## UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI

#### INSTITUTE OF AFRICAN STUDIES

WOMEN'S INVISIBLE ROLES AS NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGERS IN UGANDA A CASE OF BUGANGA SUB-LOCATION, MASASKA DISTRICT, UGANDA.

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FOR A PGD IN GENDER AND DEVELOPEMENT.

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#### **DECLARATION**

I the undersigned declare that this project is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

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seemed hard, for all the assistance and encouragement, God bless u dearly. My sisters

and Brothers for their encouragement, love u all and thanks alot

#### Dedicated to:

My Father and Mother

## The Principle of Persistence

"ask, and keep on searching, and it will be given to you,:
search, and keep on searching, and you will find,
knock and keep on knocking, and the door will be opened to you"

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# Chapter 1

# INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background

In rural Uganda women (and not men) are indeed the (invisible) managers of natural resources. These resources include land, water, forests and wildlife. Rural women are comparatively poor and uneducated and do not hold monthly paying jobs and therefore are commonly referred to as housewives (Boserup, 1989). Nevertheless, these women are great sustainers of rural micro-economic activities. However, their impact on this is significant due to their indigenous knowledge on, the management of natural resources such as land, water, forests and wildlife(kinuthia, 1993). Women are also important, because their traditional gender roles bring them in direct contact with these natural resources. There is a growing debate about gender and the environment which highlights women's roles in the use and management of natural resources (Braidotti et al. 1994). This debate has stimulated much development analysis and created greater awareness of the activities of women farmers. There are dangers in conceiving of women's roles in relation to the environment in a partial, narrow, or static way. Seeing women as isolated environmental actors, separate from men, with an innate understanding of Nature can be very misleading. Current development policy initiatives are often based on this essentialist assumption that women's relationship with the environment is special and, therefore, women are particularly interested in and capable of protection of the environment. Such a view enables policy makers to argue that projects aimed at sustaining the environment will also benefit women, and vice versa. This synergistic approach can be seen as creating both a trap and an opportunity.

At the level of rhetoric and debate, it is widely understood that women, in their productive and reproductive roles, have close links with the environment in many countries and that they are often among the first to be affected by resource degradation. However, policy makers do not always appreciate the diversity and complexity of the relationship between women and the environment, resulting in unexpected failures in development projects. For example, a tree-planting project in Ethiopia, using women as labour, was seen by the funding agency as both improving the environment by reducing soil erosion and also assisting women by providing employment and additional firewood. Local women, on the other hand, see the tree planting as increasing their burden of work without improving their lives because men controlled the land and the trees (Berhe 1994). Thus an understanding of both property rights and the complexity of gender divisions of labour is vital to an appreciation of the link between women and the environment.

To many poor rural farmers, women in the rural are as sustained by natural resources because they use these resources to feed their families. Thus when the World Environmental Protection and Conservation policies advocate for protection without any form of use, while ignoring rural women, they become the greatest victims of such a policy.

Women constitute over half of the rural population. Women 's activities range from family economic activities to running of homes and rural development projects. They are also a more appropriate group to target for cultural and social changes. Their activities in development and family care put them in the central position regarding impacts to land and other natural resources (Joekes, 1987). Population increase leads to Destruction of forests, riparian habitats and other sensitive areas arise from increase of population. To be able to control population, improve rural development, and to protect natural resources, the role of women is critical. On the other hand the natural resources like; wildlife, forests, wetlands, land, water and fisheries are decreasing.

#### 1.2 Problem Statement

Uganda's economic growth relies on efficient management of resources such as land, water, soils, forests and wildlife. There is a growing debate about gender and the environment which highlights women's roles in the use and management of natural resources (Braidotti, 1994). Most of these resources are exploited directly by the poor people in the rural areas in an attempt to meet their basic needs. The poor people are women subsistence farmers. These farmers demonstrate that they 'manage' natural resources as they endeavor to meet their basic needs and those of their families, in a fast changing world that is introducing new laws, guidelines, management practices for natural resources.

Women's participation in the utilization and management of natural resources must be seen in the broader context of their access to productive assets and resources. Agricultural lands have become unproductive as a result of deforestation, overgrazing, political instability and poor irrigation practices. Rehabilitation of degraded lands can proceed in a sustainable way only if the needs of poor people living in degraded lands are taken into account. This requires a detailed understanding of women's local knowledge systems, resource utilization, and income-generating opportunities. Land and water are key resources in this process (Maringa, 1993).

Usually we may see women's involvement in natural-resource management primarily from the perspective of their roles in social reproduction (Green and Baden, 1995) site about women's role in "providing, managing and safeguarding water" for use by the family. Because household water provision is still a female responsibility in most African societies, governments have tended to assume that women's interest in water is concentrated in having access to convenient, reliable, and safe source close to the homestead. Further, because women are seen as having first-line responsibility for the maintenance of family health, they are thought to have a special interest in, and responsibility for, natural resources. Although both assumptions have some validity, they fail to capture women's equally pressing needs for natural resources like land and water as a resource to enable them to engage in economic production, whether in agriculture, in micro enterprise, or in

other income-generating areas.

Although research in the 1990s demonstrated that African women are active participants in economic development, there has been relatively little systematic factoring of gender considerations into resource-allocation decisions. Despite substantial evidence of the economic profitability of this approach, traditional assumptions about the domestic roles of women continue to guide policy makers. Current processes are undermining women's ability to use and conserve scarce land and water resources sustainably (Lewis,1994). Privatization, population pressure and the dissolution of customary land tenure have reduced the amount and quality of land available to rural communities. People are obliged to use land ill-suited for continuous cultivation in Uganda. This increases the rate of environmental degradation which deprives Ugandans of their livelihoods. land tenure reduces people's incentives to maintain soil quality because they have no permanent rights to the land. Access to land economically affects both men and women. Women face difficulties of having their requests for land mediated through men. Even the use of small plots must be granted by a husband. If women had their own plots, they are usually small, dispersed, remote and infertile plots.

When women do not own land, they often have no access to agricultural support services such as credit with which to purchase inputs, train in land and water development and irrigation. Interventions such as irrigation often fail to take into consideration the existing imbalance between men and women's ownership rights, division of labour, and incomes (united Nations/FAO document,1993). Women must be involved in policy-making and planning to ensure the most productive and efficient use of land and water resources to meet present and future food and agricultural demands. Women farmers need to be part of the planning and implementation of land and water management programmes, with full access to inputs and organizational arrangements. Equally important is the increased participation of women in training and extension activities that deal with soil resources and land-use planning, and in water conservation and development.

Natural resources have an aesthetic value to both men and women and on this note the research shall explore the following questions;

- 1. What are the different kinds of natural resources in this particular area?
- 2. Who uses, owns, manage and controls each of these natural resources?
- 3. Why have women's efforts in the management of natural resources still remained invisible?

#### 1.3 General objective

the general objective of this study is explore the evolution of the concepts of gender and development and to critically examine their underlying assumptions, (women's value in the maintenance of natural resources should be felt in the economy). It will involve coming up with policies that acknowledge women's invisible efforts especially in the management of natural resources and help women have equal access in the management and utilization natural resources.

#### 1.4 Specific Objectives

- (a) To analyse and discuss women's role as natural resource managers and highlight women's roles in the use and management of natural resources.
- (b) To re-examine the role of women's labour, both domestic and public in economic development, find out the role of gender in interpersonal power relations. (for example, Managing of Natural resources)
- (c) suggest strategies to be put in place in order to integrate gender concerns and perspectives of women in utilization and management of natural resources in Uganda.

#### 1.5 Ethical issues

The researcher endevoured to obtain information willingly from respondents. The study adhered to the code of ethics in conducting research. As such, the researcher expained to all the respondents the aim of the research, respect of their privacy and emphasized the need for free and open discussions with an informed consent of the informer. A letter of introduction was obtained from the university to enable the reasercher get access in various places that were visited. Confidentiality was observed and in case names where to be mentioned especially in the case of this study, pseudonyms were used in the report.

#### 1.6 Rationale of Study

This study is important because it seeks to find out the attitudes of the target population regarding assess to natural resources and the obstacles they face while trying to claim their rights to assess these resources. It is also met to assess the benefits of women's participation in natural resource management. To describe how utilization and management of natural resources can be of great importance to Ugandan women. Come up with strategies to be put in place in order to integrate gender concerns and perspectives of women in utilization and management of natural resources in Uganda. To come up with recommendations of how to improve the vise and further and further call for current development paradigms that have always put a lot of emphasis on equitable distribution of resources. (Both natural and man made resources) It is also a call for development planners, opinion leaders and human rights advocates to take into account the fair distribution of resources between the two genders for equal and balanced development. As a result these strategies could be used as gender sensitive ways of ensuring fair and balanced natural resource distribution and utilization between the two genders

# Chapter 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 introduction

The works on this subject of women as natural resource managers concentrates mainly on the level at which Ugandan women and their roles are invisibly acknowledged, not recognized and appreciated by the men. It is from different studies that women are seen to perform a lot of activities both at the household level and at the economic level.

Many factors come in to play when it comes to management of resources especially women as invisible natural resource managers in Uganda. One very big influence is the culture and custom of the people of Uganda. Customary law to this day has a profound impact on women's activities and the level at which they are recognized at the economic level.

The aim is to promote a sustainable relationship between people and their resources and to ensure secure livelihoods and management. Such incentives include secure land tenure arrangements, training and education, credit and employment in activities related to natural resource management. The establishment of strong village institutions with adequate representation of women farmers hence key to promoting successful natural resource management.

#### 2.2 Women as water managers

Issues concerning management and conservation of water resources are of great importance in Uganda. Women are usually very dependant on common property resources for water, firewood, compost for farm land and wild herb, mushrooms, fruits and nuts, as it is usually thier responsibility to ensure that the family is supplied with these goods(Swope 1995). There is therefore an increasing concern on impacts particularly on current and future provision of clean water as well as of conservation of forests as habitats for related biodiversity (Boserup,1989). Women are the main collectors and users of water in rural Uganda. They have to decide where to collect water, how to draw, transport and store it, how much water to draw, how many sources of water to exploit and for what purposes drinking, kitchen and other domestic use. In some cases where women can afford tanks, rainwater becomes a major source for drinking and other domestic use. In most areas, especially dry areas, women still depend on wells, springs, streams and rivers for water supply.

In this case, practices that compromise water from streams, underground and rivers directly affect the welfare of women. To have a steady supply of water in streams and rivers, all catchment and riparian vegetations need to be conserved. This ensures that the hydrological cycle continues, with feedbacks that involve evaporation, condensation, rain and runoffs. Stream and river sources should be conserved, as would be a cold source. This means that all agricultural practices as they involve deforestation and replacement of natural vegetation need to be discouraged in riparian and catchment areas.

Draining of wetlands or farming them for agricultural practices such as planting of rice should be discouraged if they will affect water quality, Quantity, distribution and supply. Women should be educated in the importance of conserving wetlands, riparian zones and catchment areas to ensure clean and reliable water supply for their current domestic use and future supplies. With increasing

number of women groups and their unique self-help projects, clean water availability and access is becoming the biggest item on women related-projects.

#### 2.3 Women as foresters

Apart from maintaining atmospheric balance, protection and maintenance of watersheds, protection of soils and water, and in providing habitats for endemic and rare forest related biodiversity, forests are important to women particularly in supplying fuel wood. Women use forests to supplement fuel and food sources from own land e.g. fuel wood as trees planted on farms and other agroforestry projects are owned by men, nuts and fibres, wild fruits, vegetables, tubers, honey and wild bush meat. Forests are also used for cultural and spiritual purposes and in provision of medicinal plants, which cater for most rural healthcare. In the past, before it became illegal to graze in natural forests, this was a popular use. Women care for livestock and this ban has meant that women spend time elsewhere looking for fodder or grazing on roadsides. Therefore, women have used forest products intimately and their conservation is tightly linked with their activities and gender roles, where women have legal right to land ownnership and inheritance, the plots of land they are able to control are generally the smallest, least accessible, and least fertile (Momsen 1988).

Since tropical forests hold some of the world's largest and unique biological resources, they are of great concern and interest to conservation organizations and Governments. Tropical forests are disappearing very fast and forest biodiversity seriously threatened. If women plant trees on family land in order to find a new cash- earning product and accessible firewood, as in the case of the shea-butter tree in Uganda, men see this as a declaration of land ownership and so uproot the trees (Rukaaka 1994). The close association of women

and forests as rural managers and users has brought women to the forefront of tropical forest conservation (Rocheleau,1985). Organized women groups are now fighting against deforestation especially where their users' rights are threatened. Women are also becoming very active in afforestation program (than men) and traditional farming is now being modified to incorporate agroforestry in an effort to bring resources (such as fuel wood) out of the forest to farms closer to homes where sustainable use can well be practiced. In fact a lot of women groups run tree seedling nurseries for income generally as well as own farm planting.

#### 2.3.1 Women as wildlife managers

Wildlife is a national heritage of immense economic, cultural, educational, ecological, scientific and ethical values. Rural women in Uganda use and conserve some of the wildlife resources on subsistence basis. With the banning of hunting in 1972, most women have clashed with law and enforcement organs when they have attempted to use wildlife resources on small consumptive areas have basically been carved from what used to be agricultural and pastoral native lands(Reynold, 1975). The ban on hunting and the costs of conservation (such as destruction of crops, property and even human life) has intensified human-wildlife conflicts all over Uganda. When lives are lost, crops raided, property destroyed, women, who form the majority of rural population, are the greatest victims.

In the face of diminishing land, increasing human populations surrounding conservation areas, such conflicts are bound to increase, but there are both challenges and opportunities here. There have been innovations such as national compensation programs for loss of life and damage of property and crops but have been discontinued because of abuse and inefficiency in reducing these conflicts. Currently there are innovations that involve benefit such as tourism

revenue and related enterprenuering and resource (such as fuel wood, wild crops) sharing and it is still too early to know how this will turn out. There are emerging wildlife associations based at community level in which local communities are being encouraged to benefit actively from wildlife resources particularly in non-consumptive ways.

Making sure that local people benefit (by provision of financial and development incentives), and empowering them to evolve organizational structures that will encourage sustainable benefits from conservation of wildlife resources will be crucial for the future of wildlife in Uganda. This is even more crucial given that wildlife in Uganda occurs outside conservation areas and on private land. Most of migratory pathways and dispersal areas are being engulfed in settlements and agriculture. This may threaten wildlife survival and ecologies and it may be crucial for women to play a conservation role, but only in a framework of incentives and provision of basic family needs to which they are obligated to. Conservation of rare, threatened, endangered and endemic species and their habitats is of national and international concern, and the role of women in this conservation exercise cannot be over-emphasized.

#### 2.4 Women's involvement in work

Women are family Managers and agricultural plus environmental managers. Their time is consumed by childcare, collecting water for household use, fetching fuel wood, agriculture work, including planting, weeding and harvesting, providing food from subsistence farming, community work, such as building schools, gabions and roads(Pala 1980a). Given semi-arid landscape and thin sandy soils, susceptive to severe erosion, women's ability to take care of their families is threatened. The environment offers a fragile resource base which portends danger if continually exploited.

Women's overwhelming involvement in reproductive work is in accordance with the cultural laws. A woman is described as "good" or "able" only when she maintains her family effectively(Sadik, N. 1990). Sayings such as "the woman belongs to the kitchen" emphasize this role. Reproductive work does not need specialized skills. But it requires time and energy. Household food production is the most important reason why women work so hard on their small farms. Women are responsible for providing family food and other support services. Women, therefore, have no option but to work for many months on the land. Women are the major source of community labour because of their numbers and positive response to development. When community projects come up, women are the first to be called upon. when these commonly held resources become scarce and propoerty rights are exerted because of a percieved market value, thier control tends to be assumed by men, although women's role as the supplier to the family of these resources does not change (Agarwal 1989).

Approximately 40 per cent of the married men live in urban areas for over seven

Approximately 40 per cent of the married men live in urban areas for over seven months during any given year. There are many households where women are the de facto heads. In such a situation, women have no choice but to absorb some traditional male roles. women have no special skills to undertake the work they do in agriculture. A case in point is in the layout of bench terraces where the women looked for a retired agricultural technician to teach them how to do it. Culture and survival challenges emerge as the two principal factors behind women's high level of involvement in sustainable development.

- 2.5 Actions to be put in place to integrate gender concerns and perspectives of women in the utilization and management of natural resources.
  - i. Integrate women, including indigenous women, their perspectives and knowledge, on an equal basis with men, in decision-making regarding sustainable resource management and the development of policies and programmes for sustainable development, including in particular those designed to address and prevent environmental degradation of the land.
  - ii. Evaluate policies and programmes in terms of environmental impact and women's equal access to and use of natural resources.
- iii. Ensure adequate research to assess how and to what extent women are particularly susceptible or exposed to environmental degradation and hazards, including, as necessary, research and data collection on specific groups of women, particularly women with low income, indigenous women and women belonging to minorities.
- iv. Integrate rural women's traditional knowledge and practices of sustainable resource use and management in the development of environmental management and extension programmes.
- v. Integrate the results of gender-sensitive research into mainstream policies with a view to developing sustainable human settlements.
- vi. Promote knowledge of and sponsor research on the role of women, particularly rural and indigenous women, in food gathering and production, soil conservation, irrigation, watershed management, sanitation, coastal zone and marine resource management, integrated pest management, land-use planning, forest conservation and community forestry, fisheries, natural disaster prevention, and new and renewable sources of energy, focusing

- particularly on indigenous women's knowledge and experience.
- vii. Develop a strategy for change to eliminate all obstacles to women's full and equal participation in sustainable development and equal access to and control over resources.
- viii. Promote the education of girls and women of all ages in science, technology, economics and other disciplines relating to the natural environment so that they can make informed choices and offer informed input in determining local economic, scientific and environmental priorities for the management and appropriate use of natural resources and ecosystems.
  - ix. Develop programmes to involve female professionals and scientists, as well as technical, administrative and clerical workers, in environmental management, develop training programmes for girls and women in these fields, expand opportunities for the hiring and promotion of women in these fields and implement special measures to advance women's expertise and participation in these activities.
  - x. Identify and promote environmentally sound technologies that have been designed, developed and improved in consultation with women and that are appropriate to both women and men.
  - xi. Support the development of women's equal access to housing infrastructure, safe water, and sustainable and affordable energy technologies, such as wind, solar, biomass and other renewable sources, through participatory needs assessments, energy planning and policy formulation at the local and national levels.
- xii. Ensure that clean water is available and accessible to all and that environmental protection and conservation plans are designed and implemented to restore polluted water systems and rebuild damaged watersheds.

# 2.6 Other actions to be taken to promote women's visible participation and utilization of natural resource

#### A. Home gardens as "experimental stations:

Women's home-gardens are often informal "experimental stations" in which they transfer, encourage and tend indigenous species, trying them out and adopting them for their specific - and maybe varied - products. These diverse home-gardens often represent an important refuge, where less common species and varieties are preserved. Another example shows the extent of women's knowledge of seed diversity and their innovation with regard to plant genetic resources. Whereas potatoes are normally propagated via asexual reproduction by planting whole sections or tubers, many of the women use "true potato seed". Before harvesting, the women collect and purposefully rot the potato fruits until they are ready to plant. Just before the rain, the women plant the seeds that have been activated by the chemical processes during rotting. In time, the tiny seed potatoes are harvested and saved till the following year when they are planted out to produce first-generation tubers. These "tuber-seeds" are sorted by women for shape, taste, colour, frost resistance, storage qualities, pest and disease resistance and other qualities.

Other studies have shown that women and men in the may have very different needs and priorities in terms of developing and conserving natural resources. Men may be more apt to listen to agricultural "advisors" or extensionists who bring the latest variety developed by external researchers. Women are often more likely to value the variety of landraces grown traditionally and will continue to innovate and develop without external assistance.

B. Toward genuine natural resource management as "Farmers' Rights":

Women's roles as natural resource managers and as key actors in sustainable agricultural development have been emphasized at several international Conferences, such as the Third World Conference on Women, the 1991 FAO/Netherlands "Den Bosch" Conference on Agriculture, and the Beijing Conference. The Earth Summit in 1992 also recognized the need for the full participation of women, as well as men, at all levels of policy-making and implementation in order to enhance the conservation and sustainable use of biological diversity and other natural resources. This has important implications for global and national management programmes.

The creation of an international fund has been proposed under the International Undertaking for use in the support of conservation and to benefit farmers who produce and conserve natural resources. Recognition is needed of the different roles and contributions of women farmers belonging to different socio-economic groups in different areas of Kenya in order to ensure that those who are actually conserving and developing materials are those that are supported and that will benefit from any relevant development interventions. Needless to say, there are many constraints to ensuring that women farmers, as well as men, benefit from their contributions in this field.

Areas requiring action for the equitable and gender-responsive application of Farmers' Rights are:

C. Policy and legislation: First, in the design and elaboration of related policies, legislation and programmes of action for example the active and full participation of women farmers is essential at all levels. These policies and programmes should recognize the different contributions of men and women as natural resource managers. Methodologies for the collection and application of gender-disaggregated data and in-

formation need to be designed and adopted for use by planners and decision-makers in the field. Second, mechanisms are needed to improve the participation of women and other disadvantaged groups in decision-making structures. A participatory process is required for assessing needs, constraints and opportunities of different members in the community for the subsequent design and implementation of community action.

- D. Participation in decision-making: Participatory processes may be more costly, but they have been shown to be more effective in the long run. There is need to empower both women and men to decide, at their discretion, if the natural resources are to be made available to other users.
- E. Access to productive resources: Efforts are needed to ensure that women farmers have security of land tenure and water rights plus other natural resources in order to provide incentives for investing in long-term productivity of the land and conservation of the natural resources.
- F. Access to agricultural services: Appropriate support services, including information, technology, and funds, for the conservation and improvement of need to be targeted to women farmers according to their needs and priorities. Participatory research and plant breeding should be promoted with different socio-economic groups in farming communities to enhance what they are already doing.
- G. Community development: Conservation should not be isolated from other development efforts, but should be integrated into other community development programmes. Appropriate social and economic

incentives should be provided to improve the quality of life of the communities while promoting the conservation and sustainable use of natural resources. The aim is to promote a sustainable relationship between people and their resources and to ensure secure livelihoods and management. Such incentives include secure land tenure arrangements, training and education, credit and employment in activities related to natural resource management. The establishment of strong village institutions with adequate representation of women farmers can be key to promoting successful natural resource management.

# 2.7 Actions to be taken by international organizations, non governmental organizations and private sector to visibly acknowledge women's particiation in natural resource management

- A. Involve women in the communication industries in raising awareness regarding environmental issues and management of natural resources, especially on the environmental and health impacts of products, technologies and industry processes.
- B. Encourage consumers to use their purchasing power to promote the production of environmentally safe products and encourage investment in environmentally sound and productive agricultural, fisheries, commercial and industrial activities and technologies.
- C. Support women's consumer initiatives by promoting the marketing of organic food and recycling facilities, product information and product labeling, including labeling of toxic chemical and pesticide containers with language and symbols that are understood by consumers, regardless of age and level of literacy.

#### 2.8 Summary

Women's efforts to change have confronted several common constraints or weaknesses, especially in terms of gender biases or impediments for women in natural resource management and sustainable rural development. In this case study, eight main factors were identified as common gender-based constaints, as follows:

- A. Tremendous labour burdens borne by women.
- B. Tradition and cultural influences that are often gender- biased.
- C. Women's poverty and the under- evaluation of women's roles.
- D. Lack of women's power and participation I policy and decision making.
- E. Gender biased legal systems for tenure and inheritance.
- F. Lack of support from state institutions to address women's needs.
- G. Lack of education for the poor, and especially women and environmental degradation that hinders the poor, especially women.

Women bear the bulk of labour in a wide range of productive and reproductive activities, which create double- day and triple- day workloads for women and can In turn, contribute to poor health. This heavy workload largely for subsistence purposes also constrains women from being able to gain education and income- earning opportunities. Men generally have less work In production and none in reproductive activities in rural households, although they often earn wages and control household expenditures.

Secondary, cultural traditions are often gender biased and discriminatory against women. They are disadvantageous for women's economic well-being and can hinder their contribution to sustainable development. For example, culturally-based beliefs and norms often maintain men's control over household expenses and both productive and reproductive decisions. In many cases, cultural norms help maintain men's positions of power in communities. In turn, such traditional norms and beliefs often thwart

women's opportunities for education, jobs and decision- making, and keep them weak or oppressed economically, politically, mentally and socially. In certain contexts, however, cultural roles and traditions can be advantageous or helpful to women; for example, they may enable them to gain unique tradition knowledge about sources and uses of medical plants, special qualities of non- forest products, special skills in conserving resources and survival strategies.

Similarly, education systems have gender biases; women face far more difficulties than men in gaining access to educational opportunities. For example, rural girls on average receive less schooling than boys, often because they are taken out of school to assume household duties and subsistence production(Thomas- slayer et al,1991). Boys and girls are often tracked into different kinds of courses and careers which have built- in gender attitudes and distinctions. Moreover, adult literacy rates are far lower for women than they are for men throughout Africa. Such constraints inhibit women form improving their welfare. Women are disproportionately harmed by the problem of resources degradation pervasive throughout many parts of Africa. As resource scarcity and deterioration worsen, women have to work longer and harder hours to collect and manage such resources as fuel wood, water and fodder. They also confront more difficulties cultivating land eroded or degraded in other ways. Water pollution and lack of sanitation services openly expose them to water borne diseases; women have to work harder to boil and prepare water for their families. In some cases, women may contribute indirectly to environmental degradation because they have no other options; yet this form of deterioration in turn can create heavier pressure on their lives.

#### 2.9 Theoratical Framework

The theory that guided this study was the theory of empowerment as coined by caroline Moser (1993). Caroline while furthering the concept of strategic and practical gender needs that was coined by Molyneux (1985) argues that women in the Third World can only improve their position if they address their strategic gender needs. Moser defies special needs as needs women identify because of their subordinate position to men in their society. They relate to gender division of labour, power and control and may include such issues as legal rights, domestic violence, equal wages and women's control over their bodies (Moser 1993). Quoting Molyneux she further states that strategic gender needs may include all or some of the sexual division of labour, the alleviation of the burden of labour and child care, the removal of all institutionalized forms of discrimination such as rights to manage natural resources, access to credit facilities, the establishment of political equity, freedom of choice over child bearing, adoption of measures against male violence and control over women (Moser 1993). Moser continues to argue that meeting women's practical gender needs which she defines as needs women identify in their socially accepted roles in society, are only responsive to immediate perceived needs and do not address women emancipation of gender inequality. This theory was relevant to the study. Women remain in poverty and subordinate position in society because mainly of their lack of access to and control over productive resources. Land is a fundamental resource especially in Uganda where agriculture is the main economic activity in the rural areas. This lack of resources as caroline argues is supported by both cultural and administrative institutions. Men and women traditionally have different levels of access to resources and control over resources, whether they exist in the private (household) or public sphere. Traditionally women have had a subordinate

position to men, where for example, she may contribute materially to the household but husband makes the decisions on how the income is spent. On a macro political level, most governing bodies are dominated by men. Legislation and judicial decisions often lack a gendered perspective and do not represent women's interests. Instead of policy makers and development agencies addressing the strategic needs of women, they have over time continued to address the practical needs of the women hence have failed to change the subordinate and relative poorer position of women to men in society.

Furthermore the theory describes the sexual division of labour as a constraint to women's empowerment. Women usually perform the reproductive roles in most communities. This is what caroline calls the triple role. This further burdens women and makes it increasingly difficult to afford time to acquire skills that would enable them afford productive resources like land. This division of labour is constraining to women to a large extent. Even when both women and men engage in agricultural activities, women will almost always have control over subsistence crops while men have control over cash crops.

This was quite relevant to the situation of women since the areas of the study provided a lot of insight on what the researcher was looking out for in the research. Besides pointing out why women remain poor due to land of productive resources like land, the theory further highlights the triple burden that women have to bear. This further reinforces the argument of this research that women despite being the source of most of the labour in the farms in the study areas, they rarely own the factors of production especially land. This surely is one of the reasons why women are over represented in poverty statistics.

# Chapter 3

# STUDY DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Research site

Buganga is a sub-location of Kayunga location, headed by a local council chief, whose job is to catalyze and oversee development and to maintain law and order. Buganga lies between Katonga River and Lwera River near Lukaya in Masaka district.

#### 3.2 Administrative boundaries

Buganga is approximately 85 kilometers along Kampala, Masaka road and 12 kilometers from lukaya town. Buganga has a population of 25,000 people according to the 2005 census. Buganga is made up of villages like Nindye, Kassalu, Muge, Nabyewanga, Bukibira, Kitokolo, Ggolo bordering lake Victoria, lubanda, kiguli and kikoota near katonga River.

Buganga has fertile lands so agriculture is mainly practiced. There are various varieties of foods grown and produced in buganga due to its land fertility. Food self-sufficiency at the household level depends on good rains. On average, the area receives 600-800mm of rain annually, but the rain's

effectiveness is greatly reduced by evapotranspiration and run-off. Rainfall seasons vary, falling between March and May and between September and November.

At times, there is drought though it is not a common phenomenon. Lake Victoria, Rivers (Katonga and Lwela), swamps, boreholes and taps are the main water sources. When the dry season sets in, the small lakes dry up and the people have to trek for over 16 kilometers (return) to fetch water.

#### 3.3 Economic activities

Buganga has rich vegetation due to its rich fertile soils people practice agriculture and farming as their major economic activities. A variety of food and cash crops are grown like for example Matooke (bananas), cassava, maize, coffee, beans, sweet potatoes, Irish potatoes, water melons, groundnuts, green vegetables (Nakati, bugga), carrots, eggplants, onions, tomatoes, cabbages e.t.c.

Farming includes cattle, goats, sheep, chicken and pig rearing. Buganga is not filled electrified. It has few places covered with electricity while other people prefer to use generators and solar energy. It has no piped water unless one puts their own initiative.

#### 3.4 Sampling strategy and sample size

Establishing links at the community and administrative levels was necessary before embarking on the study. A visit to the community and discussions on collaboration helped to renew old relationships. At the administrative level, permission of the chief of Buganga sub-location location and the assistant chief were obtained since clearance is mandatory for research. This process took approximately 6 days. The team was made up of one coordinator who is the researcher, two women and two men from Buganga.

An interview guide was used to gather information from different categories of people from Buganga. This method found necessary for establishing parameters critical to understanding gender relations, such as male migration, female-headed households and education participation rates for girls. Some 2 focus groups discussions were conducted in the sub-locations. To collect gender-related information, several questions where asked for example; information on the types of work done, the time taken and who does what revealed at a glance the disparities in workload between the different sexes. A ranking of problems/constraints identified the most pressing community problems.

Buganga sub-location has 6 villages. The survey was conducted in 3 villages and the results can, therefore, be generalized for the entire area. The sampling criteria were the number of villages, gender categories (male and female) and thier gender roles and activities. On the basis of these criteria, groups were identified.

#### 3.5 Method/instrument of data collection

A synthesis of qualitative data was partially integrated into the data collection process. For example, focused group discussions,key informants, interviews and the time-use profiles in data synthesis techniques. There was however, a data synthesis session when problems, determinants and constraints from all information sources were put together to rank problems.

#### 3.6 Study design

Principally, participatory approaches, supplemented by in-depth interviews, qualitative household information collected through direct observation thus where required behaviour was observed in a particular setting for example women doing farming, agriculture and some of the house roles. Each of the data types and tools used had special strengths and advantages and jointly provided a high degree of complimentary.

Qualitative household information was gathered using an interview guide, where a group of people where gathered by facilitators and asked to give thier general roles as managers of resources both in the general economy and their households. This source of information made generalizations about the entire sub-location possible. From the same source it was also possible to establish magnitudes of elements critical to understanding gender issues. Qualitative information was gathered through focus group discussions, in which a small number of people, usually eight to ten, guided by facilitator, talked about topics of natural resource management to a specific development initiative. The small group was homogenous in thier gender speciality, roles, social class and other related aspects. This homogeneity made it possible for the group to discuss issues freely. A structured schedule was used to guide the discussions. In-depth interviews were used to gather information from individuals. This approach made it possible to gather very detailed information on similar issues as discussed in the focus group discussions. The category included community leaders (key informants), business people, teachers, farmers plus housewives.

Several categories of information were collected.some categories of labour were investigated - reproductive, productive and community. Labour division and profiles were disaggregated by gender. Group categories included female household heads. Reproductive activities included childcare, fetch-

ing water and firewood. Productive work ranged from land preparation and business to harvesting. Access to and control of inputs and benefits were analyzed by gender. Inputs included land, tools, seeds and time, and benefits included income, education level and decision-making. Patterns emerged in division of labour, access and control of resources and benefits. Information sought touched on causes and/or explanations of those patterns. The causes could be cultural, economic or political. There were diverse constraints, impeding effective programme implementation. They included economic, cultural and technological constraints. Skills, male emigration and culture were revealed as the reasons why women are natural resource managers.

The recruitment and training of enumerators was locally done. For the interview guide, two school teachers (one woman, one men) from two villages were recruited. For the discussions, two young people (one man, one woman) were identified. All, except one university graduate, were high school graduates. Each pair (woman and man) was allocated a specific village. They alternated as moderator and note-taker. Use of local personnel was a deliberate action, for two reasons. First, it was seen as a capacity-building strategy. Secondly, it was an attempt to make gender a topic for discussion. It was gratifying that after one week some enumerators began to appreciate the meaning of gender. Some male household enumerators expressed sorrow at women's disadvantaged position.

#### 3.7 Problems encountered and solutions thereof

The researcher encountered a number of problems. First was the fear among the respondents to open up and answer the questions asked from the interview guide. Some were afraid that someone will follow up on what they had said. A number of women were scared of their husbands finding them in groups discussing. Some of them considered first asking their husbands' permission to engage in these discussions. The researcher solved this vise by assuring the women of confidentiality as the respondents where not required to write their names anywhere.

# Chapter 4

# PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

#### 4.1 Reproductive activities

As analysis of the male and female roles and responsibilities, my interactions with project goals, strategies and outcomes were the main driving force behind this survey. Thus the survey facilitated a critical appraisal of the Buganga community to establish who does what, when, how much and why. The reproductive work cluster provided a good starting point for the analysis. This is because it comprises a range of activities, which according to the Baganda customs have been a female preserve. Like any other society, the Buganga community is slowly but surely undergoing changes in modernization. To establish whether change is gender sensitive in the context of natural resource management, information on reproductive activities was collected.

Out of the 30 female respondents, against nine men reported that they undertake reproductive work. Apart from the male child (five-12 years old) and the male youth (13-17 years old), who assist occasionally, the adult and elderly male's contribution is minimal. Exceptional cases exist where the male gets significantly involved in this category of work because the

spouse is ill, absent or dead. Male children also participate in childcare and fire-making.

In-depth interviews showed that males from well-off and/or exposed families also perform reproductive activities. For example, male youth at a local leader's household were observed boiling green maize and washing clothes without any inhibition. These chores are typically a female's domain. Thus, it can be inferred that social class exposure leads to the sharing of roles and to gender sensitivity.

Reproductive activities are undertaken by all female categories, ranging from the male elder to the female child. The only difference is the intensity and time allocated to each. For instance, the female elder group spends more time on child care. The female adults and household heads allocate more time to fuel and water collection, food preparation and washing. The daily profile and the interview guide provided information on each specific reproductive activity by gender. For instance, the female's average work day is between 13 and 16 hours; the male's is much shorter, a maximum of six hours. From all data sources, it is clear that childcare takes most of women's time. About 98 percent of the respondents reported that it takes more than seven hours a day, mostly at them or in the family field. Child care is unique in that it is not perceived as a gender specific activity. Indeed, determining the time taken by this particular activity is constrained by the fact that child care is normally tucked onto other domestic chores. However, this activity is significant because it is not only time-consuming but is also burdensome for women.

Fuel collection is another reproductive activity currently generally carried out by female children, adults and elders. The male child and the youth assist occasionally. Given that Buganga is poor, especially in trees, readily available fuel wood is an issue. Indeed, fuel wood shortage is a major problem. For the majority of the respondents (84.8 percent), it takes about three hours a day. Considering that firewood collection is one of the myriad of chores to be undertaken on any single day, three hours are substantial. Fuel wood is collected mainly from the family field or the local community. It consists of "low-quality" dry twigs and branches that burn quickly. Water collection emerged as arduous and time-consuming. In the dry season, fetching can take 4 to 6 hours a day since it involves walking eight kilometers, to the water source. In the wet season, it takes about three hours. The water problem has remained the community's number one priority. The female child, however, is less involved if of school-going age. The male child or youth occasionally helps in water collection in households endowed with wheelbarrows or handcarts. Male involvement is encouraged by "appropriate technology". Wheelbarrows and handcarts are advanced technology, compared with pots, and pails, for generations associated with womenfolk. Thus, the introduction of such technology is a sure way of involving males, thereby reducing the woman's workload.

In maintaining a family, food preparation is arguably the most important activity. In the study area, most respondents said this crucial task is undertaken by all females and few males who undertake reproductive work. Rarely does the male child, the adult or elder participate and, when they do- under exceptional circumstances - they take little time. For the majority (56.1 percent), cooking takes about three hours. For a similarly substantial number (42.4 percent) the activity takes four to six hours. Washing utensils and clothing is another important household chore. For 78.8 percent of the respondents, it takes less than three hours. This is still a female preserve except where the male child participates in washing clothes. Sweeping the home compound is another female chore. Male par-

ticipation is again limited to the male child.

The key resources necessary for effective and efficient performance in reproductive work include time, finance, skills, trees for firewood and water collection. Evidence from the groups interviewed indicated that, while reproductive work is predominantly a female domain, inputs critical to effective work discharge are primarily controlled by male adults. The main issue here is control. While the children have control only over their skills, it is clear that women have control over just some of the resources they need daily. Time is one resource most respondents indicated they have control over. Given the woman's long working day, it was surprising that no respondent cited lack of time as a constraint. This could possibly be explained by the female socialization process that expects women to be busy all the time. Relative to men, the clearly predetermined daily schedule determines and explains their time use. This provides a potential entry point into development agencies for workload reduction and other related areas of advocacy.

Trees are another resource over which females enjoy limited control. It is noteworthy here that control over household trees generally belongs to the male adult and elder. However, a large number of womenfolk (53 percent) have control over fast growing species for fuel wood. As regards the indigenous tree species, the man controls utilization by occasionally looping off (pollarding) branches.

A most disconcerting aspect which came out of this survey is that females have no control over such essential factors as money and tools. Apart from the limited control over such skills as weaving and tools such as water cans and pangas (cutlass) women have to literally be directed as to using such inputs. Experience has shown that control by women over this

item ensures better family nutrition, clothing and health. This is highly compromised in Buganga not only by the prevailing high level of poverty, but also by the imposed over-reliance of females on males for money and other resources. In female-headed households the woman has greater control. These are critical in that they contribute to either motivation or demoralization of workers. This has attempted to establish the situation in control over these inputs. What is emerging is that women actually provide the required labour while men generally make decisions on the allocation of resources. Women have continued to appear not to be conscious of their disadvantaged position.

The study has revealed a clear gender division of labour. The consistent pattern emerging from all the sources of information is that reproductive work provides a clear distinction between men and women in this society. However, this distinction is becoming hazy with time as females begin to assume traditionally male roles, such as herding and construction of granaries. There are also instances of men participating in reproductive work. Benefits accruing from reproductive work are many and varied. However, for this study, the benefits included labour from children, dowry, community respect and remittances from children. A key finding is that everyone has access to all the benefits. Differences exist, over control, which is clearly not equally shared; the male adult has the upper hand. While there was consensus on the fact that all the various children's categories have only access but no control over the benefits, this cannot be seen else where. The male elder, the male adult and the female elder all have control over child labour, dowry, community respect and remittances. But the female adult, even when she happens to be a household head, has control over only some of these benefits, mainly child labuor and remittances. However, there are cases where female adults influence the outcome of family benefits, such as dowry. Culture was unanimously endorsed as the major factor governing this pattern. Traditionally, the female was expected to handle the household chores while the male input is minimal except in decision-making. Statements such as, "the woman belongs to the kitchen" or "it is a woman's duty" exemplify this. The woman is supposed to be domestic, while the man is allowed to explore. Another emerging factor is the impact of change of culture. Demographic changes have influenced the traditional pattern. For example, due to a spouse's demise, sickness, out-migration, a significant number of households are headed by women, inevitably assuming all the roles. The other side of the coin is that men, under the same circumstances, have taken on female roles.

A number of factors constrain effective reproductive performance in this community. Inadequate access to necessary resources, women's heavy workload and marginalization in terms of control over the essential inputs are examples. The environmental conditions characteristic of this area have led to good access to water, fertile soils and forests. Thus, the female has to spend a lot of time fetching water and fuel wood. Related to this is the depreciating nature of the local economy. The resulting high level of poverty has led to lack of capital input. Tradition has nurtured a negative attitude towards reproductive work over time. Consistent with a male-dominated society, the females have taken on the unenviable mantle of reproductive duties. This burden is compounded by the prevailing male monopoly over control of the necessary inputs and the benefits accruing. This amounts to female marginalization and is counter-productive. A factor external to reproductive work, but which impacts negatively, is the poor state of infrastructure, in particular health facilities.

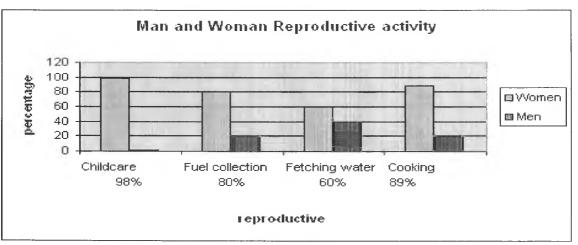


Figure 1

#### 4.2 Productive work

In this survey, productive work was primarily confined to various elements of farming, which is the main local economic activity. Farming includes land clearance and preparation, seeding, weeding, spraying, harvesting, food processing, honey harvesting and animal farming. For development to be equitable, meaningful and sustained there is no other recourse but to address the dynamics of differential power and privilege between men and women as reflected by the division of labour; access to and control of resources and benefits; the determining factors and constrains in effective performance. Buganga is predominantly a farming community, where 93.3 percent of the respondents till the land. The importance of farming is not so much associated with its viability but rather with lack of other opportunities. For example, only 28.3 percent of the respondents do business and, even then, on a very small scale. Productive work is undertaken by males and females of all ages. However, there are marked differences in time and type of activities done by men, women and children. Women's contributions to productive work are significant and increasing as men move to towns for wage employment.

With reference to farming, the seasonal calendar reflects area characterized by a distinctive rainfall pattern and land use. The two rainy seasons stretch from March to May (long rains) and September to October (short but more reliable rains). Land use is mainly for crop production and livestock rearing. The main activity, agriculture, includes both cash crop and subsistence. Coffee is the main cash crop while other insignificant ones are Matooke, Mangoes, Pawpaw, Melons, vegetables and Cotton. The food crops include maize, beans, pigeon peas, bananas, cassava and cabbage. The farming cycles starts with clearing the land, done manually, an arduous task indeed. Traditionally among the Baganda, this was a man's job. Most respondents indicated that it still is. However, it was also evident that the female adult is increasingly involved in land clearance, an activity in the family field which takes less than three months. She also hires out her labour to clear commercial farms for money. On the rare occasions when this happens, it takes most of her time, i.e. between four and six months. The respondents were also unanimous that the rigors of this activity effectively exclude children and elders.

Sequentially, land clearance for cropping is followed by preparing the land for seeding. This equally cumbersome task calls for manual resilience. This is even more pertinent with reference to buganga, where use of animals in ploughing and harrowing is minimal. Both female and male adults are involved, female adults more where land preparation is for food crops and men more involved in cash cropping. Land preparation for cash crops at the farm level is rare but when it occurs, it takes most of the male adults are involved, female adults more where land preparation is for food crops and men more involved in cash cropping. Land preparation for cash crops at the farm level is rare but when it occurs, it takes most of the male adult's time, four to six months. The female adult also takes part in preparing

land for cash crops, but mostly outside the community, for extra income. This is mainly in the nearby coffee farms. Seeding is carried out by both sexes. Traditionally, this was a female job; however, a shift has occurred over time because it is now the male adult who spends more time on it than the female adult. Seeding takes half of the male's time in fields in the community. The same exercise takes a small amount of the female's time in the family field. This change came about when ploughs and cash crops were introduced, which implies a change in farming technology, something the man is willing to embrace. This is yet another entry point for any efforts designed to reduce the female workload.

When it comes to weeding, culture precludes males. However, this has also changed with time. Cash cropping has contributed largely to male participation. While some respondents indicated that male adults weed cash crops only, most said male adults weed food crops in the family field, where it takes half of their time. Children (in particular, females) also take part. In Buganga, little spraying is done, mainly because chemicals are expensive and coffee is grown by very few people. Spraying food crops is minimal. When done, female heads of households, the male elder and male adult are the main actors. The leading actors, though, are the male adults; they do the spraying in and beyond the community for less than three months. Harvesting is undertaken by males and females of all ages. Male and female adults share the burden while elders assist in harvesting food crops. Harvesting takes less than three months. Males are seldom involved in processing the harvested crop. However, the male adult is involved in the coffee processing, which takes little time at the pulping factory. While women do most of the reproductive work, their contribution in productive work is equally significant. Indeed, Bugabga's women do all types of productive work, except spraying and processing, two significant activities. The evolving pattern of division of labour in this community has actually increased the woman's workload.

The necessary inputs for effective productive performance are time, money, knowledge/skills, land and farm implements. The relationship between gender and resource access comes out graphically when looked at in the context of productive work. All groups have access to all the resources. The control factor, however, brings out glaring disparities. For instance, the male adult and elder control all the major inputs, such as land, time, money and implements. The male also controls tools, technology, money and skills. Here female control ranges from only nine to 11 percent. On the other hand, the female adult and elder have control over time; they have not control over money, skills, land, implements and other inputs such as irrigation water and extra labour. The female household head controls all the major inputs. Children have no control over any inputs.

While all groups have access to income, education and status, the male adult and elder have control over the cash crop and the income from it. Comparatively, only a quarter of the females have control over money/income, despite their contribution to productive work. Neither the female nor the male adult has control over education/skills and community respect and status. Half the females have control over some food crops and income. The female elder and adult have no control over skills, status and over benefits, such as good health. Children have no control over any benefits. The emerging pattern is that the female has become increasingly involved in productive work. The main explanation is that the traditional division of labour has tended to break-down due to male out-migration and sale of personal labour by females. Male migration to urban areas in search of jobs has resulted in many households being headed by women, leading to changes in the division of labour. In the same vein, economic opportunities opening to women through education and employment have facilitated

ownership and land control. The factors constraining effective performance of productive work were cited as lack of tools, seedlings, fertilizer and technical advice, poor access to clean water, poor producer and the poor state of health facilities.

Table 4.1: PRODUCTIVE WORK PERFORMED BY MEN AND WOMEN IN BUGANGA

WORK	MENPERCENTAGE	WOMENPERCENTAGE
Tilling Land	52	48
Clearing Land	30	70
Weeding	10	90
Spraying	02	98
Harvesting	50	50
Cash Crop Farming	80	20
Subsistance Farming	20	80

# Chapter 5

# CONCLUSION, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Conclusion

Women in rural areas are more linked with natural resource use and conservation than men. Their traditional gender roles bring them in daily contact with natural resources such as land, water, forest and wildlife. They have to use these resources because they are often poor and their livelihood mostly depends on these resources. When these resources are exploited and ruined, women suffer most. If they are wisely used sustainably women benefit most. Most women want to learn and to be recognized for what they really are; managers of natural resources.

Any government and non-government efforts to conserve should therefore Appreciate and recognize the central role of women as they have diverse indigenous knowledge in the use and exploitation of natural resources whether it is to provide food, shelter, traditional medicines or for other purposes. They are therefore an appropriate target group if wildlife will persist in dispersal areas, if tropical forests and other natural forest parches are to remain un cleared in favor of agriculture, if watersheds and catchments are to be conserved for adequate provision of clean water, if wetlands are to be considered useful for ecological processes and biodiversity and not considered as waste lands, and if land as a resource is to be used sustain ably and not turned into degraded wasteland.

The choice to involve women is a choice for sustainability; it's a choice that will Empower rather than increase conflicts over limited highly needed natural resources, it's a choice that will lead to conservation of natural resources being lost to consumptive and exploitative land use alternatives. The basis is to allow traditional use and benefit, yet elicit responsibility with such rights and privileges so that at the end, benefits are closely linked with conservation responsibilities.

## 5.2 Discussion

Grass root experiences illustrate prevalent themes concerning gender roles in natural resources and more generally, people's relations to their environments. The case study of this project shows that women's work and contributions are critical in managing resources and in shaping environmental and socio- economic conditions. In addition to improving detailed information on gender based responsibilities, the study induced information on how women and men are affected by broader policies, institutions and socio economic changes. The project shows why policies and institutions should give serious attention to gender distinctions, especially to women's role in the environment and development field.

The findings and lessons from these cases particularly focused on gender roles and women's activities in resource management. Commonalities, differences and constraints, elements of success, policy recommendations and follow- ups suggestions were also identified. In this project women and men

have clearly identified division of labour in house holds and communities. Women have the main responsibilities in farming, animal husbandry, use and collection of fuel and other forest products, water management and other resource- related activities. In many situations, women have gained important specialized skills in resource management, including particular plants, trees and natural products. Such knowledge is not always shared with men. Women also have the leading responsibilities in such domestic labour as food preparation and childcare, which are fundamental to the welfare and livelihood of the household members. Men are also involved increasingly employed in wage earning work, while women have less access to income- earning opportunities.

These gender based responsibilities are based on cultural traditions and social expectations. In some cases, they are associated with religious beliefs (as illustrated by women's and men's relations in contrast to the Bible), and they often are based on ancestral ties. In some cases however, the roles have evolved dynamically with broader socio- economic changes over time. In other cases, with the expansion of the market economy and growing male migration towards urban centers, more and more women have become heads of the households and are increasingly involved in wage labour. Yet generally women maintain the vital subsistence labour for their families' survival and well being but their roles are blindly recognized as mainly important rather men are given most of the credit in society's resource management.

## 5.3 Recommendations

The problems and opportunities characteristic of gender disparities in the division of labour, access to and control over resources and benefit have

implications for both policy and programme interventions in sustainable development. Women's limited rights to resources, their heavy workload, poverty and inadequate access to basic services negatively affect sustainable development.

Women's right to land is conditioned by the scope of their overall legal status and by conflicting interpretations of customary law, statutory laws and actual practice. (Common law). For women to have greater say in this critical productive resource, a change in legal codes and interpretation or enforcement may be necessary. In Buganga, both married and unmarried women generally have no control over land. Most decisions are made by men. This scenario is not, however limited to Buganga but Uganda as a whole. It's obtained throughout Africa and other developing regions. Because Uganda's law does not bar women from land ownership, and control, educating women on their rights is a good beginning. Popular women's organizations should be empowered to create advocacy and lobbying groups for women.

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#### 5.4.1 KEY WORDS

GENDER: Refers to the economic, social and cultural attributes plus opportunities associated with being male or female in a particular point in time. It is a development issue because of the fundamental differences and inequalities between and men. While these differences may manifest themselves in different ways in specific countries or sectors, some broad patterns point to questions that should always be considered (United Nations 2002). For example, the various ways such as in gender inequality is manifested include the feminization of poverty, lack of access to a good education and health care, under-representation in political processes throughout the world, freedom from violence, protection of reproductive rights, and sustainable livelihoods. Gender is also the social differences between women and men that are learned, Changeable over time and have wide variations both within and between Cultures.

MANAGEMENT: places human beings and their socio-cultural environment (wishes, capacities, ethnicity, and gender) at the centre of thinking on these issues. Humans form the interface between the natural environment and society and their actions are crucial to presentation of the natural resource base on which life depends.

NATURAL RESOURCES: are all natural base on which life depends which first and foremost means air, water, soil, plants, and animals, mountains and valleys e.t.c. Natural resource management: comprises of two aspects: Knowledge of the quality, finite natural and potential uses of available resources and the decisions on how to utilize, conserve these resource plus the Implementation of decisions, i.e. effective management and control of natural resource use.

PARTICIPATION: Is to be involved with other people in an activity

or involvement of all the concerned in a decision making and implementation and all processes, e.g. men and women all participating in the management of natural resources like water, plants, animals, management.

EMPOWERMENT: Achieving control one's life through expanded choices. Empowerment encompasses self- sufficieny and confidence and is inheritly linked toknowledge and voice. Empowerment is a function of individual initative, which is facilitated by institutional change. GENDER MAINSTREAMING: Is the integration of the gender perspective into every stage of policy processes - design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation with the aim of promoting equality between women and men. Gender mainstreaming is only one aspect of the general mainstreaming strategy that aims at removing inequalities due to gender, race, age social class etc. Gender Mainstreaming: Is the integration of the gender perspective into every step of policy processes - design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation with a view to promoting equality between women and men. Lets be quite clear about gender mainstreaming:- it is not a goal on its own but it is a means of achieving gender equality- it is not the sole province of women but it concerns the relationship between men and women in all spheres of

society for the benefit of both.