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There is widespread recognition that the world is facing a growing water crisis, affecting the well-being of millions of the poorest people. Rapidly growing populations, urbanization, agricultural intensification and climate change (such as global warming) all contribute to greater competition and scarcity of water resources. Despite massively increased provision of water facilities over the past few decades and the development of low-cost, sustainable technical solutions to many aspects of water provision, millions still suffer from water-related diseases and the physical, social and economic burdens associated with scarcity. A number of international initiatives aim to tackle this global problem through improving the governance of water and setting targets for provision of supplies to increased numbers of people within the general context of poverty alleviation and environmental sustainability. The greater involvement of women and the adoption of gender-sensitive approaches are increasingly seen as integral to the achievement of these targets. In the context of the global concern for improved water management (which encompasses sanitation and hygiene education), this paper aims to:

- Set out arguments for the importance of a gender-sensitive approach to water resources management;
- Review progress in achieving this and draw out the lessons learned from experience;
- Identify some of the key challenges and opportunities to gender-equitable water management;
- Suggest helpful resources for gender mainstreaming in water resources management.

Water is critical to the livelihoods and well-being of the world's population but millions suffer from lack of access to clean water, inadequate water for food production and the effects of pollution and environmental change. Increasingly, improved water supply management is seen as centrally important to poverty alleviation and to ensuring a sustainable future for millions of people with vulnerable livelihoods in marginal environments. The impact of inequitable access and poor management is huge. The United Nations reports 1.1 billion people (one in six of the world's population) lack access to improved drinking water, and 2.4 billion lack sanitation. As a result, the burden of death and disease related to inadequate water is high, with an estimated mortality of 3 million people a year, and millions more suffering water-related diseases. The majority of those affected are likely to be children under five years old, affected by diarrhoeal disease.¹

Water is critical to food production. While the majority of agriculture is rain fed, irrigated agriculture provides some 40 per cent of the world's food and consumes 75 per cent of world's freshwater resources.² Supplies of freshwater are increasingly threatened by population growth, changing lifestyles (use of more water per capita) and pollution. Such stress is further magnified by other aspects of human development. The draining of wetlands for agriculture, the loss of trees to land clearance and soil erosion all affect natural water cycles and can contribute to increased floods and droughts. Those most affected by these changes often live in ecologically marginal areas; for example 41 per cent of the world's population live in river basins under conditions of water stress. The poorest people in these areas are often disproportionately dependent on natural resources, and vulnerable to a deterioration of their livelihoods when access to these resources changes.

There has been increasing realization over the last two decades that

technical solutions alone are insufficient to ensure equitable and secure access to water resources for the world's population. Access to water additionally depends on legal rights, social relations, cultures and customs, rights to land, control of resources (including labour) and access to appropriate regulatory institutions. This realization has led to an increased focus on the governance of water supplies, and particularly on community-based approaches for their management. Gender concerns are commonly assumed to be automatically incorporated within participatory community-based approaches, although as is illustrated in this paper, this is not necessarily the case.

The past few decades have seen a changing emphasis on the role of women and gender relations in water. Early policies and interventions adopted a *welfare approach*, seeing women and children as the primary recipients and beneficiaries of improved water supplies. However, since the mid-1980s, a new policy consensus on water resources management was formulated at a number of international meetings focusing very much on the need to ensure the *efficiency and effectiveness* of water supplies.³ This was partly in response to a changing macro-economic climate that favoured economic adjustment and a reassessment of the role of the State, and to the perceived failures of previous supply-driven government provision to meet the needs of the poor. The 1990s consensus was expressed in the form of a series of "Guiding Principles" that were intended to shape the planning and management of projects and programmes.⁴

These "Guiding Principles" of policy have, in the past decade, moved

away from a prime emphasis on pricing and distribution issues to a focus on the need for a more holistic view of water resources management. Integrated Water Resources Management (IWRM) is a cross-sectoral approach responding to the growing demands for water in the context of finite supplies. It is an approach that aims to secure the coordinated development of water, land and related resources to optimize economic and social welfare without compromising the sustainability of environmental systems.⁵ Key points in policy include:

- Water should be treated as an economic, social and environmental good;
- Water policies should focus on the management of water and not just the provision of water;
- Governments should facilitate and enable the sustainable development of water resources, including a regulatory framework;
- Water resources should be managed at the lowest appropriate level;
- There should be recognition that

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focus that looks at the relations between men and women and how these shape access to resources, participation in decision-making and the exercise of power within households and communities. If women are disadvantaged and subordinated in their relations with men, then changing this situation requires changes in the views and actions of men as well as women. Gender analysis sees relations between men and women not as

The empowerment of women is necessary to ensure gender and social equality and would enable women to take control of their own lives, to challenge the oppressive aspects of social systems individually and collectively and to enter into relations with men on the basis of equality. These broad and ambitious goals are related to the more instrumental aims of ensuring efficient water supplies. The impacts of improved water supplies can be translated into tangible benefits for women: better health, time freed up for other activities and more productive potential. All these outcomes can provide the basis for

greater equality in their everyday lives. Moreover, a greater say and improved skills in decision-making and in managing resources may strengthen women's ability to contribute to the transformation of societal inequalities.

Without specific attention to gender perspectives, projects may reinforce inequalities and differences between men and women even when there is an explicit focus on women's participation. For example, early initiatives emphasizing women's roles as the bearers of water and the managers of household water may have served to reinforce gender-inequitable divisions of domestic labour. To further goals of equality, gender sensitivity should be combined with wider social analysis, and an

from water supply projects.¹⁶ Much of the progress that has been made is in those areas perceived by planners as more naturally associated with women, including domestic water supply and sanitation. Attempts to extend women's roles in the areas of irrigation and drainage face other difficulties, including broader issues of land and access rights.¹⁷ At the international level, women's involvement in water-related issues is also limited as this is a field of expertise that continues to be dominated by men. There is still much scope for activities and strategies to ensure that meaningful roles for women alongside men in water management become a reality.

There continues to be tension in policy approaches between efficiency and equality concerns. While the principle

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may help to identify complementarities between different uses of water and facilitate integrated water resource management. A brief outline of the differing interests in water will help to illustrate some of these linkages.

Women have long been a focus in the domestic water subsector, their central place based primarily on the idea of their “natural” role as household managers. For many years women have been identified as the main drawers of water,²¹ the primary promoters of hygiene behaviour among children and those most likely to benefit from improved water supplies in terms of alleviation of the burden of their domestic tasks. In the 1980s, much of the work associated with the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade emphasized the water sector as a “women’s sector” based on women’s responsibilities and the household division of labour.²² Much work identified multiple public and private roles for women in the management of domestic water, detailed the complexity of interaction around women’s water use and highlighted the need for planning within a social context. Women have played roles in this sector as village health workers, hygiene educators and local-level latrine builders and water-supply technicians. However, the domestic water subsector has been slow in expanding its focus to women’s productive concerns and to men’s involvement in health and hygiene aspects

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be spent in ways of women's own choosing. They may lack decision-making opportunities and access to materials and markets to undertake income-generating activities. It may be difficult for them to participate in public meetings, even where they have the time to do so. Additionally, time saved by women may be

differentiated impacts that need to be taken into account in design and implementation. All too often, school-girls have been allocated the task of cleaning the toilets, a job that not only reproduced inequitable divisions of labour, but sometimes has rendered them more vulnerable to rape and sexual assault. Examples are reported of girls not using school toilets that they perceive as dirty and dangerous. About one in ten school-age African girls does not attend school during menstruation, or drops out at puberty because of the lack of clean and private sanitation facilities.⁴³

The above examples suggest that perceptions of appropriate facilities may vary across cultures and between women and men. This point is reinforced by evidence of the strength of women's cultural beliefs over the causes of diarrhoeal disease in children. Kaltenthaler has shown that in Botswana women's beliefs about the causes of their children's diarrhoea did not correspond to technical understandings.⁴⁴ Socially unacceptable behaviour such as adultery of the mother, eating the wrong foods and climatic change were more important causal factors in their accounts than clean water supplies and hand washing before preparing food.

The prime role of women in hygiene education and their greater interest in sanitation should not automatically be read as a prescription to target women to improve facilities. Targeting credit at women to help them build latrines, for example, may help to reinforce inequitable household burdens of responsibility for providing such facilities. A health education programme in Mexico originally directed its materials towards women and used pictures of women and children in promotional efforts. After reassessment and comments from men and women, a second brochure was produced showing both men and women undertaking caring and hygiene-related tasks. Both men and women preferred the revised version.⁴⁵



Recent policy initiatives have emphasized cost-sharing arrangements as an important part of demand-based approaches. User payments towards the provision and maintenance of water facilities are thought to ensure the commitment of users to proper use, to give the users a sense of "ownership" over the facilities and to overcome dependency attitudes generated by the provision of water supplies by State or development agencies. High levels of "willingness to pay" for improved water supplies, often expressed by women, are thought to indicate a

greater commitment to sustainable use and management. Payments are variously sought from communities in cash contributions to the cost of supply and maintenance (particularly in urban areas) or in labour contributions (primarily in rural areas).

As with other aspects of water supply, paying for water has gender implications. Poor people generally are disadvantaged by market mechanisms and face high opportunity costs of securing access to water in a market economy. Women may be disproportionately disadvantaged as they generally command lower wages for paid work (including casual work), have less command over productive assets and cash in the household and have restricted access to markets for the sale of their produce.⁴⁶ Women may well support the charging of

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Following considerable discussion between communities and staff (on a project in India), it was decided to pay wages to villagers for their work on the water supply. The wages were fixed at 50 per cent of the state minimum for unskilled labour; the other 50 per cent was assumed to be the community members' contribution in terms of income forgone. The wage rate of Rs 25 a day on the water supply turned out to be the equivalent of the local wage rate for casual agricultural labour (which was half the legal minimum). Poorer households who relied on such casual labouring as a source of income considered the payment reasonable. Better-off households did not need the income from the community work, and left this to poorer households. In

the case of irrigation water they therefore reaped substantial material benefits over the next few years at no cost. Poorer households, with little or no irrigable land, bore more of the initial costs through their labour contributions and were unable to reap substantial longer-term benefits. In some villages, even poor men were unwilling to work for the wage rates offered as they could earn far more through migrating for work. However, they were quite willing for the women of their households to work at the lower rate.

Source: Ian Tod, Akhilesh Parey, Ragubendra P. S. Yadav, "How can we design water resources interventions to benefit poorer households?", paper given to Alternative Water Forum, University of Bradford, May 2003, www.brad.ac.uk/acad/bcid/GTP/altwater.html

water fees as they bear much of the burden of water collection, and they are often perceived within the household as being responsible for water provisioning. Tariffs, however, are often based on household income that women do not necessarily have sole command over. If they are responsible for paying for water from their own resources, their multiple disadvantages in income generation make this an additional burden.

If poor women face real constraints in paying cash for water supplies, they are often no better placed to provide labour. Recognizing constraints on cash incomes, projects sometimes specify that the community should contribute labour in lieu of cash. It is assumed that labour is a resource available even to the very poorest. Yet, women often have difficulties contributing labour, as the example above shows the opportunity costs of giving up paid casual work to contribute to the communal supply. Men and women, rich and poor are very differently placed to contribute in this way. In addition, women's

However, gender approaches are often implemented in a routinized and tokenistic way that does little to further goals of equality and effectiveness. A gender analysis of participation, decision-making processes and the workings of institutions helps us to understand why many efforts in the past have led to women's partial involvement and why outcomes do not necessarily favour them.

There is a danger of perpetuating myths and stereotypes about women's essential characteristics, that not only ignore differences between women, but also reinforce women's marginalization into areas where they can exert little power or influence.

For example, there is an often-repeated assumption in the water sector that women make better treasurers for water committees than men.⁴⁹ This assertion seems to be based on popular ideas that women are generally more reliable and trustworthy, more community spirited and less likely to spend on personal consumption than men. However, a gender analysis points towards a more complex view of why and how certain women are able to exercise authority as treasurers. Dikito-Wachtmeister reported that the vast majority of water committee treasurers she surveyed in Zimbabwe were women who were

challenged or reproduced. Women may find it easier, less costly in terms of time and effort and more effective to participate in water management informally, through social networks, everyday contacts and activities. When women meet at a well to collect water, their discussions about rationing and access should be seen as management. Examples of such management roles abound. Management through such social networks is not, however, necessarily any more equitable than management through committees. One Zimbabwean woman was observed taking water after the pump was "closed" by the pump chairmen. Her relation through marriage to him and her good reputation meant that she could successfully bend the rules where others could not.⁵³ In the United Republic of Tanzania, caretakers of a village pump, who were responsible for charging users for water, used "estimates" of usage when they had not been physically monitored. The estimations were shaped by prejudices about pastoralists' excessive use of water and pastoralist women's ability to take "too much" water because they used donkeys rather than head-loading it.⁵⁴ While Cleaver documents a man in Zimbabwe unsuccessfully trying to negotiate access for his cattle at a waterpoint where women were collecting drinking water,⁵⁵ House records Tanzanian women waiting for men to finish cattle watering to allow them access to drinking water.⁵⁶ Dikito-Wachtmeister records a discussion about the effectiveness of a water committee member.⁵⁷ The discussion took place not at a meeting, but while women were collecting water together at the borehole. And Joshi, Lloyd and Fawcett show how caste-based social prac49 /ang (fcess And)-83(Joshi,)-83(ioshi,)ecD 2853 /ang (eex5ad0-G e6(a)-6(s)-(3(JoioshiJ

Women in low-income urban neighbourhoods of Honduras have taken on and managed their own licensed water-vending points. Vending provides part-time employment to poor single women with children, the costs of water are fixed and surplus income is used on neighbourhood projects such as improved

supplies. Water is used to generate an income from beer brewing, teashops and a launderette.

Source: N. Espejo, "Gender and the management of drinking water in low income urban communities in Latin America", The Hague, Netherlands, International Water and Sanitation Centre (IRC), 1993.

- Discuss openly and investigate with individual women separately why they had not attended;
- Openly praise women expressing their ideas in open forum to build confidence;
- Support and train women as well as men to take more powerful committee positions;
- Encourage women and men community representatives to monitor openly the participation of key groups in the community;
- Include discussions on gender equality in all community training;
- Include female and male elders from all groups in key decision-making processes over sensitive issues.

Increasing women's involvement in such roles alone may simply further the inequitable gendered division of resources and benefits from water activities. Some projects are therefore focusing on increasing the

number of women in paid water work. This is seen as desirable for reasons of both efficiency and empowerment. In their roles as well sinkers, maintenance technicians and water vendors, women may contribute to the reliability of water supplies, and thus to their efficient management. Empowerment objectives are achieved by women gaining a living. Training and remuneration mean that women can exercise more independence and authority both within their households and within the community. Such employment can have beneficial knock-on effects for the community more widely.

Promoting women's role in paid water work involves careful consideration of the demands on women, prevailing ideas about their proper conduct and the dynamics of inter-

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Water work has so far been discussed as the voluntary work (comprising contributions of time and labour) involved in planning, construction and management of water supplies. There is plenty of evidence of a gender divide over paid and unpaid water work. Where men participate it is often in paid and sometimes skilled jobs as pump mechanics, water technicians and latrine builders while women are encouraged to assume responsibility for unpaid tasks, such as pump caretaker or water committee member.

It is important that the conditions of paid work are socially appropriate and compatible with women's domestic and social responsibilities. Four women in Zimbabwe were trained as well sinkers, paired with men, and sent to work in the bush for three months at a time. A review of their work discovered that gender roles were preserved as the men on the teams were digging the wells and the women were cooking and cleaning the tents. Moreover, women felt that sharing tents with men was inappropriate and that overalls issued were unsuitable as they were too hot and too tight over hips and chest. When all-women teams were formed instead, women felt that they had no privacy due to over-frequent visits of the male supervisors. Women also complained

of irregular and inadequate payment as they frequently had to interrupt the well sinking and return home to attend to their family duties. After consultation with local communities, women were offered training for paid jobs as latrine builders instead of well sinkers. Women could build latrines in or close to their home villages, where they could complete the work faster and, therefore, be paid more quickly. There was no need to leave home and the masonry skills could be employed in other paid building projects too.

Source: Nomathemba Nyoni, quoted in Mainstreaming Gender in Water Management: A Practical Journey to Sustainability: A Resource Guide (New York, United Nations Development Programme, 2003), pp. 63-64, <http://www.undp.org/water/genderguide>

from studies of organizations attempting to implement participatory approaches, and from advances in thinking about development planning and management.⁶³ Thompson finds that organizations can best implement participatory approaches when they themselves adopt a flexible, "learning" approach to their work. This involves interventions being viewed as experiments that require constant adaptation to circumstances, managers being supportive of innovative and experimental approaches and seeing "failure" as generating useful lessons for future interventions. Participatory principles must apply to external funding and implementation organizations as much as to local partners. Development planning and management that emphasizes "process" approaches, which are longer-term, more flexible interventions, often based on general guiding principles rather than tightly specified activities, is desirable.

Handbooks, guidelines and "tool kits" exist to help planners to integrate gender concerns at every stage of development interventions. These provide a useful resource, combining general discussions of concepts with specific lists of questions to be asked and techniques to be used to facilitate gender-equitable approaches. One example of such guidance is provided by Sida, which specified questions to be asked at each stage of the project cycle which cover issues ranging from how consultation is designed, how specific indicators of gendered involvement are used, to whether budgets are allocated to ensure gender-equitable approaches.⁶⁴ Such resources are to be welcomed although it should be emphasized that they will only be practical if used in a self-critical, reflective manner, adapted to specific contexts rather than utilized as routine checklists. Checklists and other guidelines have little practical impact if they have not been properly disseminated to staff.

The collection and use of data critically affect the ability to assess

the impact of gendered approaches to water resources development. Despite calls in policy documents for sex-disaggregated statistics and for the monitoring of gender-based patterns of inclusion and exclusion, such data are often not routinely collected, processed or used. There appears to be a strong belief among policy makers that the kind of data required is statistical (or "hard" data), a reflection perhaps of the technical nature of much water planning. Quantitative data might include counting the number of facilities provided, the number of women on decision-making bodies, counting the time/effort saved by women and men by improving water resources, enumerating increased water use and reductions in water-related disease. Other commentators, however, have suggested that what is lacking is the

reporting of processes which may reflect on some of the more qualitative issues of gender-based relationships and interventions. More gender-specific information about household decision-making and its consequences, livelihood practices and the public and private negotiation of gender roles is urgently required, and both qualitative and quantitative data could contribute to this. Expe

of evaluation and impact assessment and in institutional learning.

Training is repeatedly mentioned as vital to the promotion of effective gender analysis within organizations. The aim is not to try to make everyone in an organization a gender expert, rather to ensure that all staff have the conceptual and analytical tools that will support utilization of gender and social analysis. For example, water resources managers could use-

Journals

Agriculture and Human Values, special issue "Choice, complexity and change: gendered livelihoods and the management of water", vol. 15, No. 4 (1998).

Environment and Urbanization, special issue "Water and sanitation", vol. 15, No. 2 (2003), International Institute for Environment and Development. Available online from: <http://www.iied.org/eandu>

Gender and Development (Oxford, United Kingdom, Oxfam). Available online from: http://www.oxfam.org.uk/what_we_do/issues/gender/gad/index.htm

Natural Resources Forum, special issue "Women and natural resources management", vol. 20, No. 2 (1996) (London, Butterworth-Heinemann for the United Nations Department of Technical Cooperation for Development).

Waterlines, special issue "Gender and water—six years on", vol. 17, No. 1 (1998). Available online from: <http://www.oneworld.org/itdg/journals/waterlines>

Web sites

<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/ianwge/activities/tfs2003>
Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality (IANWGE) Task Force on gender and water

<http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk>
Bridge produces brief gender and development bulletins, involving state of the art updates, to raise awareness among policy makers.

<http://www.oecd.org/dac>
The Development Assistance Committee (OECD) has a web site on gender equality that lists publications and reports on the work of Gendernet—a network on gender equality in which gender experts from development cooperation agencies meet to define common approaches.

<http://www.genderandwateralliance.org>
The Gender and Water Alliance is a network of individuals from around the world that aims to share information, and undertake advocacy and capacity-building initiatives in gender and water.

<http://www.siyanda.org>
Siyanda is a database of gender and development materials, some of which relate to the social analysis of water development.

<http://www.unicef.org/programme/wes>
United Nations Children's Fund Water, Environment, Sanitation and Hygiene Education programme. This web site provides links to statistics, resources and details of UNICEF activities on water and sanitation.

<http://www.wateraid.org.uk>
WaterAid is an international NGO dedicated exclusively to the sustainable provision of safe domestic water, sanitation and hygiene education to the world's poorest people.

<http://www.irc.nl/products/publications/ajw>
Women, Water and Sanitation is an annual abstract journal.

<http://www.un.org/womenwatch>
Womenwatch is a gateway to United Nations gender-related information on the advancement and empowerment of women.

<http://www.worldbank.org/gender>
The GenderNet site describes how the World Bank seeks to reduce gender disparities and enhance women's participation in economic development.

<http://www.worldwatercouncil.org>
The World Water Council is an international policy think tank dedicated to strengthening awareness and thinking about integrated management of the world's water resources.

<http://www.world.water-forum3.com>
This site contains the documentation for the Third World Water Forum held in Kyoto in March 2003, including links to policy statements and the discussions of particular sessions.

Guidance for gender mainstreaming in the water sector

ADB checklist http://www.adb.org/Documents/Manuals/Gender_Checklists/Water

AUSAID checklist http://www.usaid.gov.au/publications/pdf/gender_guidelines_water.pdf

Chancellor, F., N. Hasnip and D. O'Neill, *Gender Sensitive Irrigation Design: Guidance for Smallholder Irrigation Development* (United Kingdom, HR Wallingford, 1999), Report 143. Available from: <http://www.dfid-kar-water.net/w5outputs/gender.html>

Cummings, Sarah, Henk van Dam and Minke Valk, *Natural Resources Management and Gender: A Global Sourcebook* (Oxford, United Kingdom, Oxfam, 2003).

Fong, Monica S., Wendy Wakeman and Anjana Bhushan, *Toolkit on Gender in Water and Sanitation: Gender Toolkit Series No. 2* (Washington, D.C., UNDP/World Bank, 1996).

Hannan, Carolyn, and Ingvar Andersson, *A Gender Perspective on Water Resources Management* (Stockholm, Sida, 1995).

The Gender and Water Development Report 2003: Gender Perspectives on Policies in the Water Sector (Loughborough, United Kingdom, Water, Engineering and Development Centre, Gender and Water Alliance, 2003). Available online from: <http://www.genderandwateralliance.org/reports/GWA%20Annual%20Report.pdf>

A Gender Perspective in the Water Resources Management Sector: Handbook for Mainstreaming (Stockholm, Sida, 1997). Available from: <http://www.sida.se/eng/bistand/warer/gender/general.html>

Sida's Action Programme for Promoting Equality between Women and Men in Partner Countries: Experience Analysis, Policy and Action Plan (Stockholm, Swedish InJ 0 Td()Tj, Sida, Angg7(Angg7(Angg 1 Tf9 MTtext 55 415 DC -0.01 1D 3()J Mr)-167(and)-oolia MCID 3938AID cyD



¹ *Water for People—Water for Life—The United Nations World Water Development Report* (Paris, UNESCO Publishing, Berghahn Books, 2003). Available online from:

- ⁴⁷ Christine van Wijk, 1998, cited in *The Gender and Water Development Report 2003: Gender Perspectives on Policies in the Water Sector* (Loughborough, United Kingdom, Water, Engineering and Development Centre, Gender and Water Alliance, 2003). Available online from: <http://www.genderandwateralliance.org/reports/GWA%20Annual%20Report.pdf>
- ⁴⁸ See *The Gender and Water Development Report 2003: Gender Perspectives on Policies in the Water Sector*, Review of 71 water policies, acts and regulations (Loughborough, United Kingdom, Water, Engineering and Development Centre, Gender and Water Alliance, 2003), pp. 29-32. Available online from: <http://www.genderandwateralliance.org/reports/GWA%20Annual%20Report.pdf>
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- ⁵⁰ Mercy S. Dikito-Wachtmeister, "Women's participation in decision-making processes in rural water projects: Makoni District, Zimbabwe (Ph.D. thesis, University of Bradford, 2000).
- ⁵¹ Deepa Joshi, Mary Lloyd and Ben Fawcett, "Voices from the village: An alternative paper for the alternative water forum", paper prepared for the Alternative Water Forum, University of Bradford, 1-2 May 2003. Available from: <http://www.bradford.ac.uk/acad/dppc/GTP/Joshietal.pdf>
- ⁵² Mercy S. Dikito-Wachtmeister, "Women's participation in decision-making processes in rural water projects: Makoni District, Zimbabwe" (Ph.D. thesis, University of Bradford, 2000).
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- ⁵⁴ Sustainable Management of Usangu Wetland and its Catchment Project (SMUWC), 2001.
- ⁵⁵ Frances Cleaver, "Incentives and informal institutions: gender and the management of water", *Agriculture and Human Values*, vol. 15, No. 4 (1998), pp. 347-360.
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- ⁵⁷ Mercy S. Dikito-Wachtmeister, "Women's participation in decision-making processes in rural water projects: Makoni District, Zimbabwe" (Ph.D. thesis, University of Bradford, 2000).
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- ⁵⁹ Ibid.
- ⁶⁰ *The Gender and Water Development Report 2003: Gender Perspectives on Policies in the Water Sector* (Loughborough, United Kingdom, Water, Engineering and Development Centre, Gender and Water Alliance, 2003). Available online from: <http://www.genderandwateralliance.org/reports/GWA%20Annual%20Report.pdf>
- ⁶¹ General Assembly resolution 34/180 of 18 December 1979.
- ⁶² United Nations Development Programme, *Mainstreaming Gender in Water Management: A Practical Journey to Sustainability: A Resource Guide* (New York, United Nations Development Programme, 2003).
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- ⁶⁴ Helen Thomas, Johanna Schalkwyk and Beth Woronuk, "A gender perspective in the water resources management sector: Handbook for mainstreaming", Publications on Water Resources, No. 6 (Stockholm, Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency, 1996).
- ⁶⁵ United Nations Development Programme, *Mainstreaming Gender in Water Management: A Practical Journey to Sustainability: A Resource Guide* (New York, United Nations Development Programme, 2003).
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World Survey of the Role of Women in Development

W O R L D A M I G R A T I O N

A flagship publication of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, *World Survey of the Role of Women in Development* addresses key issues related to women and international migration. The migration of women has always been an important component of international migration. A gender perspective is essential to understanding both the causes and consequences of international migration despite the fact that a dearth of data on women and migration makes it difficult to assess the full implications of international migration for women. Migrant women contribute to the economic development of their country of destination and to the country of origin through financial contributions from remittances, the improvement of their own skills or their contributions to the improvement of the education and skills of the next generation. Women often migrate officially as dependent family members of other migrants or to marry someone in another country. Various international instruments specifically or generally enumerate the rights of migrants. Many national laws on emigration and immigration of voluntary migrants include discriminatory provisions that affect the protection of migrant women. Refugee women and girls face particular problems regarding their legal and physical protection. The trafficking of people for prostitution and forced labour is one of the fastest growing areas of international criminal activity and one that is of increasing concern to the international community. International migration affects gender roles and opportunities for women in destination countries. Some countries have laws that particularly disadvantage women migrants as well as native women who marry foreign men. Migration can profoundly affect the health and well-being of both migrating women and women staying behind when their spouses migrate. The *World Survey of the Role of Women in Development* analyses key issues on labour migration, family formation and reunification, rights of migrant women, refugees and displaced persons, as well as trafficking of women and girls. It sets out recommendations which, if adopted, will improve the situation of migrant, refugee and trafficked women.

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This *Handbook for Parliamentarians*, produced by the Division for the Advancement of Women, Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, in collaboration with the Inter-Parliamentary Union, offers a comprehensive and educational presentation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and its Optional Protocol. The *Handbook for Parliamentarians* presents the background to and content of the Convention and the Optional Protocol and describes the role of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, which secures implementation at the national level. It provides examples of good practices and gives an overview of what parliamentarians can do to ensure effective implementation of the Convention and encourage use of the Optional Protocol. It also proposes model instruments and reference materials as aids designed to facilitate the work of legislators. The *Handbook for Parliamentarians* is available in Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish.

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