. (Source: available from Office of Human Resource Development).

Review of Spanish and English literature on impact of girls' education.

DataPro, S.A., (1990) The Mayan Population of Guatemala, A Further Analysis of the 1987 Demographic and Health Survey. Population Council. (Source: available from Office of Human Resource Development).

Ferguson, A. and M. Flores. (1987). Resource Guide: Women in Agriculture, Guatemala. The Bean/Cowpea Collaborative Research Support Program. Michigan State University. (Source: available from WID Library).

The document provides background on Guatemala and its agricultural sector, including dietary patterns and nutritional status, and discusses some of the problems preventing full use of bean nutrition, such as storage facilities and practices, deterioration, digestability, and factors affecting yields. It is followed by a review of organizations working with women in agriculture, drawn from Brooks and others (all 1980 or earlier). A very complete annotated bibliography follows. Some of the most useful works cited were those of Brooks, Ehlers, Gross and Kendall, and Stein.

Garcia, A.I. and E. Gomariz, 1989. Mujeres Centroamericanas, Tomo I: Tendencias Estructurales. Varitec S.A., San Jose, Costa Rica.

_____. (1990). Mujeres Centroamericanas, Tomo II, Efectos del Conflicto. Varitec S.A., San Jose, Costa Rica. (Source: available from J. Kelley, ROCAP).

This pair of volumes provides statistical and narrative analysis of the status of women in Central American Countries.

Gladhart, P.M. and E. Gladhart. (1981). Northern Ecuador's Sweater Industry: Rural Women's Contribution to Economic Development. Working Papers on Women in International Development 1, Office of Women in International Development, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI. (Source: available from Private Sector Library).

The paper revisits people involved in a sweater-knitting cooperative begun ten years earlier. Of interest are some of the conditions which led to the success of the knitting industry, even though the cooperative itself no longer existed. Women had separate inheritance (in contrast to the Solola study cited in Ferguson and Flores), and their own household expenses. They controlled the knitting income, much of which was spent on items which lightened the domestic load, such as kerosene and electricity. Credit restrictions by gender were operative.

Government of Guatemala. (1989). Estadísticas Educativas 1988, Estadística Final, Minister of Education, USIPE. (Source: available from Office of Human Resource Development).

Lists enrollment (absolute, not proportional), promotion, retention, and high school graduates by major, department, urban-rural differences, and Ladino-indigenous differences for grades pre-kindergarten through adult literacy. There is no disaggregation by gender.

_____. (1988). Información Educativa No. 1 Minister of Education, USIPE. (Source: available from Office of Human Resource Development).

This document adds other data to the above. For example, it includes total population by age, literacy by age 7-67 and gender breakdown for initial matriculation (through 1986). Both this and the previous documents illustrate the kinds of records the Ministry of Education provides. Data are gathered on a school basis and compiled by the municipal government (counties), with a delay of about a year. There may be more gender-disaggregated information in the raw data than that which is reported. One component of the BEST project is improved information management.

Katz, E. (1990). Rural Women and Changing Development Strategies in Central America: The Case of Non-Traditional Export Agriculture in Guatemala. Dissertation Proposal.

Will study the gender-specific impact of the development policy which supports non-traditional agricultural exports. It includes a comparison of several economic models of household distribution. Good bibliography.

Leitinger, I.A. (1985). Women's Legal Status and Role Choices in Six Latin American Societies: A Cross-Cultural, Longitudinal Analysis (1950-70) and a Single-Case Update (1980). Working Papers on Women in International Development 91, Office of Women in International Development, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI.

Miller, R., B. Burkhalter, and E. Burleigh. (in press). Guatemala: Trends in Health and Nutrition Indicators in the 80's. Arlington, VA: Center for International Health. (Source: available from Office of Human Resource Development).

Ministerio de Salud Publica y Asistencia Social, Government of Guatemala. (1987). Encuesta Nacional de Salud Materno Infantil, Ministry of Health and INCAP. (Source: available from Office of Human Resource Development).

In addition to presenting the results of the survey, this book contains an extensive discussion of methodology and a copy of the questionnaire used. They sampled four Maya groups in individual and household surveys.

Nash, J. (1983). Implications of Technological Change for Household Level and Rural Development. Working Papers on Women in International Development 37, Office of Women in International Development, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI. (Source: available from WID Library).

Discusses economic models and gives examples of unexpected impacts of technological changes on households, with particular attention to women.

Nieves, I. (1990, Draft). Seguridad Alimentaria en el Hogar Rural: Perfil de Propuesta para un Estudio Multicentro sobre Acceso a y Disponibilidad de Alimentos en el Hogar Rural Centroamericano. INCAP.

Proposal for a Central American study of access to food and its distribution within the household. Proposed study would include effect of women's access to food and income on nutrition within the family. Good bibliography.

Schultz, T.P. (1989). Returns to Women's Education (Draft). Women in Development Division, Population and Human Resources Department, The World Bank. (Source: available from Office of Human Resource Development and the WID Library).

Warnken, P. (1988). Impacts of Economic and Agricultural Policies on Women in Agriculture: A Case Study of Guatemala. (R. Nathan, Assoc.). (Source: available from WID library).

Policy impact on agriculture is not great. To the extent that it encourages non-traditional exports, it gives added income to women. The authors conclude that policies encouraging non-traditional agriculture have "had a [greater] impact in influencing change in the role of agricultural women..." than any other phenomenon of the past several centuries. The report discusses specific AID projects supporting non-traditional agriculture. Additional findings; 32-42 percent increase in labor input in agriculture; higher farm income leads to more expenditures on protein-rich foods; women's increased control of non-agricultural income leads to improved nutrition.

ANNEX I

FIELD VISITS: COMMUNITIES VISITED AND INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

FIELD VISITS: COMMUNITIES VISITED AND INTERVIEW QUESTIONS.

For interviews with women, the communities of:

Chenya de Taca
Jalbe
Paraje Chuij Packek
Paraje La Calera
Cheumukubal, Zunil
Almonlonga
Patzij
Nahuala
Solola
San Martin Chileverde
Momostenango

For interviews with regional ministry of health and agricultural staff (see Annex J for those interviewed), the cities of:

Totonicopan
Quetzaltenango

For interviews at bilingual schools the communities of:

San Jose Chirrijuyu
Xenimajuyu

Interview format was informal. Areas of interest we explored were:

1. What sorts of agricultural tasks do you do? How much time do they take?
2. Do your school age boys and girls go to school? Why or why not?
3. How many children do you have? Ages?
4. Do you have any sources of income besides the farm? What?
5. How much time a day do you spend getting water (or used to spend before project)?
6. Who gets the firewood? How much time does it take?
7. Do you own any land?
8. Who makes decisions about what to plant?

9. Do you notice any difference in how often your children get sick before and after water service?
10. What does your family eat? Anything besides beans and corn? What? If nothing else, why not?
11. What do you raise for home consumption?
12. Do you or have you ever tried to raise livestock or chickens? If no longer, why not? If not raising would you like to? What stands in the way?
13. Would you like to have a way to make money? Have any ideas about how? What stands in the way?
14. How would your husband feel about you making your own money?
15. For those involved in non-agricultural production (e.g., making rugs, weaving) who (male/female) does what tasks? How much time do you spend in a month on the tasks? What are the reasons men and women do the tasks they do?

ANNEX J

PEOPLE INTERVIEWED

ANNEX J: PEOPLE INTERVIEWED

USAID/GUATEMALA STAFF

Program Office

Dave Adams, Program Officer
Tom Kellermann, Deputy Program Officer
Carola Soto, WID Officer
Gary Smith, Program Evaluation and Information Specialist
Gregorio Tum, Program Assistant

Project Development and Support Office

Don Boyd, Chief
Berta Calderon, Project Development Office, WID Committee
Jack Eyre, Infrastructure Supervisor
Alfredo Szarata, Project Development and Support Office Official
(Water)

Private Sector Office

Laura Lindskog Diusberg, Project Officer, Microenterprises
Guillermo Mata, Project Officer, Small and Medium Enterprises
Roberto Galvez

Rural Development Office

Gordie Straub, Chief
Brian Rudert, Deputy
Blair Cooper, Project Manager (HADS)
Mario Aragon, Deputy Project Manager (HADS)
Roberto Castro, Agriculture Economist
Melida Cheu, HAD Office (PDA--0276)
Tully Cornik, Project Manager, WID Committee
Alfred Nakatsuma, Project Manager, Natural Resources

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Liliana Ayalde, Chief
Richard Martin, Deputy
Susan Clay, Education Officer, WID Committee
Miriam Castaneda, Project Officer, Education
Jane Lyons, Project Officer, Family Planning, WID Committee
Elvira de Saenz de Tejada, Project Officer (CAPS), WID Committee
Ron Witherall, Democratic Initiatives Officer
Carmen Aguilera, Project Officer, Administration of Justice

OTHER

Ramiro Acuna, Regional Supervisor (Totonicapan), Ministry of Health
Amalia Alberti, AID Consultant
Juan Batz, Director, School at San Jose Chirrijuyu
Henry Barreno Arias, Director, School at Xenimajuyu
Judith Biggs, Doctoral Student, Tulane and CIRMA
Laurie Heise, World Watch
Elizabeth Katz, Doctoral Student, U. Wisconsin, INCAP
Isabela Nieves, INCAP
Gabriela Nunez, Universidad Rafael Landivar
Martha Olivares, Director ACCION/AITECH
Julia Richards, AID Consultant, Universidad Rafael Landivar
Quetzaltenango Regional Office of DIGESA (Ministry of Agriculture, Extension)
Hernan Garcia, Regional Director
Mario Fuentes, Coordinator, Mini-Irrigation
Leonidas Velasquez, Coordinator, Soil Conservation

ANNEX K

PRODEDURES FOR IMPLEMENTING THE GENDER INDICATOR SYSTEM

ANNEX K: PROCEDURES FOR IMPLEMENTING THE GENDER INDICATOR SYSTEM

1. Planning for Evaluation in the Project Design Stage

1.1. Make a general determination of what the gender issues are relative to the project. For assistance, consult documents cited in the bibliography of Annex F of this report, particularly the "Gender Information Framework" (AID, PPC/WID, n.d.). Consult with the Mission WID officer and WID committee members.

1.2. Gather information on the roles of women in activities that the project will address. The information collected during this stage is baseline data and assists in identifying women's needs and helps in determining how women can be effectively reached by and incorporated into the project. Methods for gathering baseline information include:

- (a) reviewing available ethnographic literature and reports from AID and non-AID sources. See Annex G for a bibliography of such sources.
- (b) making field visits to the target area and conducting informal interviews with women likely to be affected by the project
- (c) interviewing regional government personnel (e.g., in agricultural extension, education), Peace Corps Volunteers and others currently working with women in the target areas
- (d) if the information gathered by the above three methods is insufficient, contracting studies on the roles of women in the target area

1.3. Consider the information gathered in the previous steps and do an analysis of how women could be included in project, how they might benefit, constraints to their participation, and how these constraints might be overcome. See Gender Issues in Agriculture and Natural Resource Management (Russo, et al., 1989), especially pages 15 and 16, for guidance in doing a gender analysis.

1.4. Once the project goals have been specified, use the above gender analysis for guidance and specify project goals and objectives for targets for women's participation, receipt of project benefits and desired outcomes for women. See Table 2 and Annex E of this report for lists of possible WID objectives; select and modify to make them project appropriate.

1.5. Identify indicators for the WID objectives. See Tables 3 through 8 for the recommended indicators appropriate to the area of project endeavor.

1.6. In the project plan, specify a strategy for collecting data for the indicators.

1.6.1. Enumerative Indicators. Many indicators are enumerative indicators, for example, they indicate proportion of women to total participating in the project or receiving project resources or benefits. Enumerative indicators can usually be obtained from routine project record keeping activities if one specifies that records are to be kept noting gender. In the evaluation section of the project plan, specify who is responsible for record keeping and the necessity of noting the gender of the project participant or beneficiary.

1.6.2. Complex Indicators. Other indicators (e.g., changes in women's income) require special studies for their data. What special studies will need to be done (see item 2.2 below)? What is the cost? In the project proposal specify the contracting of these studies.

2. Doing Monitoring and Evaluation

Usually contractors will carry out project monitoring and evaluation. Mission staff will oversee the process and ensure that the appropriate data are collected and the necessary studies are conducted as specified in the project design stage. Keep in mind that the purpose of the indicators is to monitor women's ability to manage project task demands and to evaluate the impact of the project on women.

2.1. Data for Enumerative Indicators. As noted above, some aspects of project will be evaluated using the data from routine project record keeping. Good planning in the project design stage will ensure that the enumerative data necessary for the WID indicators are available for project monitoring and evaluation. Generally indicators of this sort will involve simply summing up number of women relative to total and reporting the proportion. Where "averages" are needed for indicators (e.g., "average" value of credit received by women relative to "average" received by men) it is advisable to use the median rather than the mean as the measure of central tendency. This is the case when the distribution of benefits to any group is skewed.

2.2. Data for Complex Indicators. Complex Indicators (such as those on women's time use, income, household consumption patterns, and allocation of household resources) require special studies for their data. In Guatemala, in almost all cases, these studies require home visits and interviews with women.

2.2.1. Guidelines for conducting interviews with women. These interviews should:

- (a) focus on samples of women in the target areas

- (b) include women from the various Maya ethnic groups in the target area
- (c) sample women from both in town and rural areas
- (d) if the project expects to reach women who are involved in different sectors (e.g., agriculture vs. micro-enterprise) the samples should include women from those sectors
- (e) use native Maya language speakers of the ethnic groups in the area
- (f) where possible, use women as interviewers
- (g) interviewers should be trained in using the questionnaire designed for the study, in using open-ended questions, probing, maintaining objectivity and in recording answers
- (h) once the first version of the questionnaire has been developed, each interviewer should interview a small sample of women; then, the interviewers, trainer and questionnaire constructor should meet to discuss problems and suggest modifications. Construct a revised form of the questionnaire and use this for subsequent interviews. Only the data from interviews obtained with revised questionnaire should be used in the actual study.

2.2.2. Special studies and sources of information on them.

Refer to Section IV of this report for recommendations about data collection on Maya women. Among the data collection strategies that may be used are direct observation, community interviews, informal surveys, consumption-focused surveys and household record keeping surveys. Where information about these techniques is needed, consult the documents in Annex F, particularly the following:

Kumar, K. (1987). Rapid, Low-Cost Data Collection Methods for AID. (PN-AAL-100).

Dixon, R. (1980). Assessing the Impact of Development Projects on Women.

Kumar, K. (1987). Conducting Group Interviews in Developing Countries. (PN-AAL-088).

Norton, M. and Benoliel, S.P. (1987). Guidelines for Data Collection, Monitoring, And Evaluation Plans for AID Assisted Projects. (PN-AAL-089).

The above are available at the USAID/Guatemala Program Office.