GENDER MAINSTREAMING;
- *Equality Lost in Translation?*

Appendices I + II + III

Table of content

Appendix I; *An overview over Danida's organizational structure, new trends and funding practices.*

Appendix II; *List of participating informants, interview guides and questions and a field report.*

Appendix III; *The raw data, all the transcribed interviews from Denmark, Uganda and Vietnam, which can be found on the attached CD, including all the interview guides and questions.*

1 A Funding practices and background information

Preciously (in the theory chapter) it has been argued that volume matters, for which reason this section briefly will give an overview of the developments in Danish aid funding during the evaluation period from 1995 and onwards. However, as funds in themselves do not guarantee the quality of aid, or that gender mainstreaming practices occur, other parameters will be considered as well e.g. on which areas and sectors the funds are spent, the available staff and methods taken etc.

Table 1; Developments in funding of ODA as GNI ratios, (DAC Peer Review 2007:30).
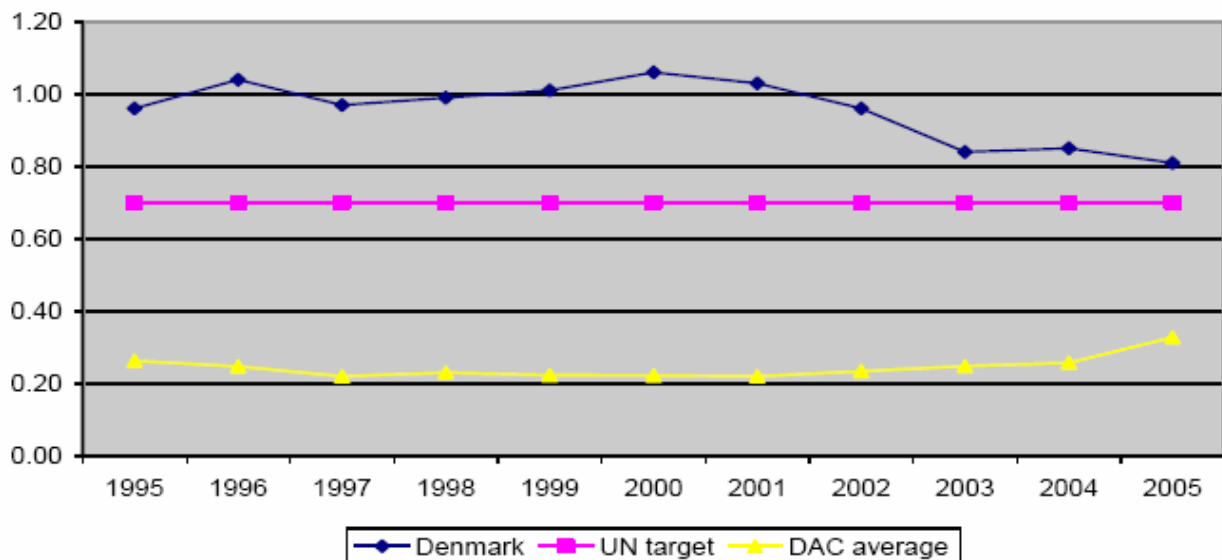
Above is visible the trends of ODA as GNI radios. The Danish ODA/GNI ratio has fallen in the evaluation period from about 1 % to its current average of 0, 8 %. Especially after the neo-liberal and conservative parties joined government in 2001, the year long tradition of at least 1 % of GNI to ODA was broken. However, Denmark is still far exciding the DAC average of 0, 23 % of GNI to ODA and the UN target of 0, 70 %. Although, these figures give an indication of the volume of Danish aid, they do not say anything about, how these funds are spent and on which areas.

In the Danish Parliament there has historically been a consensus about a 50-50 distribution between multilateral and bilateral aid[1], as they are both considered important in achieving the overall goal of poverty alleviation in Danish Development Assistance (ODA) (Hove and Larsen, 2008:1-5).

Table 2.Average distribution of Danish ODA (%) adjusted figures (Hove and Larsen, 2008:3)

Period	Bilateral (%)	Multilateral (%)
Average 1963-2008	53	47
Average 1963-2001	52	48
Average 2002-2008	57	43

---

[1] DAC has due to harmonised reporting procedures defined that earmarked assistance to a specific country is bilateral aid and general support to an international organisation is multilateral aid (Hove and Larsen, 2008:1-2). Whether there are any plans about altering this definition due to ongoing work and/or adjustments to the Paris Declaration etc. cannot be determined at this time.

Often it is claimed that there with the neo-liberal and conservative government has been a change in the distribution of Danish ODA towards more bilateral aid. However, two things must be taken into account before such a conclusion can be made. First of all; the statistical method for calculating these figures changed significantly in 2004 and second of all; there has also been a tendency of DAC in recent years towards categorizing more as bilateral aid. For example, from 2005 onwards, the extraordinary humanitarian contributions, international humanitarian service and assistance to refugees[2] and internally displaced people in regions of origin are now reported as bilateral aid, but were previously considered to be multilateral assistance areas. In order to eliminate these biases, so that a development in numbers do not only represent a change of calculation methods, the average distributed figures above in table 2 have been adjusted for. However, there still seems to be a trend of 5 percentage points since 2002 towards a lower share of multilateral aid compared with bilateral aid in Danish ODA than previously was the case (Hove and Larsen, 2008:3).

As the main focus in my thesis is bilateral aid in general and sector program support in particular, then it would be relevant to detect trends in the funds allocated to these areas within my evaluation period as well. These trends can be visualised in the two presented tables on the next page.

At a 2004/05 average Denmark (DK) contributes 9 % more of its bilateral ODA to the social infrastructure and service sector than total DAC members do, as DK assigns 43 % and DAC allocates 34 %. Another area, where DK takes a leading role or just prioritises differently than the general DAC member does, is the production service sector, as DK's share is 16 % and DAC's is 6 %. Still, DK also has low concern areas in comparison with DAC generally speaking. Actions relating to debt and humanisation aid are two cases in point. In relations to the former DAC's share is 21 %, whereas Denmark's share is at 4 %, and with the latter Denmark gives 1 %, when DAC members' proportion of bilateral ODA is 8 %. The two sector programs that this master thesis is concentrated on e.g. the water supply and sanitation sector and the agricultural sector both belong to the so called high priority sectors at least funding wise, namely the social infrastructure and services and service production, as mentioned above. The water supply and sanitation sector got 3 % out of the total of 29 % to the social infrastructure and service area in 1994-95. This number has increased to 12 % in 1999-2000, but the social infrastructure and services as a whole have gotten 5 % more of the bilateral ODA funds, as they rose to 34 %. The same pattern occurred in 2004/05, where the social area reached its highest level at a total of 43 % of bilateral ODA, but water supply and sanitation only received 1 % more. This 14 % increase of bilateral ODA to the social area from 1994/95 to 2004/05 happened at the expense of the economic infrastructure and services and multi sector support. In relations to the former a cut back has occurred for the energy sector by 50 % (from 8 % in 1994/95 over 5 % in 1999-2000 to 4 % in 2004/05), which means that this trend occurred already before 2000. The same patterns can be said for communication, which percentage wise has been reduced from 5 % in 1994/95 to 0 % in 1999-2000 and 2004/05. The figures for the agricultural sector are not very accurate, because they belong to a category of agriculture, fisheries and forestry in one. But the trend has been that the production sector got a 5 % rise from 1994/95 till 1999/2000, where it has remained at 16 % ever since. The category for agriculture has gone from 7 % in 1994/95, to 15 % in 1999/2000 and down to 11 % in 2004/05 where it appears to remain for now. Lastly, there has been an over 50 % reduction on administrative donor costs from 1999/2000 till 2004/05 and at the same time an increase of 50 % to government and civil society, which probably is due to the change of donor aid funding structure towards more budget and sector support, but also more institutional capacity building with governments and partner organisations.

---

[2] The expenses to refugee's reception as a share of Danish ODA is an area, which has been reprioritised dramatically from a proportion of 7 % of Danish ODA in 2001 to 1,6 % in 2008 (Hove and Larsen, 2008:4).

Tables 3 and 4 below illustrate Danish ODA distributed by major purposes & compared to DAC members

Table B.5. Bilateral ODA by major purposes

at current prices and exchange rates

Commitments - Two-year averages

Denmark	1994-95		1999-2000		2004-05		2004-05
	USD million	Per cent	USD million	Per cent	USD million	Per cent	Total DAC per cent
Social infrastructure & services	196	29	280	34	711	43	34
Education	32	5	42	5	122	7	8
of which: basic education	4	1	23	3	43	3	2
Health	61	9	66	8	117	7	4
of which: basic health	1	0	47	6	76	5	2
Population & reproductive health	-	-	2	0	12	1	3
Water supply & sanitation	22	3	100	12	212	13	5
Government & civil society	43	6	51	6	212	13	11
Other social infrastructure & services	38	6	19	2	35	2	4
Economic infrastructure & services	158	23	198	24	249	15	14
Transport & storage	61	9	154	19	166	10	5
Communications	33	5	2	0	6	0	1
Energy	57	8	42	5	59	4	5
Banking & financial services	4	1	0	0	0	0	1
Business & other services	2	0	1	0	19	1	1
Production sectors	73	11	127	16	267	16	6
Agriculture, forestry & fishing	46	7	122	15	177	11	3
Industry, mining & construction	26	4	2	0	90	6	2
Trade & tourism	2	0	2	0	-	-	0
Other	-	-	-	-	0	0	0
Multisector	100	15	50	6	137	8	7
Commodity and programme aid	12	2	28	3	52	3	3
Action relating to debt	9	1	0	0	68	4	21
Humanitarian aid	0	0	-	-	10	1	8
Administrative costs of donors	66	10	78	10	67	4	5
Core support to NGOs	4	1	0	0	71	4	2
Refugees in donor countries	67	10	51	6	10	1	3
Total bilateral allocable	686	100	813	100	1 643	100	100
For reference:							
Total bilateral	*765*	*51*	*858*	*59*	*1 690*	*68*	*77*
of which: Unallocated	*79*	*5*	*45*	*3*	*48*	*2*	*2*
Total multilateral	*728*	*49*	*602*	*41*	*800*	*32*	*23*
Total ODA	*1 493*	*100*	*1 460*	*100*	*2 491*	*100*	*100*

Allocable bilateral ODA by major purposes, 2004-05 %
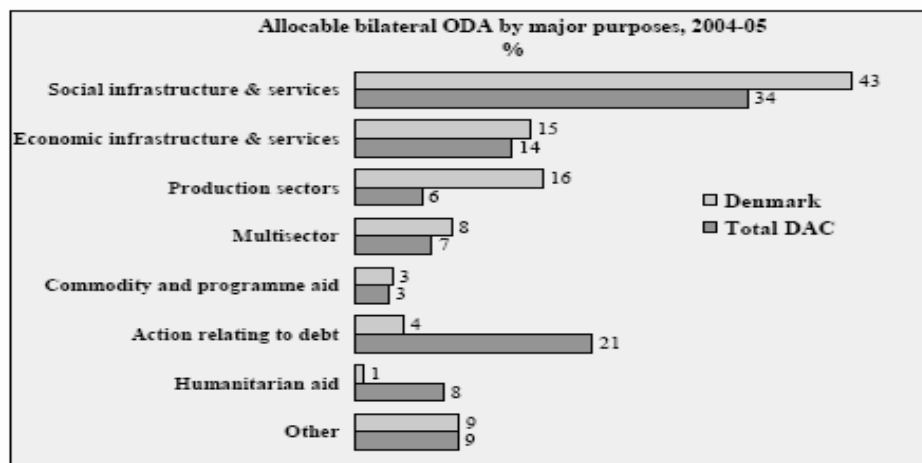
(Source; DAC Peer Review 2007:73).

Conclusively, there has since 2001 and 2002 been a reduction in Danish ODA volume and a tendency towards more bilateral than multilateral aid. In addition, the social infrastructure and services are getting a larger percentage of the total bilateral ODA with 43 % in 2004/2005, which also uncovers a trend of working more directly with governments and through their institutions.

1.1 Denmark's efforts and priorities in Uganda

The next step is then to draw the attention to the two case study countries Uganda and Vietnam in order to get an overview of the trends and developments in Danish ODA and activities there. This is important, because, although the focus of this thesis in on water supply and sanitation and agriculture and gender, the different sector interventions are also intended as a whole country program with an overall strategy to achieve Danish ODA goals.

Danish bilateral ODA to Uganda resumed in 1987 after the National Resistance Movement (NRM) had taken over power after years of dictatorship under Idi Amin and Obote II. From a modest level in the first couple of years Danish ODA has grown continuously, and reached its peak in 2001 with DKK 472 million. Denmark focuses mainly on tree areas in Uganda, namely support to production, social and institutional development, which are in line with general Danish ODA trends as outlined above e.g. social infrastructure and production services as main aid areas. The production area is mainly agriculture and transport, whereas social infrastructure is centred on health, sanitation and water and institutional development contains human rights, democratisation and gender work etc. In addition Denmark has been fairly consistent in staying in the same sectors[3] and with the same partners for long time periods, as figure 1 below also demonstrates (MFA, 2006:xx, 1, 7, 27). In the following the interventions on agriculture, water supply and sanitation and gender will be outlined.

Figure 1: Timeline for Danish Sector Interventions in Uganda (MFA, 2006:1)
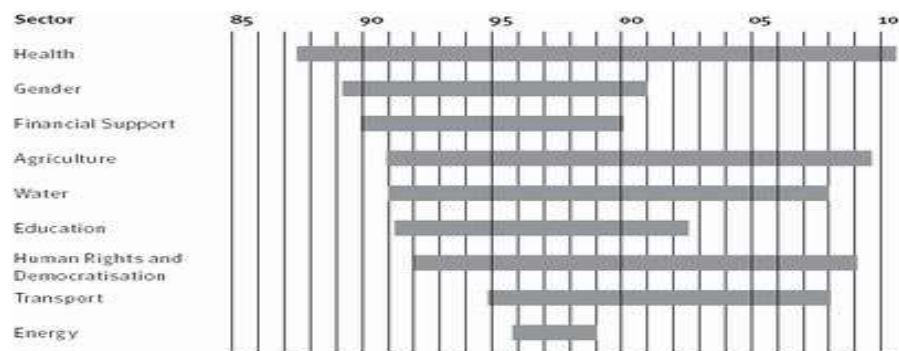
The Danish support to the agricultural sector can be divided into 3 phases. Phase 1 (1987-1990) was in the early days, where donors tried to convince the Ugandan government (GoU) to reduce its role in production. Although poverty alleviation was not so explicitly mention in Danish ODA as today, the support to the dairy sector, milk collection schemes, the Farm Forest Project and credits for small farmers did contain that dimension. In Phase 2 (1991-1998) donors and international partners helped GoU to view the long-term opportunities of the agricultural sector and Danida contributed actively to the debates from which the Plan for Modernisation of Agriculture (PMA) emerged. Danida's own interventions went to developing the livestock sub-sector and giving support to the farmer organisation with the intension of developing an independent and self-financing agricultural extension system after the Danish model. The last phase 1998 onwards marked the beginning of actual agricultural sector programme support ASPS, which there has been two of, and they will both form the basis of my analysis in looking for life improvements for women (MFA, 2006:48-52, 73).

---

[3] Denmark has received appraisal for staying out of sectors with adequate funding and participating in joint donor and government coordination, whereby more coherence is created. But by the Ugandan government Denmark is also considered to be one of the more difficult donors due to many restrictions on balance of payments and earmarked funds, which puts extra administrative burdens on the Ugandan governmental institutions (MFA, 2006:xx).

In terms of the water supply and sanitation sector four phases can be detected. Phase 1 (1987-1989) was the emergency support to the water sector through Unicef. The second phase (1989-1998) was support to rural water schemes, RUWASA. But due to a need of rethinking some of the strategies that did not work e.g. the operation and sustaining of the water facilities, the GoU embarked on a comprehensive reform of the water sector, which was funded by Danida in the late 19990s. The two last phases mark the beginning of the water and sanitation program support: WSPS I + II that cover all four sub-sectors: rural water and sanitation, urban water, water for production and water resource management. However, it should be noticed that WSPS received about 20 % of Danish ODA, while ASPS got 12 %, when the first couple of years with low activity are discarded (MFA, 2006:41, 55-57). RUWASA II &WSPS I + II will be examined, as they occur within my evaluation time period.

The last intervention area concerns my main study object, gender interventions. According to figure 1 above, it can be viewed that specific funds were giving to gender activities from 1989 to 2001. These include a ten year technical support to a newly established Ministry of Women. The support was unique in the sense that staff learned how to plan and design program activities. Legal research, a newsletter and a resource centre were among the yearly initiatives. And the ministry is said to have influenced the female friendly and affirmative action part of the 1995 Constitution. From 1996 the focus turned from WID to GAD (*see section 1C*) and in light of the decentralisation process and the Local Government Act of 1997 working closer with districts and arranging their gender training became a central task for the ministry, which was heavily reduced in staff (MFA, 2000:14,17, 21).

1.2 Denmark's efforts and priorities in Vietnam

With the weakening of the communist block in the late 1980s, the GoV started to reform the centralised plan economy towards more marked economy with the Doi Moi plan from 1986. This and Vietnam's need for new partners created an environment from the 1990s and onwards, where the donor community and funds grew rapidly, which slowed down project implementation, as the administrative capacities were lacking to adsorbed all these funding rules and procedures. It was in this environment that Danida entered in 1993. The main focus of Danish ODA in Vietnam is concentrated on three areas: agriculture, fisheries and water. This implies that more weight is given to the production sector than the common Danish ODA does (MFA, 2002:9, 15, 21-22, 33-35).

The 1994 strategy for agriculture focused on the processing of agricultural produce, which in 2000 was considered too narrow a focus to reduce poverty. From 1993-1997 the Post Harvest and Rice Processing Project, The Seed Supply Project and the Integrated Pest Management was lunched and all became sub-components under ASPS I along with a credit and livestock component. ASPS II is concentrated on the two latter sub-components, as it is designed for poor farmers and women (Ibid).

In the same way the water sector interventions in the pre WSPS period concentrated on different water supply projects e.g. Dak Lak, Buan Ma Thout and Halong Urban City water supply. But Danida also supported the Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Study Tour in the late 1990s. These interventions, mutual confidence and experience building meant that Danida became the lead donor in WSPS I (2000-2005) and in WSPS II (2006-2010), which I will examine (MFA, 2002:29, 49-58).

In relations to gender interventions extensive activities are not found, as the case was in Uganda, which is properly due to the fact that Sida has occupied this role in Vietnam. Instead, credits to women are given; initiatives through Hanoi Business Network and policy dialogues are made (Ibid).

1.B Organisational structure and chains of command in Danish aid

Diagram 1; Denmark's Development Aid System (DAC Peer Review, 2007:19)
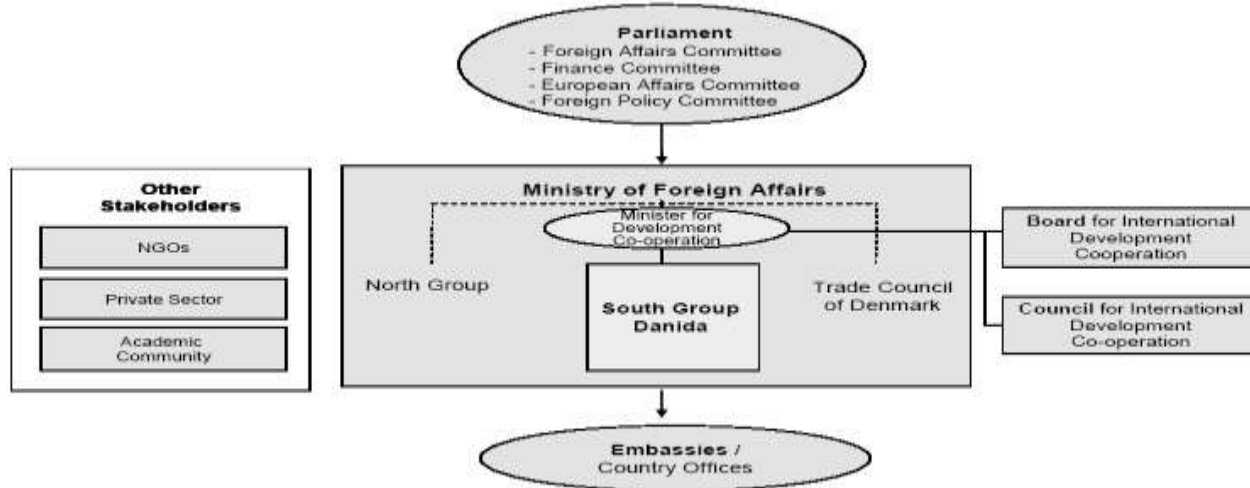

New orientations

As can be seen above the organisation structure of Danish development cooperation is conceptually quite simply with an integrated system within the Ministry of Foreign Affair (MFA) as the main leadership level for all strategies and policies in both multilateral and bilateral aid, although the Development Minister has the final say within the framework approved by the Danish Parliament. The MFA is in close contact with the embassies, representations to multilateral organisations and parliament. The two former have a wide range of responsibility areas for the designing and delivery of programme aid since bilateral aid was decentralised in 2003 and multilateral aid in 2005. Since 2003 an annual priority plan for Danish development assistance, including a 5 year mandatory budget plan has been presented in connection with the government's Finance Bill. There has also in recent years been a new emphasis on the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), on the one hand, and the challenge and opportunities of globalisation and how they may affect poverty reduction strategies, on the other hand. For example, members of Parliament, Foreign Affairs Committee and Finance Committee regularly visit Danish programme countries to engage in technical issues of aid delivery. Another forum that provides technical advice on strategies, action plans and activities related to development cooperation is the so called Danida Board – The Board for International Development Cooperation, which was established by the 1971 Act and gave its advisory mandate. Danida and MFA also host activities like the Danida days and conferences where there is a dialogue with NGOs, the academic community and private sector etc., which covers the rather detached box of other stakeholders in the diagram above (DAC Peer Reviews, 2007:18-20).

Below in figure 5 is outlined the programme cycle in the Danish decentralised system since 2003, because the decentralisation has meant that additional tasks have been transferred to the embassies, for example: in identifying, preparing and managing country programmes after approval. The next question is then, whether the embassies have been given sufficient human resources to deal with these extra tasks. The proportion of staff working abroad was increased. Also, one extra employee was sent to each embassy and the hiring of local staff has increase with 50%. But at the same time cut backs has happened in numbers of advisers sent and staff in Copenhagen, which is a result of the general financial restriction on the public service sector in Denmark over this period as well.

Figure 5. Programme cycle in the Danish decentralised system
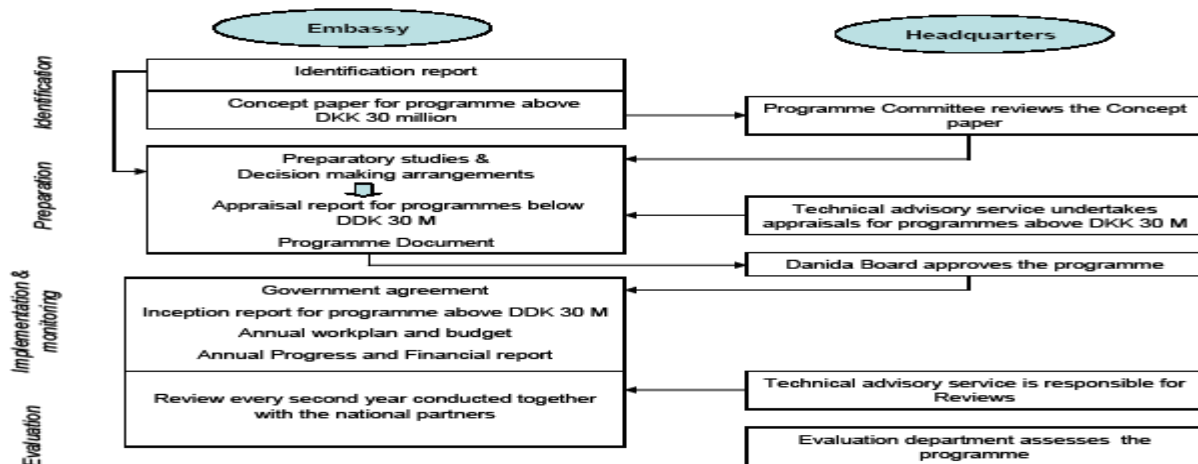
(Source: DAC Peer Review, 2007:42, 42 and 46).

1.5 Performance and result orientated aid

The huge focus on effectiveness and cost efficient aid delivery and the establishment of a result-based management system in 2003 has meant that the reporting procedures have been streamlined for embassies as well to include appraisal reports, annual reviews, work plans and budgets and result contracts and business plans etc. (DAC Peer Review, 2007:38-48).

In relations to the work on gender equality (GE) this meant that there from 2005 was required separate reporting for activities and results on gender mainstreaming (GM) and special interventions (SI) efforts. 14 out of 18 embassies had in 2006 chosen to rate both GM and SI, which was an increase to the previous year, where such reporting procedures began. The ratings for GM were; 2 x a, 14 x b, 2 x c and SI scored; 3 x a, 10 x b and 1 x c.[4] Behind these numbers there is a lot of variation in methods, focus area and results achieved, which gives evidence to the fact that context adjustments, creativity and networking skills are utilized as well. For example, the SI where women were targeted specifically and the intervention had clear objective, was quite successful like the involvement of women in user groups within the water supply and sanitation sector, participatory community consultation and participating in local government elections. In relations to GM it was found that general support was given at institutional level in the form of assisting with outlining national and gender action plans and strategies for sector programs. However, when it comes to *actual implementation* there seems to be inconsistencies and a lack of systematic efforts. In view of these challenges, and the Danish government's focus on MDGs as previously mentioned, increased priority has been put to women's right and empowerment in the form of money in the "A world for all" plan and in term of forming a Gender Team within MFA's South Group plus appointing gender focal points at the embassies (MFA, 2006:28-31). The latter implies that current staff members have gotten an extra task assigned to their current duties, which does not free extra human resources.

---

[4] MFA's self rating system normally has four categories, a: very satisfactory, which means that no adjustments need to be made to plans or strategies, b: satisfactory, implying minor problems and adjustments should be made, c: less satisfactory, then adjustments must be made and d: unsatisfactory, which questions the whole sustainability of the activities. So what can we even use such scorings or ratings for? The question is based on the fact that they are self-ratings and the embassies are probably not that interested in painting a picture of not delivering on these cross-cutting issues, which can be supported by the fact that there are no d ratings, but a too optimistic or unrealistic view is not given either, as few a and mostly b ratings are given. However, the scores at least put some focus on the GE and GM issues.

1.C Gender Policy Development

In order to comprehend and discuss the contemporary discourses and approaches taken in dealing with women and gender in development practices, I believe that it is important to place these understandings within the developments of gender equality struggles in general and aid policies in particular. Because the choice of approach and the understanding(s) of the problem matter at hand do not occur in a vacuum. Instead, they are a result of multiple factors, which are both contextual and time specific but also related to debates, influences and negotiations between the various actors at the international scene e.g. state bodies, INGOs, IGOs, IOs, NGOs, MNCs, private actors etc. Thereby, the interrelation and dynamics of local politics, international relations and the economy as well as the non-linear developments in gender equality battles should become more apparent.

The politics of women and/or the story of the feminist agenda can be *told* in several ways, all depending on the perspective and focus chosen. Although somewhat simplified, I will discuss this topic with reference to the notion of <u>three waves of feminism</u> throughout the history of the 20th century. In order not to be *too trapped* by this categorization I will try to include the diversity and complexities involved within and across feminist agenda(s). Another major critique of viewing the politics of women through feminist lenses is the claim that feminism is a western invention, and the interests of women in the North and South is much diversified, as are the needs and interests of women within different countries. These points and the critique made, I feel, do have merit. However, reality is that these different political agendas help shape both policy making and research fields, for which reason they cannot be neglected. In addition, I wish to reflect historical factors about the civil and women's movements across regions to illustrate that the "women question" by national governments often were used politically to further other political goals, although the specific form, content and way that the women question was used differ greatly.

1.6 Various Feminist Discourses

The first wave of feminism and trans-national mobilization (1880-1930) was connected to the fight for suffrage and equal rights for education and industrial training, issues of peace, equal pay, but also social welfare and religious concerns. However, it is important to stress that trans-national influences were being absorbed by local movements, national events and trends in distinctive ways, which greatly affected its content and further evolvement (Tripp, 2006a:55-56). For example, in a number of Asian and Middle Eastern countries the "women question" was used as a tool in early anti-colonial nationalism (Pettman, 2005:672). Vietnam can serve as a case to illustrative this point.

Vietnam has a long list of foreign invaders throughout its history, so the resistance toward French colonisation grew quite rapidly. Already in 1883, the first resistance campaigns began, and women did to some degree participate in these anti-French struggles and uprisings. Anti-colonial associations and media coverage began, although the French exercised censorship over the press, meaning that linking women's emancipation with national liberation was too politically and sensitive a topic. The feminist movement in Indochina could roughly be described as containing bourgeoisie or proletarian tendencies; the first stressing political rights and education, and the second with a strong Marxist orientation focused on improving women's economic and social conditions. The Indochinese Communist Party (ICP) founded in 1930 promised to grant women equality. ICP saw gender inequalities as a result of Confucianism and colonialism. The French brought capitalism and its economic inequalities and constraints on women, such as loosing traditional craft jobs and occupations, whereby they became more dependent on male incomes. The

thousand year long Chinese influence meant sexist practices e.g. polygamy and arranged/forced marriages and female restrictions to the domestic realm.[5] However, the ICP did focus mostly on its own two principal goals; national liberation and social revolution (Lessard, 2004:110-122).

In the beginning of development aid to the Third World little attention was drawn to women's involvement, and those interventions that did in the 1950s and 1960s were framed within a policy approach classified as welfare orientated. It built on *three assumptions*; first, that women are passive recipients of development, second, motherhood is the most important role of women in society, and third, child-rearing is the most effective role for women in all part of economic development. Its quite traditional and conservative view of women reflects both its origin and time of origin, which was linked to the residual model of social welfare, first introduced by colonial authorities in the Third World countries prior to their independence. However, the social policy area did have low priority in comparison to law and order, trade, agriculture and mineral expansion (Moser, 1993:58-60).

The popularity of the welfare approach with many recipient governments, donors and NGOs was due to the fact that it did not threaten the status quo of economic privileges and political power. Although the approach has evolved since then to include less top down management, handouts and creation of dependency,[6] various critique points remained. An increasing amount of research has showed that although women were dominant contributors to basic food production, their economic contribution was not reflected in planning, implementation and national statistics. In addition, market economic mechanisms in general and agricultural modernization projects in particular were shown to affect women negatively, because they lost their traditional jobs, which had given them income, status and power. This empirical evidence resulted in the acknowledgement that women must be included in development efforts, and the UN decade for women from 1976-85 put them officially on the international agenda (Kabeer, 1994:1-10), (Moser, 1993:58-63), (Boserup, 1986).

This was at the same time as the second wave of feminism became visible (1945-75); along side other social movements for civil and social rights, especially in the 1970s in western countries. However, whether this feminist movement can be claimed to have had a unified agenda is very debatable, for which reason it is necessary *shortly* to present different versions of feminism e.g. Liberal, Marxist, Socialist and Radical. Although these labels are problematic since alliances shift and discourses develop over time and place, they nonetheless still have a significant influence on the theoretical thinking and the strategies chosen for policy making (Pettman, 2005:672).

Broadly speaking *Liberal Feminists* seek an end to women's exclusion from or under-representation in the public realm e.g. in public office, positions of power and employment. They strive towards equity between men and women, meaning equal opportunity between them, which is obtained with

---

[5] It is important to understand the ambiguity of the Vietnamese relation with China, which resembles that of love/hate attitudes, as history has demonstrated agreements, contradictions, cooperation and confrontation between the two countries. The communist rulers in Vietnam copied and adopted many aspects of Mao's methods and institutions and received aid /advice from China, but simultaneously wanting to preserve their independence and culture (Qiang, 2000).
[6] There have always been areas and practices of development aid that creates dependency and is more bureaucratic run such as crises work and emergency aid. Family planning interventions could also be claimed to serve the purpose of the common good, keeping population numbers in control against the individual, family and cultural norms and wishes. For example China's One Child Family Planning Policy is quite unique, because it is the most radical attempt to reduce population growth. In urban areas it is much more respected than in rural areas, and the local government does not really sanction "the poor offenders" (Du and Nazneen, 2003:12, 14). However, for some women child policies or family planning measures could also mean that they are not overburdened work and health wise due to having many children.

women becoming economic independent agents. The practice and research frame influenced by Liberal Feminism is called WID – Women in Development. WID is criticised for not challenging any aspects of capitalism or offering alternatives, making it insufficient for women living under other socio-economic systems. *Marxist Feminism*, dependency theories and some NGOs' work with women have influenced the WAD approach – Women and Development, which sees the current economic system as the problem. The solution is the development of new economic structures which can bring about economic equality by collective action and self-help organization, creating greater third world independence and self-efficiency including traditional income generation.

However, the *Socialist Feminists* criticize this class focus for neglecting the differences between female and male problems by leaving out women's experiences such as reproductive roles. The *Radical Feminists* see women's subordination as universal, though taking different forms across time and place. These two latter forms of feminism have influenced the GAD approach – Gender and Development. GAD emphasises the oppressive nature and power inequalities within the patriarchal system. Therefore, these positions e.g. GAD, Radical and Socialist Feminism would all seek to change the female biased institutions themselves to become more women inclusive, with the implication that they can be more focused on policy level changes such as legislation, policy strategies and symbolic commitments, but gendered basic needs and interest coverage can be involved in GAD work as well (Pettman, 2005:672-673), (Singh, 2005:101-105).

1.7 Critiques of western feminism

These approaches to women and development have received critique from a great variety of sources e.g. *Black* and *Third World Feminists*, *Cultural Feminists*, *Post-modern* and *Post-structural Feminists*. They accused the white and second wave feminists of ignoring race, cultural dimensions and differences, local contexts and colonial relations, which all are factors that affect many women greatly. In addition to this, the Post-modern and Post-structural traditions have contributed to the growing recognition of differences between women's needs, wants and interests, but they also question the uniformities created by categories like gender, which has resulted in an approach called WCD – Women, Culture and Development. This research framework and practice emphasize variations in local context and culture, which are considered to be two important dimensions of women's many realities, whereby WCD incorporates women's many social systems and the dialectic nature of the agency and structure perspective. In opposition to WAD's agency, which is based on collective action, WCD defines it as a primarily individual undertaking that differs across culture and groups. Its refusal to generalize about women's identity and goals can make it more difficult to obtain substantial policy changes and results in eliminating gender inequalities, as feminist and women's agendas can come into conflict with one another and compete for the same funds, political attention and influence (Pettman, 2005:673-674), (Singh, 2005:101-106).

This lack of unity has made it difficult for the women's movement to speak with a clear voice or to talk of a global feminism. Nevertheless, regional networking in Latin America, Africa and Asia are occurring around specific issues such as trafficking, land reform, education for women, peace building, reproductive rights, violence against women and electoral quotas. They use these trans-national coalitions, networks, international treaties, platforms and conferences to push forward these "new women's rights agendas". However, this trans-national feminism is not new, but now it is more centred in the South than previously. In Uganda, for example, women came together to strategize, discuss problems and share experiences in post-colonial times and by the end of colonialism (1950-70). But the rise of single-party states throughout Africa meant that the

possibility of regional networking was diminished and conditioned by state-society relations. Often women's activism was dominated by party and state organizations through government sponsored umbrella bodies as a way of controlling them. The economic crisis of the 1980s, SAPs and neo-liberal reforms meant a retreat of the state bodies, and thereby a political opening for non-state actors. Also, new laws on associations created a more autonomous environment for women's movements, NGOs and civil society to manoeuvre within (Tripp, 2006a:60-73).

1.8 Policy responses and aid practices

The policy responses to gender equality and inequality have also been affected by these different feminist positions and various political ideologies, but they are often the end result of political compromise, which implies that they consist of a variety and mix of strategies, agendas and economic concerns. Moser and other specialists operate with five to six additional policy approaches in third world development aid, those being; anti-poverty or basic needs, equity, efficiency and empowerment and equality (Kabeer, 1994), (Danida, 1993:9), (Moser, 1993:56).

The poverty alleviation attempts and *basic needs strategies* began in the 70s and have evolved ever since. They remain highly popular with NGOs and donors, because of their a-political undertones. The programmes were namely concentrated around more practical needs coverage such as food, clothes, shelter, fuel, but also education and training as well as employment and income generating schemes played/play a role in these liberal claims to development aid. Women's poverty was/is seen as a problem of underdevelopment and not subordination. However, *the equity approach* does recognize the subordinate position of women in relations to men. It aims at reducing inequality both in the family sphere and market place through state interventions by giving women economic and political autonomy and letting them become active stakeholders in the development process. This approach has never really been popular, as it is claimed to be western feminism and development agencies were and to some degree still are reluctant to interfere directly with a country's traditions, gender and power relations (Kabeer, 1994:1-39), (Danida, 1993:9), (Moser, 1993: 62-69).

The efficiency approach is like the three previous approaches mentioned also related to WID and liberal feminism and the neo-liberal paradigm. This approach is highly popular with donor agencies, as it tries to ensure that development aid is as effective and efficient[7] as possible. This is achieved by utilizing human, material and financial resources better, at first by depending more on women's economic contributions, time and labour force. Second, the SAPs resulted in cuts in social expenditures such as health, education and food subsides. All this implied a shift from the (male) paid to the (female) unpaid economy, which meant longer and harder working days for women. However, it has been mentioned that it is not the amount of hours that is the primary problem, rather it is the fact that women are forced to balance their time between paid and unpaid work, which reduces children's nurture time, and affects women themselves and the functioning of the household e.g. an increase in domestic violence has been implied (Moser, 1993:56, 69-73), (Danida, 1993:9), (Kabeer, 1994:1-39). It should also be noted that ideas of efficiency can and have been used to benefit people by introducing techniques to reduce labour burdens, save time and/or increase incomes etc. Also, an increase in income can mean the ticket out of an abusive marriage or situation for women, which to them can mean more than any gender equality measures. But this economic independence can imply that some women will not feel pressured into getting married at all.

---

[7] The terms effectiveness and efficiency are often used interchangeably, despite their definitional differences. According to Oakley efficiency refers to whether project, programme or aid resources are used most cost-efficient, whereas effectiveness means the successful realization of the project or aid objectives (Oakley, 1995:9-10).

The empowerment approach has been called post-WID, because it should provide a quite different frame to "women's equality". It was articulated by women in developing countries, third world feminism and is also related to WCD. It grew out of dissatisfaction with the equity approach, which was regarded irrelevant, as it did not cover the interests of ordinary women in the third world. Therefore, its methodology to women's equality is to begin with women's practical needs and over time and through women's mobilization and greater self-reliance achieve more autonomy and influence over the development process in general and their lives in particular. It builds on a conflict model, for which reason it remains unpopular with national governments (Moser, 1993:56, 74-79), (Kabeer, 1994:223-262). *The equality approach* is the GAD approach, emerging from the Fourth World Conference on Women and widely adopted by aid agencies and governments as previously mentioned. It entails a focus on both men and women, transforming unequal power relations and addressing practical and strategical needs etc. Also, it is inspired by Radical Feminism and builds on the key lessons learnt from the previous approaches mentioned (Moser, 1999:6-7).

The legal discourses of the politics of equality and gender equality are also much diversified. However, there have been some common disputes raised over time and place. One is whether the aim of legislation is equal opportunity[8], an example being that women's own financial needs are highlighted, or difference in treatment for different people, where protective measures, quotas, positive or affirmative action policies are examples of difference legislation. The equal treatment primarily focuses on individuals and their rights, whereas affirmative action looks to correct disadvantages and discrimination of certain groups of people through targeted recruitment etc. Thereby, it can be claimed that it is yet just another form of discrimination, based on a collectivist notion on achieving more equality or balancing out inequalities by excluding already privileged groups. These debates have been seen as both incommensurable and complementary, where some parties stress either equal opportunity or difference in legislation (Daly, 2005:437-438), (Jarman, 1991:145, 151-152).

Others again take a more pragmatic stand, where they claim the need for both types of legislation, because some areas as pay or land rights may need an equal opportunity or access treatment by law, whereas political participation might necessitate additional assistance for some population groups, as their networks, resources, organizational preferences or habits etc. might else be inhibiting. Yet again others claim that this kind of legislation, when implemented and practiced, only provide formal equality, meaning that establishing a legal and positive discriminatory framework or granting women equal rights does not, in fact, automatically lead to any improvements in women's overall position within society. However, it would be naive to expect legal reforms alone to provide for "women's equality".[9] These critiques and weaknesses have been build into the more "recent" gender policy e.g. gender mainstreaming strategy, as it agedly is directed towards those systems, processes, and norms that generate these gender inequalities (Daly, 2005:437-438), (Bussemaker, 1991:55, 60-66), (Jarman, 1991:145, 152), (Outshoorn, 1991:104), (Parvikko, 1991:48-49, 55).

Conclusively, the policy approaches and research frameworks presented should not be seen as fixed and distinct or as mutually exclusive, because in reality they are a mix of approaches, strategies and

---

[8] The equal opportunity regime consists of opposing positions as well e.g. Radical and Marxist, Liberal and Conservative accounts, but also within these singular accounts does diversity prevail such as old egalitarianism, a justice or more pluralist model, all three related to the liberal and neo-liberal paradigms (Forbes, 1991:17-33).
[9] Women's emancipation, liberation and the women question I view as more historical terms reflecting the fight for suffrage, education and nationalist struggles for independence. Women's empowerment, equality and equity are more contemporary terms, which I will discuss in the next subsection; 1.D.

interventions. This naturally makes the study of contemporary gender policies more complex since no country only applies one approach but a mix of approaches. Also, the evolution of the gender and development paradigm as well as legal equality discourses and policy approaches to women all seem to have some parallels to the evolution of feminist thinking. Therefore, approaches to gender equality and women are living entities, enduring over time but also subject to change and have the capability of showing dynamism. It is in this context that contemporary policies and strategies of equal treatment, affirmative action and gender mainstreaming and equality should be understood.

1.D The art of concept clarification and operationalization

The thesis's key concepts need to be defined and clarified, as the vocabulary and jargon of the development paradigm in general, and feminized politics in particular, are very value laden. But they also consist of multiple and competing conceptualizations, interpretations and understandings. This clarification is connected to the process of operationalization as well.

Moser, Kabeer, Derbyshire, Overholt etc. operate with a *gender analysis,*[10] which includes the identification of gender related roles, needs, interests, notions of diversity/differentiation, disparity/access to and control over resources and power, and an *institutional analysis* reflecting intra-household dynamics and inter-household relations whereby both institutional constrains and opportunities are analysed in relation to gender inequality. Although such checklists are incomplete and fail to address all gender related concerns, they can serve as a guiding stating point (Moser, 1999:3, 4, 14, 18-20). Danida has applied SEAGA – Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis in some programmes, where the aim is to study the different roles of men and women, understand what they do, need, their various responsibilities and resources etc. (Danida, 2007b), (Moser, 1993:17). A wide range of similar types of gender analysis and participatory tools exist with the common purpose of analysing gender inequalities, differences and local problematic and specific concerns.

Gender roles are in the Moser et al. conceptual framework understood as what a society or social unit consider appropriate "work" for a man, women and child, whereby reflecting a *division of labour*. Most often, it is claimed, both men and women play multiple roles in society; men play their multiple roles sequentially, while women play them simultaneously and must thereby balance competing claims on limited time for fulfilment of each. In addition, it is differentiated by three overall types of labour related gender roles e.g. productive, reproductive and community work. The latter represents a whole range of activities related to work and leisure, voluntary and obligation and political organization. What is important to understand about different gender related roles played out in the community or society sphere is that they may vary in organization, structure and content between men and women but also within the sexes and across different contexts and time periods. Productive work, on the other hand, is done by both men and women and is compensated for by some kind of payment in cash or kind. It includes market production with an exchange value and subsistence, or home production with a use, self-consumption or exchange value. The reproductive work is often undervalued and/or unpaid. It includes domestic tasks, child rearing responsibilities but also the care of the people living in and the maintenance of the household (Moser, 1999:18).

---

[10] Although this framework primarily builds on the logic of the GAD approach, it also draws on a variety of other theoretical traditions, empirical data and practical gender experiences, as already mentioned. For example, the notion of differentiation is related to that of intersectionality, because experiences of gender inequality vary across hierarchies of race, economic class, age, religion, disabilities etc. (Squires, 2005:376). PPAs have also demonstrated variation in household relationships and gender differences in priorities, roles and access to resources (Kabeer, 2003:99-101).

Due to the fact that men and women have different gender roles, they also have different interests, needs and wants. Therefore, from both an operational and policy viewpoint, it can be useful as Moser does, to distinguish between practical and strategic needs. Practical gender needs are those needs, which men and women identify as their own but much related to their socially ascribed roles. They are practical and often related to inadequacies in living conditions such as water provision, credit, employment, health care etc., whereby they respond to immediate needs identified within a specific context. As these needs arise out of gender divisions of labour, meeting them only reproduces these gender specific roles, for which reason no changes occur in the current position of men and women in a given society (Ibid). Strategic needs, on the other hand, are using the possible means to eradicate various forms of subordination and discrimination against disadvantaged groups, whereby changing (and improving) women's position in society. Danida uses the international framework for the work on gender equality, which combines a right-based approach[11] with a development agenda by focusing on improving women's access to rights, resources and influence, which apply to the political, economic, legal and socio-cultural realms of life (Danida, 2004a:5-12). Empowerment is by Danida seen as a key condition (and therefore a mean and not a final goal of development) for "*enabling women to demand and make use of equal rights, resources and influences, and thus for gender equality. The concept implies that each individual acquires the ability to think and act freely, to make decisions and to fulfil his or her own potential as a full and equal member of society*" (Danida, 2004a:9). This notion of empowerment is closely related to common definitions of empowerment, as they usually stress people making decisions on matters, which are important in their lives and being able to carry them out (Mosedale, 2003:2). This also relates to the recognized work of Kabeer on empowerment. She believes that the ability to demand and exercise choice is made up of three interrelated and indivisible elements; *resources, agency* and *achievements* (Kabeer, 2002:15).[12]

Resources are the medium through which agency is exercised and the achievements refer to the outcomes of agency. Resources should be widely understood and can be material, social and human, as their purpose is to enhance people's ability to exercise choice. Examples of resources can be; access to and control over; credit, employment, land, basic services, education, information, knowledge, various tools etc. However, resources by themselves do not create any changes, and this is a key aspect of empowerment, namely; to alter the way that people (women) view themselves; their capacity for action and challenge contemporary power relations. Agency is the process through which empowerment is fostered. Agency is both observable action in the exercise of choice, decision-making, protest, bargaining and negotiation as well as the meaning, motivation and purpose that individuals bring to their actions and sense of agency, which is related to how they see and are seen by their immediate kin and society.[13] Thereby agency takes a positive, active and transformative form, but more negative, passive or status quo forms might also occur. For example, when there are no alternatives or limited socially acceptable choices such as dominating or

---

[11] It argues that all people are entitled to universal human rights, and development should be orientated to meeting these rights. A rights perspective politicises needs similar to strategic needs above. Its main challenge is to balance between building individual capacity to claim rights and institutions' ability to respond accountable (Rao and Kelleher, 2005:62).

[12] The strong focus on the ability to make choice is due to her operationalization of power, but she recognizes other ways and interpretations. When systematically viewing studies on empowerment, she found that they differ in their way of treating power; as an attribute of individuals or a property of structures. Also, how they conceptualize social change, or at which analytical levels or societal dimensions they choose to look at vary greatly (Kabeer, 2002:21).

[13] In contexts where households are organized along more corporate lines, women's efforts may mostly be put in maintaining their marriage and strengthening the cooperative dimensions of life. To the outside eye this might seem, as women putting the needs of others before their own, which is a more "altruistic" form of agency (Kabeer, 2002:43-44). This shows the methodological problems related to values and meaning interpretation, which is very applicable in the study of empowerment, as contexts are very determining in shaping its processes, content and possible outcomes.

suppressing others, choosing not to act and/or choosing against ones own wishes and interests not to be socially excluded, or to ensure the survival and happiness of the family before one's own could be solutions. The final aspect is the outcomes and consequences of agency; the achievement part. It should transform inequalities in the individuals' resources and agency rather than reinforce these gender imbalances or leaving them unchallenged (Kabeer, 2003:169-180), (Kabeer, 2002:13-46). But empowerment is not only an individual struggle for gender equality, because collective action is an important mean to exercise political pressure and a route through which changes at the micro level can be institutionalized at the societal level. The logic of this approach to empowerment seems to be that access to and control over a variety of resources impacts women's agency in renegotiating their gender related roles in ways that have implications for the larger renegotiation of the patriarchal order of society. A further rationale is also the snow-ball effect, namely that changes at one level and/or dimension of life will bring about change in another (Kabeer, 2003:193-194). However, there are some major critics to this logic of social transformation, which builds very much on social movement theories. It is namely *too dependent* on agency and the strength of civil society to act out, whereby leaving out the constraining nature of social structures and state authority on actors' freedom to take action and possibility to manoeuvre politically speaking.

Rao and Kelleher argue that for the promise of social transformation and gender equality to materialize we must come to ideas like empowerment, rights, and citizenship with new eyes and a more overtly political analysis, as transformation fundamentally is both a political and personal process. The changes - (improvements for women) - *must take place across four clusters*, which all interrelate. 1; <u>Women and men's individual consciousness</u>, 2; <u>Women's objective conditions</u>, 3; <u>Informal norms</u> such as inequitable ideologies, and discriminatory cultural and religious practices, and 4; <u>Formal institutions</u> e.g. laws and policies can be established to help promote equality or combat existing gender related inequalities. Two key points can be drawn from this approach to social transformation. *First*, changes in resources, capacities and knowledge are necessary but not sufficient, because we cannot be sure that a change made at one level or in one livelihood dimension in fact will accumulate other changes. *Second*, transformation of formal and informal institutions are required, as well as people's will to make changes (Rao and Kelleher, 2005:59-62).

In addition, Oakley points out that in many development studies participation, democratisation and capacity building[14] are seen as sources of empowerment as well (Mosedale, 2003:11). Participation, however, can be conducive or adverse to empowering people, all depending on whether it has an instrumental or more democratic form. The former uses the knowledge, skills, and ideas of locals to improve project activities and achieve better project performance. This implies that local people are informed and consulted, but not included in analysis and decision-making processes, as is the case in the latter approach. Here the goal is to transform individual's consciousness and decision-making powers by involving locals in all aspects of the project cycle, which should result in greater self-reliance and responsibility for their own development and life choices. Although such a distinction between participation as a mean or an end can be beneficiary analytically speaking, it looses value

---

[14] Capacity Building (CB) has a diverse range of meanings in the development literature, but it is generally seen as a certain approach to development, and therefore not something separate from it. Capacity building can be seen as *means*, *ends* and/or *processes* of development, which imply different purposes and areas of CB. As means it is about building the needed capacity e.g. skills, knowledge etc. in order to implement and conduct activities better, which has to do with better project performance. Capacity building as ends, on the other hand, concerns the strengthening of stakeholders to participate in political and socio-economic arenas. The process perspective includes the fostering of debate, relationship building, conflict solving and self-reliance, for which reason it is an important part of promoting empowerment (Eade, 1997:24, 32-35). But in reality CB efforts often combine these different views e.g. CB as means, ends and/or processes.

in practice, as participation often is pursued with different purposes and at various stages in the project cycle and societal levels simultaneously. Also, in aid practices there are some limitations on whom, how and why people participate or not. Finally, it should also be noted that participatory development practices also carry certain costs and risks e.g. project delays due to negotiations and/or stakeholder conflicts, and extra staff skills and resources to deal with them, problems of representation, extensive work burdens on locals, and the over-involvement of less experienced people etc. (Mikkelsen, 2005:58-60, 278-281), (Oakley, 1995:1-6, 10), (Oakley, 1991:14). Some other goals[15] of development and women and feminist agendas have been termed; equity and equality. These concepts are frequently used interchangeably, for which reason I briefly will outline their conceptual differences as understood by Danida. Equity is by Danida conceptualized as fairness and justice in the distribution of benefits and responsibility between men and women (Danida, 2008:18). Danida defines gender equality as; "(i) *Equality under the law*, (ii) *Equality of opportunity* (including gender equality of rewards for work, and gender equality in access to human capital and other productive resources that enable opportunity and (iii) *Equality in terms of political and economic influence* (including the ability to influence and contribute to the overall development process)" (Danida, 2004a:12). In addition to this, some elements of empowerment has been added to the understanding of gender equality as well, namely; that human beings are free to develop their personal abilities and make choices without the limitations set to them by strict gender roles. All these aspects including different behaviour, aspirations, and needs of both men and women are considered, valued and favoured equally; it is claimed by Danida (Danida, 2008:18).

However, what do these concepts mean, when they are related to local settings in rural areas in Uganda and Vietnam, which are the main contexts within which my study object will be examined as outlined in the problem formulation. This leads me to a brief discussion of the terms local and rural, as they can be understood within a developmental framework and practice in Danish ODA.

The terms rural, rurality and rural development have according to Moseley to do with local context, which implies addressing local concerns and adding value to local resources e.g. human, material, symbolic, social, financial etc., with the intension of local actors – people, groups or agencies increasing their ability and readiness to influence their own development (Moseley, 2003:1-9, 208-215). But then the question is; how local is local then? And in what way and to what extent is the local focus insufficient, when taking into account that no man lives on an island as well as no community lives in a vacuum, for which reason links to external markets, institutions and networks may be a part of local and rural development as well (Ibid). What do rural and rural areas imply in development countries like Uganda and Vietnam? There is no real consensus or established bench marks on the term rural and rural areas. Some scholars have defined rural areas as; those with low population density containing scattered dwellings, hamlets, villages and small towns, and they can have specific characteristic in relations to land use, economic and social structures. However, it is important to remember that the concept of rurality can vary a lot in industrial and non-industrial contexts, for which reason population numbers might be higher in some developing countries as well as the degree of remoteness, accessibility to and geographical size of the rural areas etc.

Moseley's definition of rural development is therefore; "*a sustained and sustainable process of economic, social, cultural and environmental change designed to enhance the long-term well-being*

---

[15] The national development goals and international commitments especially related to women that Danida subscribe to are; CEDAW, Population Conference in Cairo, PFA from Beijing and the MDGs, emphasizes gender equality, women's empowerment and anti-discrimination (Danida, 2004a:10). Therefore, I found it very important to operationalize women's empowerment and gender equality, both in the light of Danida's GE strategy and recognized academic work.

of the whole community" (Ibid).[16] Sustainability means in this example long-term improvements for decades, rather than just a few years. In order to obtain sustainable development Danida works methodologically within the paradigms of participation, empowerment and capacity building as previously mentioned, because these methods are believed to foster ownership and true commitments, which again will bring about more long-terms effects and benefits for communities.

Also, the concept of community based management system and planning needs to be defined briefly. Although, the terminology might be of newer origin, the ideas and principles are not. In fact, CBMS has similarities to the Danish co-operative movement and its core principles e.g. self-governance, solidarity and one man one vote etc. However, community based management systems are also used for non-economic and commercial purposes like in the (rural) water and sanitation sector in order to promote ownership and enhance maintenance issues and get better operation etc.

2.A List of country informants and respondents

2.1 Participants from or working in Denmark and their line of expertise;

Mr. Nielson; Danish Development Minister from 1994-1999 and in 2000 EU Commissar etc.
Mrs. Degn; Feminist and former Danish Development Minister from 1993-1994 etc.
Mr. Lauritszen; Development Spokes Person for the liberal party "Venstre", 2007-ongoing.
Mrs. Krogh; former Danida Board member from 1996-2005 and current consultant at Cowi etc.
Mr. Bernt Hansen; Professor and former Chairperson of the Danida Board from 1996-2007 etc.

Mr. Hommelgaard; Senior Adviser for water and sanitation at TAS - MFA since 1996, (WB etc.).
Mrs. Holm Andersen; Ph.D in female orientated aid + employee at Danida's Evaluation Unit.
Mr. Mørch Jensen; Focal point & main responsible for gender and gender equality at TAS – MFA,
Mrs. Abel; Head of the Department of Equality and Welfare in Denmark, incl. council member.

Mrs. Jørgensen; Freelance consultant and counsellor for Danida and gender expert.
Mrs. Sørensen; Consultant and been stationed in Uganda on gender issues and expertise.
Mrs. Steen Pedersen; Consultant at ASP Consult and Gender adviser for many ministries.
Mrs. Poulsen; Member of Women's Council in Denmark and Ph.D on gender mainstreaming.
Mrs. Førde; Spokes Person for KULU and member of several gender forums for decades etc.
Mrs. Yde-Andersen; Coordinator for Gender Net from 2007 – a forum for NGOs in Denmark.
Mrs. Lauritzen; Consultant at ProjectAid and has done a lot of research and talks on gender.
Mr. Vithner; Chief Secretary for ProjectAid and involved in the aid business for many years.

2.2 Participants from or working in Uganda and their line of expertise;

Mrs. Byanyima; UNDP's Gender Team in New York and wife of Museveni's opposition.
HRH Sylvia Nagginda Luswata, Queen of the Kingdom Buganda and Head of a charity foundation.
Mrs. Zerupa, Gender Researcher and Ph.D, who was involved in HASH of ASPS I, Kampala.

---

[16] One could ask, whether it is justifiable, to include a definition of rural development, which Danida does not operate with. But as Danida has not defined the concept well, although operating ASPS and WSPS within this framework, I felt it necessary to make a definition, which takes into account both my own focus on women's well-being, cultural and social changes, but also Danida's multi-purpose aid objectives of sustainable improvements in gender relations, AIDS/ HIV, environmental and financial conditions. Besides these objectives, there are the policy goals of poverty alleviation, good governance and democratisation, including all the signed international agreements as previously mentioned.

Mrs. Nora; Country Director of Wougnet, a gender and women's network organisation, Kampala,
Mrs. Kamanyi; Gender consultant and policy advocate and involved with MS Uganda and networks
Mr. Muosi; Policy advicer for ACFODE for 6 years, a well established NGO on gender advocacy.
Mrs. Turner; Director of Mfumes, an organisation in Tororo districts that fights dowry and violence.
Mrs. Peace T. Kyamureku; Secretary General of NAWOU, a membership women's organisation.
Mrs. Asamo; Executive Director of NUDIPU (disabilities) and participants in several networks.

Mrs. Walder, Adviser at the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development since 1992.
Mrs. Andersen, Senior Adviser for Ministry of Local Governance & ASPS I + II in Uganda.
Mrs. Norslund, Senior Advisor for ASPS II at Agribusiness House in Kampala, Uganda
Mr. Jørgensen, TAS staff from 1998-2004 and former counsellor for ASPS I in Uganda/Vietnam

LC1, water and agricultural officers at district levels and several farmers were interviewed as well, (primarily in the Central, Southern and Eastern Regions, with other research covering the West).

2.3 Participants from or working in Vietnam & their line of expertise (excl. field data from 2007);

Mr. Baltzer Jørgensen; Development Counsellor for ASPS I + Design of ASPS II in Vietnam.
Mrs. Dollaris; Development Counsellor for ASPS II and I from 2006-2008 in Vietnam.
Mr. Baker; Danida Adviser for Post Pest Havest Component in ASPS I from 2004-2006.
Mr. Huus Bruun; Danida Adviser for Post Pest Havest Component in ASPS I from 2001-2003.
Mr. Karlsen; Component Manager for Integrated Pest Management in ASPS I from 2002-2004.
Mr. Henriksen; Component Manager for Integrated Pest Management in ASPS I from 2005-2007.
Mr. Tang Dalsgård, Adviser for the Small Livestock Component in ASPS I from 2000-2005.
Mrs. Tarp; Senior Adviser for the Seed Component in ASPS I from 2000-2003 in Vietnam.

Mr. Rødel Berg; Senior Counsellor for WSPS II in Vietnam, from 2007-2009 (Dak Lak area).
Mr. Pham Thanh Hai; Director of the North Vietnam College and Rural Development, Vietnam.
Mr. Jacquemin; Senior Adviser for NTP II RWSS (Northern Cluster), Vietnam.
Mr. Flanders; Consultant (part time) for NTP II RWSS, An Giang and Tra Vinh Provinces.
Mr. Bui Van Truong; Researcher for Water Quality Testing and Environment at the National Institute of Occupational and Environmental Health in Vietnam.
Mrs. Doan Y. Uyen; Partime Planner for IEC (Information, Education and Communication), Vietnam.

1x fieldwork research from Bac Kan Province in the North of Viet Nam, conducted in 2007, but supported by Danida research in 2002 and impact studies in 2007, and FAO and UNIFEM research.

2.AA Anonymity and Confidentiality

The reason why, all the informants and respondents have remained anonymous in this thesis by not mentioning their names after their statements, is that they were so promised. In addition, it is good practice to protect resource weaker informants e.g. farmers and villagers in rural areas, as they might not be able to understand the consequence of their statements or protect them against them. However, as many of my informants are used for expert interviews, it is problematic to keep their identity hidden, for which reason their names, occupation and fields of expertise are outlined above.

2.4 NGO AND CIVIL SOCIETY INTERVIEW GUIDE IA[17]

Gender Mainstreaming design and advocacy

1. What are some of the challenges you are facing at policy level in order to get gender messages across?
2. Danida's Gender Equality Strategy was discussed at KULU's meeting in 2003, so what where some of the issues raised and areas for improvement mentioned?
3. At KULU's meeting you also discussed, how the gender message is sold, and how the gender equality taboo is broken, so what where your main conclusions?

Gender Mainstreaming knowledge and meaning

4. Some of the research has shown that it is not enough to focus on the women; the men must be involved as well in order to change gender relations, so what is your view on that issue?
5. In your judgement what are the differences between the various government parties in relations to their approach to gender equality work, both nationally and internationally?
6. Why are many governmental organisations so careful about working with mind set changes?
7. How should gender mainstreaming be introduced at various levels of aid practices?

Gender Mainstreaming tools and barriers

8. So in relations to gender mainstreaming what are some of the knowledge and concrete tools that your members are requiring you to help them with?
9. Trying to change ideas and values it surely not easy, but what about the radio as a media source, it has been successful in getting other messages across in rural areas?
10. If you should identify forces in your country that are directly or indirectly inhibiting the goals of women's empowerment and gender equality, who or what would that be?

Effects and impacts of gender mainstreaming initiatives

11. What kind of symbolic meaning and effect, if any, do you feel that initiatives like the MDG3 campaign, giving out torches, workshops and news paper articles might have?
12. Internationally speaking Denmark is often seen as leading in relations to gender equality initiatives, why do you think that is?

Stakeholders view of Danida's gender equality and mainstreaming work

13. So in your experience which donors and agents are the most progressive in relations to promoting women's empowerment and gender issues?
14. Which gender areas should be prioritised more in Danish development aid?
15. Denmark has this year call to action for MDG3 with a focus on women's economic empowerment, capacity building and the inclusion of the private sector, so which barriers and advantages do you see in this approach to achieving MDG3?

---

[17] This interview guide overview only represents a sample of the questions asked to over 15 civil society representatives from the different countries. To get an impression of all the questions asked (50) please see appendix III on the CD. The selected questions do give a general idea of the main theme of the interviews, where specific and factual data is left out.

2.5 POLICY LEVEL INTERVIEW GUIDE IB[18]

Personal level of involvement and knowledge

1. In your time as (development minister, Danida Board member, politician etc), which conferences, seminars and work tasks or other gender equality arrangements have you participated in?

Historical background and different country roads in relations to gender equality!

2. The international gender equality work has for a long time been an integrated part of Danish foreign politics, why is it so central for Denmark to promote this image?
3. Reproductive and sexual rights, which sometimes are sensitive issues, are from a Danish point of view seen as central in the fight for equality, why is this?
4. Why has quotas been accepted as a driving force in some countries and in others not?

International conferences and gender platforms

5. In Beijing in 1995 it was decided that GAD was the official approach to agree upon and continue with, and what were the reservations and advantages expressed at the time?
6. Also, at Beijing 189 countries sign PFA and two years later 70 % had national action plans, why was there a breakthrough made at this particular conference?
7. What has been some of the main contributions of other conferences to the gender cause?

Different approaches in aid practice to achieving MDG3 and gender equality

8. In the government policy paper; *a world for all*, it is stated that the funds for women will increase, but not exactly how, except budgets for education, water and sanitation + B2B?
9. So why these focus areas and not the agricultural sector, which many people depend on?
10. Why are micro credits for women much more popular than altering mind sets?

Danida's gender mainstreaming and equality efforts, successes and failures?

11. In your opinion which areas have Danida had most and less success with in terms of gender equality measures?
12. At the international scene which accomplishments have Denmark made for equality?

Future directions and possible roads to take?

13. What would it take in your opinion to make progress on gender equality measures?
14. Are the areas that need more or less attention or new paths to explore?
15. Why is there such a focus on Africa now?
16. Now there has been this focus on MDG3 with some initiatives from Denmark e.g. conferences, torches and activities in some of our donor countries, but how will this be followed-up in order to make sure that the support continues?

---

[18] These questions were mainly asked to politicians and Danida Board members, but other actors at the international scene are relevant as well, because in practice many within the field of development wear many caps simultaneously.

2.6 IMPLEMENTATION LEVEL INTERVIEW GUIDE IC[19]

Personal experience and sector knowledge

1. So could you please tell me about your job function and experience in this sector?

Targeting the most vulnerable groups in agriculture and water and sanitation!

2. Sometimes the poorest and most marginalized ethnic and social groups (women, the young and singles, including widows etc.) are the hardest to reach in sectors like agriculture, because they lack the crucial preconditions e.g. land, resources, time or have other social problems. So what has been done in order to deal with this issue?
3. Sometimes it seems to me that some components of ASPS are not directly designed to target the poor, although poverty reduction is a main priority. So is the trade offs and trickle down effects so substantial that they are still justifiable in poverty alleviation terms? Or does the whole modernisation of the agricultural sector play a more important role?
4. What were and is in your experience the biggest difficulties in involving the women in agricultural programs, and how can they be dealt with?
5. Is there sometimes due to resource and time constrains a minimum of female participated or none that must be accepted in reality?
6. The specific focus on poultry, chicken and duck in the small livestock component was this a deliberate attempt to make it a women's program or very female orientated?

Implementation and gender mainstreaming processes of sector programmes

7. What do you see as some of the major challenges in order to mainstream gender?
8. Behind these gender roles often lie very integrated and institutional social and cultural practices and beliefs, so do you as a Danida counsellor or extension workers have the tools and skills to sell the idea to partners and the locals, both men and women that these are benefits when including women more?
9. In your opinion do people working within the agricultural sector believe that it is their task to help secure gender equality in terms of loosing the sometimes tight defined gender roles?
10. As Danida claims to subscribe to SEAGA or other similar tools, I was wondering whether to your knowledge any gender analysis were done in terms of women and men's different interests, needs and work related problems?
11. In the PPH-C some training courses where scheduled at night in order to accommodate women's ability to participate, but where other measures taken like reducing their current work burdens or time by making them more effective or involving the men to help them?

---

[19] In terms of Danish ODA, as previously mentioned, implementation is a somewhat confusing concept to deal with. Because due to budget aid, programme support and national institutional and governmental structures, there are many units and persons that gender mainstreaming must past through until actually implementation takes place in terms of concrete initiatives, practices etc. Therefore, a whole range of people have been interviewed in this category e.g. embassy staff, Danida counsellors and advisers, national government officials and local service providers + partners.

The political climate in and around the agricultural and water and sanitation sectors

12. What kind of institutional and political challenges are involved in your sector?
13. A delegation from Copenhagen come and the program was almost closed, could you please elaborate on what the disagreements were about and how they were solved?
14. The president shut down the program last year, what has this meant for your work?

Gender equality goals for and impacts of the agriculture and water and sanitation sectors

15. Some studies and W&S reviews have shown that the women at the community and district level face the greatest barriers, when they try to get actively involved in decision making processes by other women – older or with higher education, so my question is what there has been done to combat these issues?
16. However, sanitation is still considered a household issue, mainly a responsibility of the women, for which reason its priority remains low, so what actions are taken in order to deal with this problematic?
17. Often gender mainstreaming efforts do not go beyond; no of women trained, involved in decision making schemes or staff employed, why is that?
18. When you do research, read studies or reviews about the water and sanitation sectors it strikes me that common benefits are; a reduction in work hours and loads, especially for women and children, an improvement in household health and hygiene and eventual better schooling for children, as they don't have to walk long distances for water, which means that they are not tired. But is this gender equality?
19. Women remain having the main responsibility for household health and sanitation, but could this sector be a place, where such gender roles are discussed and expanded?
20. In the road sectors women have been involved with the technical work as well, why are hand pumps and technical work with latrines not being promoted like that?
21. It was mentioned that some of the trained farmers did not remain active (40 %), as they were given management positions within the communities. Did this also apply for the women, or how were their roles played out? And what else has this additional knowledge given the trainers?
22. It was quite impressive all that the IMP component achieved despite few resources. In the component report from 2007, it is mentioned that the impacts were; an income raise of a 100 USD, a reduction in different fertilizer usage, which probably also did the environment some good and gave some health benefits as well in terms of the quality of crops and women's reproductive abilities, or how do you see that?
23. It seems to me that many agricultural sector programmes focus on including the women in micro credits, training and income generating activities, but why stop there?
24. The reason why I ask is that in relations to gender mainstreaming and equality, then a new specific knowledge and increased income does not necessarily create more equal gender relations?
25. And then I was wondering why basic gender analysis about specific needs, interests and work related problems are not conducted in order to see, who does what, and how conditions could be improved. Couldn't there be discussions forums on gender role issues like the ones on HIV/AIDS?

2.7 IMPACT AND EVALUATION INTERVIEW GUIDE 1D[20]

Introduction; including who we are and why we are here!

This is Laila (translater speaking) from Denmark and she is a student doing research on Danish funded programs like (water and sanitation, HASP and NAADs etc.) Therefore, she is very interested in hearing; what you think, feel and wish for in connection with these programmes.

The data and information that you give her will only be used in her report and you will never be mentioned by name, only as a man or woman from this particular district, age and marital status.

Clarification and getting the facts right

First, we would like to clarify who has been involved in which programs and your reasons for getting involved?

Assessment of the sector programmes

(1).What was in your opinions the good things about the program?
(2). How could it be improved?
(3). Where there any negative things or consequences for you about the program?
(4). Did it live up to your expectations?
(5). Do you feel that the program has improved your lives in any way?
(6). Where you able to apply the skills that you have learnt in any way?
(7). Have the program in any way helped reduce or increase the total hours you work a day or make other tasks more efficient, so that you have more time for other tasks?
(8). Do you think that your status within the household and/or community has increased, fallen or stayed the same since you have participation in the program and why?
For example; can you participate more in decision-making within the HH or community now?

Well-being and other welfare issues

Lastly, we would like to talk to you about your well-being and your role within the household and community, for example do you think that it has improved or how? And what about the understanding between you and your spouse and family relations, how are they now, any changes?

People excluded or not participating directly in the sector programmes

First, identifying who are not involved in the program, and why this is and select informants!
What do you know about the program? Would you like to join, if you had the time or resources?
So what about your wife could she participate instead?
If these financial obligations were not there, which income generating activities would you have liked to have participated in then? And what else would you need in your every day life?
How is the workloads and decision making divided between husband and wife in your households?
So what is a happy life for a man and for a woman then? Any questions you like to ask me?

---

[20] This interview guide, which has been used for both focus group discussions and face-to-face interviews, is only for the rural population groups directly involved or excluded from the agricultural and WSS sector programmes in Uganda. For Vietnam a different methodology was applied in 2007 for which reason secondary studies for impact was used.

2.8 QUESTIONNAIRE AND INTERNET SURVEY 1E

Welcome to the Gender Mainstreaming Survey for Danida staff, partners, funded projects and programs and Danish MFA personnel. The survey is a part of a Master Thesis about Danida's Gender Equality Strategy from 2004 at Aalborg University and the Development and International Relations Program. Therefore, answering this survey would be very helpful to me. Thank you very much.

HOW DO WE ACHIEVE MDG3? - AND HOW DO WE BECOME THE BEST GENDER EQUALITY AND WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT PERFORMERS? If you want an answer to these *very important questions*, please complete this survey.

(1). What is your sex?

(1) ❏ Female

(2) ❏ Male

(2). What is your national citizenship? Please mention your country of birth, residence and the country stated in your passport;

_____

_____

_____

(3). To which age group do you belong? Please only choose one;

(1) ❏ 18-30

(2) ❏ 31-40

(3) ❏ 41-50

(4) ❏ 51-60

(5) ❏ 61-70

(6) ❏ 71+

(4). What is your highest level of education or vocational training? Please explain briefly;

_____

_____

_____

Now we will move along to more work related issues and questions. *Please continue*, thank you.

(5). What is the name of the institution or organization that you work for;

_____

(6). What is your work title and main job responsibilities? Please explain briefly;

_____

_____

(7). How many hours on average do you work a week?

_____

(8). How satisfied are you with your job?

	Very much so	To some degree	Average	Less satisfied	Dissatisfied	I don't know
Relations to colleges	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Salery and benefits	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Clear and relevant assignments	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Responsive and supportive supervision	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
I utilize all my abilities	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
It makes me proud and happy	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑

(9). Have you participated in any gender related courses, e-learning courses and/or seminars?

(1)   ❑ Yes

(2)   ❑ No

(3) ❑ I don't know

(10). How familiar do you feel with these different gender related issues?

	Very well	Well	Good	Poorly	Very poorly
Gender mainstreaming	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑
Gender budgeting	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑
Gender equality	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑
Gender roles	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑
Gender equity	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑
Strategic needs	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑
Gender relations	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑
Practical needs	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑
Gender analysis	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑
Gender audit	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑
Affirmative action	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑
Masculinity	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑
Sex-disaggregated data	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑

NB; Every time you are asked to consider something in relations to *your country*, and your nationality differs from that of where you live and work, please answer in relation to the country where you currently work, Thank you.

(11). In which country do you work?

(1) ❑ Denmark

(2) ❑ Uganda

(3) ❑ Vietnam

(4) ❑ Other_____

(12). How much priority do you think that your government (meaning the government of the country in which you work) gives to the different policy areas listed below?

	Top Priority	High Priority	Medium	Low Priority	Very Low	I Don't Know
Trade	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑

	Top Priority	High Priority	Medium	Low Priority	Very Low	I Don't Know
Environment	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Gender equality issues	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Democracy	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
National security	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Education	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Health	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Human rights	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Poverty reduction	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Financial policy	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Economic growth	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Employment opportunities	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑

(13). How much priority do you think that your work place gives to the areas listed below?

	Top Priority	High Priority	Medium	Low Priority	Very Low	Not Relevant
Democracy	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Gender equality	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Environment	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Good governance	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Human rights	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Poverty reduction	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Employment opportunities	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Business sector	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Capacity building	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Covering practical needs (e.g. credits, health care,	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑

	Top Priority	High Priority	Medium	Low Priority	Very Low	Not Relevant
reducing labour time and burdens, water provision, increasing incomes)						

(14). If you should identify the most influential actors within the field of gender equality and women's empowerment in the country where you work, *who would that be?* (NB; Actors can be both institutions or organizations e.g. CBOs, NGOs, IOs, INGOs etc. and/or individual persons).

_____

_____

(15). If you should identify forces e.g. groups of people, institutions and/or cultural practices in your country that directly or indirectly work against achieving women's empowerment and gender equality, who or what would that be? Please elaborate;

_____

_____

(16). To what degree do you feel that different civil society groups are able to affect state policies and/or actions in your country? (Meaning the country where you currently work)

	Very high degree	High degree	Medium	Low	Very low	I don't know
The media	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Religious groups	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Women's groups or organizations	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Research institutions	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
International donors	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
The business sector	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Non-governmental organizations (NGOs)	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Civil based organizations (CBOs)	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑

(17). Are there any other individuals and/or groups - not mentioned above that can affect state policies and/or actions in the country where you currently work? If yes, please explain briefly;

_____

_____

(18). Danida - Danish International Development Assistance has been in your country for several years. Have you at some point worked for or in cooperation with Danida, or are you in other ways familiar with Danida's work?

(1) ❑ Yes

(2) ❑ No

(3) ❑ I don't know

(19). What do you think are the biggest developmental contributions that Danida has made to your country (meaning the country where you currently work) over the years? Please rate all the areas mentioned below;

	Very Big	Big Contributions	Medium	Low Contributions	Very Low	I Don't Know
Infrastructure (e.g. roads, communication systems etc.)	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Water and Sanitation	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Health	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Agriculture	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Education	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Employment Opportunities	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Business Sector	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Fisheries	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Democratic Reforms	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Human Rights Improvements	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑
Environmental	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑

	Very Big	Big Contributions	Medium	Low Contributions	Very Low	I Don't Know
Improvements						
Gender Equality Progress	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑

(20). There can be several barriers and difficulties involved when working towards gender equality and women's empowerment! What kind of barriers have you experienced?

	Yes, very often	Yes, often	Yes, sometimes	Yes, but seldom	No, not really	No, on the contrary	I don't know
Lack of financial resources	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑	(7) ❑
Lack of time	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑	(7) ❑
Lack of management support	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑	(7) ❑
Lack of knowledge and skills	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑	(7) ❑
Lack of specific skills on how to translate gender knowledge into practice	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑	(7) ❑
Lack of cooperation from partner organizations and/or staff	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑	(7) ❑
Lack of cooperation from colleagues	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑	(7) ❑
Lack of personal incentives- does it even help?	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑	(7) ❑
Lack of feedback on my	(1) ❑	(2) ❑	(3) ❑	(4) ❑	(5) ❑	(6) ❑	(7) ❑

	Yes, very often	Yes, often	Yes, sometimes	Yes, but seldom	No, not really	No, on the contrary	I don't know
work							
Lack of visible effects of my work	(1) ❏	(2) ❏	(3) ❏	(4) ❏	(5) ❏	(6) ❏	(7) ❏
Conservative or negative attitudes from people	(1) ❏	(2) ❏	(3) ❏	(4) ❏	(5) ❏	(6) ❏	(7) ❏
Difficulties in convincing partners and/or beneficiaries about the importance of gender equality	(1) ❏	(2) ❏	(3) ❏	(4) ❏	(5) ❏	(6) ❏	(7) ❏

(21). Many studies on gender mainstreaming have found that gender issues and concerns often are forgotten in planning and implementation! Why do you think that is? Please elaborate

_____

_____

(22). Are there any other barriers and/or good practices, which this study has failed to include? If yes, please explain;

_____

----

(23). Finally, what would you need in order to perform better on gender equality and women's empowerment indicators? Please elaborate;

_____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR ANSWERING THIS SURVEY. IT IS HIGHLY APPRECIATED.

If you would like a personal PDF copy of the finished report, please supply me with your e-mail address. All personal related data is at all times treated <u>with total</u> confidentiality and anonymity, Thank you.

_____

2.C Concluding remarks about the field

Much has already been written about the empirical data in the method section, for which reason this section will not be a repetition of already mention points and arguments. Instead, it is the case of theory versus practice, meaning that events have occurred and alterations have been made, which needs to be reflected here briefly. This especially applies for the internet based survey, gate keeper factors and the fieldtrip to Vietnam.

The internet based survey and questionnaire

It takes up a great deal of space in the method section in comparison to the other methods, which is due to several factors. The initial intension was to make a statistical analysis as well, because the empirical data and studies, as outlined in the thesis introduction section, documents a wide range of different implementation problems, but they do not state, which ones are minor and more significant factors. Also, what causes what is at the present time a qualified guess at best, as causality has never been determined. Therefore, it would have been beneficiary to discovery which variables that really counts in bilateral aid in terms of implementing gender mainstreaming better. However, I have encountered several barriers in this aspect. First of all, some of my gate keepers have not been able to help me, as I had hoped for. This means that I have not been able to get official access to embassy staff and Danish partner organisation. The reason given is a lack of time and resources, which is understandable but regrettable and unfortunate. As a back up plan I had intended to use Care staff members, as Care Denmark has offices in both Uganda and Vietnam and they work with resource management, agriculture and water and sanitation to some extend. Also, I know the organisation from within due to my internship with Care Vietnam in 2007 and work as storyteller for Care Denmark. However, as people are very busy, I have not been able to get confirmations in time, for which reason this plan B must be abandoned as well. As compensation I have conducted additional telephone interviews and gotten some Danida counsellors and partners to answer the survey. But as the number of respondents do not suffice to make meaningful statistical analysis, maybe except for a fisher exact test, this will not be pursued. In addition, both the agricultural and water and sanitation sectors should have been covered in order to meet the requirements of a comparative design. Therefore, the survey responses have been used in a more qualitative way.

The fieldtrip to Vietnam

The ambition was to conduct two fieldtrips in 2008, one to Uganda and one to Vietnam. The former was completed in June 2008, but the latter could not take place due to a lack of funding. However, in 2007 I spent 6 months in the North and Mountainous areas of Vietnam, as a part of my internship assignment for Care Denmark. In this connection I have collected a wide range of data and done research on gender mainstreaming and equality issues, which I believe can be used in this thesis. However, some reservations must be taken, as the farmers interviewed in 2007 do not specifically represent Danida's target group, as it was a Care project. Therefore, evaluation and impact related questions do not make sense to utilize. Instead, I believe that the data material on what gender relations and (in)equality means among different ethnic minorities groups can serve as case examples. Because these ethnic minority groups are similar to the main target group in Danida's ASPS II and in WSPS II they are supposed to be targeted as well. Cultural and gender differences exist between the North and South of Vietnam, but also between the different ethnic minority groups, which there are 54 of in Vietnam. Therefore, strict gender generalizations cannot be based on my research alone and will be supplemented with agricultural research from FAO and UNIFEM.