



training Manual for Local Governance and/Women Group-

Module V

△ *Meeting Special Needs*

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1. INTRODUCTION



There has been a growing demand for skills training, education and information that helps describe the situation of socio-economically marginalised population groups in rural communities of developing countries. Skills development for meeting the special needs of vulnerable people in our rural communities is vital for improving livelihoods. It is also important for better targeting of services to these population groups of greatest need.

You have noticed that poverty reduction of the disadvantaged is not simply a matter of service delivery. It is more than that. It is about equipping them with the skills and capabilities they need. In this module you will understand how these skills allow them to lead the kind of life they value. You will also understand how these skills make them feel free from fear and enhance their role as agents in transforming their lives.

You have observed that most marginalised people live far from centres of commerce and power. They can hardly influence the policies, laws and institutions that could improve their living conditions and shape their futures. Many of them do not have the legal right to live on the lands they depend on for survival. They do not know how to use effectively the resources they have managed on a sustainable basis throughout their lifetime. Resources are increasingly exploited by outsiders, with few benefits accruing to them.



Their vulnerability arises from individual, community, or larger population challenges. These include:

- Poverty.
- Unemployment.
- Poor education and skills.
- Poor opportunities for the poor.
- Illness and disability.
- Inadequate housing.
- Lack of power and influence.

The module identifies the most prominent disadvantaged population groups and highlights the critical challenges they are facing to improve their livelihoods. Finally, it suggests a set of special skills and income generation activities separately for each marginalised population group for improving their livelihoods. The key objectives of this module are:

Objectives

- After the completion of this module, you would be able to:
 - ► Describe the meaning of terms such as poverty, deprivation, disadvantaged and vulnerable population groups.
 - Explain the factors responsible for the low socio-economic standards of these typical population groups in your community.
 - Identify education and skills programmes and activities for meeting their special needs for sustainable livelihoods for each population group.

The module provides a series of tailor-made skills for improved employability and for harnessing opportunities for income-generation activities. Skills training programmes offering support to micro and small enterprises (MSE) in the informal sector, traditional apprenticeship and value-chain oriented training programmes are also discussed.

The skills discussed in this module include:

- Life skills.
- Entrepreneurship skills.
- Communication skills.
- Literacy and numeracy.
- Health/HIV-related skills.
- Culture-related skills (such as dance, drama, music, etc.).

The module contains the following major content areas:

Contents

- Who needs special attention and why?
- Marginalised and deprived rural population groups and their challenges and needs.
- Livelihood options for marginalised and deprived people.
- Skills required to address special needs of people living in rural areas.
- Involvement of organisation in designing and implementing activities.



WHO NEEDS SPECIAL 2 ATTENTION AND WHY?

We know that rural poor people are not a single, homogenous group. Some are independent producers and wage workers whose livelihoods principally depend on agriculture and agriculture-related activities. A majority of them are small-holder farmers.

Others are herders, small entrepreneurs, fishermen and landless agricultural labourers. They are members of indigenous groups, minorities and scheduled castes. They are those with the least land and water and with the least control over the assets they do have.

They typically have little access to formal financial institutions for capital of any sort. They often have very little access to modern technology and very little preparation for the development and management of modern forms of association. More often than not, they are women, and, as such, have special difficulties in accessing key development resources, services and opportunities.

Frequently, they are socially excluded, isolated and marginalised groups. They are those on whom those responsible for the development of modern institutions and services have all too often turned their backs. Their lives are characterised by vulnerability and insecurity, which make it difficult for them to take risks that could lead them out of poverty (IFAD).

There is a large and diversified landscape of non-formal skills development activities/initiatives addressing marginalised and poor target groups, mostly with no further access to formal education and training. However, there are very poor inventories of non-formal training providers and no systemised information and data on training efforts they make.

2.1 What is Rural Deprivation?

At the heart of every human experience is the desire to survive and prosper – to live without fear, hunger or suffering. Every day, 1.4 billion people – nearly one fifth of the world's inhabitants – cannot fulfil their most basic needs, let alone attain their dreams or desires (FAO). Your first task is: How to empower the deprived people of your community in order to alleviate poverty.

Disadvantage and deprivation are two common terms used to explain the plight of rural people. The terms are generally used interchangeably. However, you will see below how these terms vary in both meaning and content.

Rural poverty refers to the population living below the poverty line in rural areas. Rural poverty is viewed as an outcome, denoting an inability to share in the everyday lifestyles of the majority because of lack of resources.

Rural poverty is a product of:

- Poor infrastructure,
- Insufficient access to markets; and
- Lack of non-motorised load-carrying wheeled vehicles (handcarts and wheelbarrows).

Marginalisation

There is no agreed definition of marginalisation.

 The EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010 defines marginalisation as a form of acute and persistent disadvantage rooted in underlying social inequalities.



The most disadvantaged sections of society include:

- Girls and women.
- Hard-to-reach groups such as indigenous people and ethnic minorities.
- Poor households.
- People living in informal settlements.
- Individuals with disabilities.
- Rural populations.
- Nomadic.
- Populations those affected by armed conflict and HIV and AIDS.
- Street and working children.

Disadvantaged Groups: Disadvantage is essentially similar to poverty but it is multi-dimensional. It considers all aspects of a person's life and not only income or expenditure. People see themselves as disadvantaged to the extent they are denied access to and use of the same tools found useful by the majority of society. These tools include:

- Autonomy.
- Incentive.
- Responsibility.
- Self-respect.
- Community support.
- Health.
- Education.
- Information.
- Employment.
- Capital.
- Responsive support systems.

For disadvantaged people resources (employment, capital, etc.) may be unavailable in sufficient quantity to certain groups and opportunities might be limited. If available, resources could still be inaccessible to certain groups, because of the cost, poor design, locale or distance, or lack of publicity. Tools may be made available selectively to only the "deserving" of the group. Or they may be rationed in little quantity restricting full group's access or participation.

Disadvantaged groups are unappreciated, devalued, or derided by the larger society. If a group is seen as not being able to offer much, little is offered to it.

Government practices such as institutionalised responses (government, programmes, agencies, systems) to the plight of certain groups may be inadequate or counterproductive.

Their deplorable plight may also be due to the current corporate practices. The labour or other forms of contribution are generally undervalued in the market-place. With undervaluation, there is greater opportunity for exploitation, harassment, and other forms of inequitable treatment.

Individuals disadvantaged by a particular situation may not be organised as a group. Redressing the system, promoting effective leadership from within, or even appealing for support requires organisation of a group.

Deprivation

If you know the word "deprive" – meaning to keep something away from someone – then you are close to knowing what deprivation means.

Deprivation refers to a serious lack of certain essentials such as food, housing, mobility or services. A state of deprivation means something is missing, and the situation is serious. For example, if you are suffering from "sleep deprivation," you have not slept for a long time.

The domains on which deprivation is based and assessed are:



- Income.
- Employment.
- Health and disability.
- Education and skills.
- Barriers to housing and services.
- Living environment.
- Crime.

From this broad definition of deprivation, the following groups of rural population can be classified as deprived population groups. It is for meeting the special needs of these groups, we will identify below for each distinct group a set of meaningful and practical skills that will promote their livelihood and would help them alleviate their poverty.



Rural people are the most deprived people in any country. But within each rural population you will also find minority rural population groups who are further marginalised. They fall within the trap of abject poverty. They need typical skills to meet their special needs in addition to those which they commonly share with their fellow friends.

Several categories of these rural minority groups are discussed below in terms of their special needs. However, we have identified the following six major groups for analytical purposes. These minority and disadvantaged population groups are:

- Nomads.
- People living in mountainous areas.
- Migrant farm workers.
- Refugees and displaced people.
- People with disabilities.
- People with HIV/AIDS.

3.1 Why Marginalised Rural People Need Special Attention

The well-being of marginalised rural people (MRP) depends upon many factors. One responsible factor that immediately comes to our mind is the availability of good-paying jobs. But this is not the only factor. There are other equally important factors such as: access to critical services such as education, health care, communication, and a healthy natural environment. You should not forget that the challenges to well-being faced by the MRP are very different in rural areas from those in urban areas.

For instance, the costs of providing critical services to MRP living in a small-scale, low-density settlement pattern are very high. Declining jobs and income in non-farm activities and natural resource-based rural enterprises can also force them to find new ways to make a living. Often those new ways are found only in town and cities.

Within this context of rural deprivation several tools or resources are needed to meet the special needs of MRP. The factors that explain the reasons for giving them special considerations include:

 Autonomy or non-dependence: Quite often in your meetings with your community members you might have heard the word "autonomy".
 MRP hardly command any autonomy.



- Autonomy: is a state in which a group is allowed and encouraged to develop in ways that are true to its principles, ideals, and capacities. It suggests that we have to identify ways and means for empowering the MRP groups to create, use, and maintain the tools needed to overcome deprivation.
- Incentive for development: MRP groups need support in their efforts to achieve self-sufficiency. You have to believe in the promise of fulfilment of their expectations. You should know that provision of too many existing resources to these groups in fact performs a disservice, by reinforcing dependency or by falling short of their expectations, thereby challenging the reality of self-development.
- Decision-making responsibility: The opportunity to participate in decisions for MRP that will affect their livelihood and well-being is almost non-existent.
- Self-respect: One of the basic requirements of MRP is self-sufficiency.
 MRP require personal and emotional energy that comes from self-respect. Minority groups who are denied their own dignity and self-respect have difficulty accessing or using the tools for participating in society. Without self-respect, there is diminished energy and incentive to become self-sufficient.
- Community of support: MRP need each other to form a base of support for creating, using, and maintaining the tools for self-sufficiency.
 Communities of support are found in one's own family, cultural identity, neighbourhood, and common circumstance.
- Health: Good health is vital to self-sufficiency. Energy is drained by poor health, such that access to or full use of available tools is limited for MRP.
- Education: Education that enables self-sufficiency hardly enhances and promotes the values of each minority group's culture. It should be relevant to their values, to one's own potential for development and to employment opportunities.

- Information: Minority groups need to know about opportunities and tools available to them and to know how to use them to effectively promote the group's development.
- Employment: The mere fact of employment, at a subsistence-level income, is not sufficient for becoming self-sufficient. What is needed for minority groups is "just" employment. They need employment which is free from limiting, damaging meaningful work, safe work, exploitation-free workplace and career development and advancement opportunities.
- Capital: While capital is obviously needed to be self-sufficient, these
 groups are generally denied the opportunity to create or keep capital, or
 to play a self-serving role in financial institutions. Often, government or
 corporate practices serve to keep capital away from smaller institutions
 that could develop their self-sufficiency.
- Responsive support systems: These include accessible transportation, safety and security, food and clothing, strong neighbourhoods, social services, advocacy and influence, and social, recreational and aesthetic opportunities.



To better understand the poverty among MRP in our community, we need to examine the economic and social context of our community, including local institutions, market, the community and the households directly or indirectly involved.

Extreme poverty is common in rural communities, but the experiences of different groups of people who live with it are not all the same. We must not forget



that while there are common characteristics of life in extreme poverty, some groups of people face very specific challenges to their ability to live with security and dignity.

It is necessary for you to be sensitive to these differences when considering how to help "the underserved poor". You should not lump these divergent experiences together.

- Trouble with jobs: Poor MRP face job worries, due to factors such as seasonal changes in demand for agricultural labour. For MRP, this insecurity is made worst by the fact that they are often paid less than other labourers for the same work. As a result, MRP and particularly those that are headed by women are vulnerable to the effects of fluctuations in labour demand and health shocks. This desperate situation forces many ethnic groups to sell their labour in advance for an even lower rate during the lean seasons, and work for longer hours just to feed their families.
- Migration pressures: For many MRP, lack of jobs forces migration to find work in neighbouring areas, with some even taking temporary residence in other districts and sending money back to the household. MRP workers tend to migrate less than their other rural counterparts because of worries based on past experiences of discrimination that if they leave their living place to find work, their land or homestead might be occupied by others illegally and they might end up homeless. Certain cultural beliefs also play their role. Elderly people have a tendency to lie with them "they will be very displeased if their adults leave-homes". A majority of extremely poor MRP are unlikely to move to find better wages, making their situation even worst.
- Challenges at school: Generally, educational facilities for MRP are limited and are of poor quality. This has prompted recent efforts from the government, private sector and NGOs to make primary education comparatively more accessible. However, children of MRP face different barriers in school. Government primary schools use national lan-

guage as the language of instruction in schools. But there are rarely primary school provisions for instruction in the mother tongue of MRP groups, making it difficult for their children to compete at school in the national language and/or English language with their classmates. Coupled with existing social and cultural differences between MRP and majority population groups, a disproportionately high number of ethnic children drop out and thus remain illiterate. This is likely to result in low wages when they attain adulthood.

• Political barriers: Extremely poor MRP face distinct political barriers to their development. They are affected by political marginalisation. Even in areas where they make up a reasonable proportion of the population, they generally struggle to compete for political representation, access to credit facilities, education, experience and political networks.

The MRP are not all "alike". Thinking of them as a homogenous group of needy citizens will be detrimental in any poverty alleviation effort.

Four recurrent themes emerge from the above:

- Poor access to information and advice: This is generally due to lack
 of knowledge about relevant sources of advice and information and
 how to access these.
- Language and communication barriers: The inability to communicate effectively affects peoples' ability to access to services, such as health, housing and employment and to engage with wider communities.
- Lack of cultural sensitivity in the delivery of services: Rural service providers have little experience of addressing the requirements of diverse MRP. They tend to treat the minority ethnic population as a homogeneous group.



Lack of capacity: There is a serious lack of capacity to influence policy and service planning decisions and delivery. This is partly due to the heterogeneous and scattered nature of the households.



5.1 Nomads

Nomads (pastoralist) are widely recognised by government and international institutions alike as marginalised groups in terms of health provision, sanitation and education due to their nomadic way of life. Indeed, pastoralists' non-sedentary way of life translates to a unique set of development and educational needs as well as vulnerabilities to environmental changes (drought) and conflict. There has been an increased desire to address these educational and development needs over the past few years but complications remain.

Nomad: A nomad means someone roaming about for pasture. A nomad is a member of a community of people who move from one place to another, either with their livestock or subsisting on hunting and gathering. Nomads do not settle permanently in one location.

Many cultures have traditionally been nomadic, but nomadic behaviour is increasingly rare in industrialised countries.

Nomads are classified into three major categories of economic specialisation. They are:

- Hunter-gatherers (foragers) seasonally hunting wild animals and gathering plants.
- Pastoral nomads raising herds and driving them or moving with them.
- Peripatetic nomads offering services such as craft and trade.

Nomadism is a lifestyle adapted to infertile regions such as steppe, tundra, or desert, where mobility is the most efficient strategy for exploiting scarce resources.

Common Characteristics

Most nomadic groups follow a fixed annual or seasonal pattern of movements and settlements. Nomadic people traditionally travel by animal or canoe or on foot. Today, some nomads travel by motor vehicle. Most nomads live in tents or other portable shelters.

Nomads keep moving for different reasons. Nomadic foragers move in search of game, edible plants and water. Some others move from camp to camp to hunt and to gather wild plants. Pastoral nomads (also known as Bedouin in the Arab States) make their living by raising livestock, such as camels, cattle, goats, horses, sheep, or yaks. These nomads travel to find water and pastures for their herds. Nomadic craftworkers and merchants travel to find and serve customers.

In India, for instance, nomads are salt traders, fortune-tellers, conjurers, Ayurve-da (local herbs) healers, jugglers, acrobats, story tellers, snake charmers, animal doctors, tattooists, grindstone makers, basket-makers or "lohars" (blacksmiths). There are about 500 nomadic groups in India, numbering an estimated 80 million people – around 7 percent of the country's billion-plus population.



Among all nomads, peripatetic nomads are the most neglected and discriminated social group in developing countries. They have lost their livelihood niche because of drastic changes in transport, industries, production, entertainment and distribution systems. Though very poor and deprived they are still not facilitated with any constitutional safeguard and concern.

Nomads generally travel in groups of families called "bands" or "tribes" or "qabila". These groups are based on kinship and marriage ties or on formal agreements of cooperation. A council of adult males makes most of the decisions, though some tribes have chiefs.

Pastoral nomad societies can have large populations such as Mongols (Mongolia).

The nomadic way of life has become increasingly rare. Many governments dislike nomads because it is difficult to control their movement and to obtain taxes from them. Many countries have converted pastures into cropland and forced nomadic peoples into permanent settlements.

Special Needs of Nomads

Nomads do not stay and settle at one place. They are non-sedentary. As such the traditional education skills training provisions are not good enough to meet their special education and learning needs.

The pastoralist nomadic way of life is usually seen as a hindrance for young people wishing to access good quality education and skills training. Indeed, for those who are considered "rootless" due to the communities' continual movement, traditional formal schooling is often irrelevant. Permanent school buildings are of little use. The fixed full-time lessons interfere with their daily domestic and agricultural duties.

Development agencies and governments trying to deliver vocational skills training to nomadic and pastoralist youth have been faced with similar difficulties as many vocational skills training programmes are usually delivered in vocational

skills centres which are fully equipped with all the relevant materials and equipment.

Another issue is the type of skills which are relevant to these nomadic pastoralist communities. Indeed, some governments tend to provide skills for people wishing to settle as farmers or in town. On the other hand the international agencies, such as UN and NGOs, want to give skills that will help to improve the pastoralist way of life (such as health, sanitation and better livestock management).

But the real question is what do pastoralist communities want? What skills do young men and women living in pastoralist communities want to acquire? Do they want skills which will help them to settle in town or skills that will help improve their lives as pastoralists? What skills do they feel would be most useful for either way of life? Do young pastoralist men and women want the same things as the pastoralist community elders?

They need a unique set of skills that may effectively address their poverty as well as vulnerabilities to environmental changes (drought) and conflict. This section aims at addressing these crucial questions in order to give pastoralist individuals the resources and skills necessary to tackle the problems confronting their own lives and communities.

Identifying Special Skills Needs of Nomad Pastoralists – the Approach

Skills for income generation: In order to identify skills for income generation of nomad pastoralists, the first thing you have to know is: Which skills the nomads want. For this you have to design a questionnaire and train at least 5 investigators/outreach officers on how to conduct a simple research on the views of nomadic and pastoralist communities about the skills most needed for their communities. (See Annex 5.1 for questionnaires for semi-structures interviews with youth, elders and community leaders of all types of nomadic pastoralist communities in your community).



You should make sure that each investigator conducts interviews in 3 different nomadic pastoralist communities and that in each community this would include one-to-one interviews with three young people, with at least one young man and one young woman from each community. The investigators should also interview at least one elder and one community leader from each community.

Opinions of young pastoralist men and women: Once you have interviewed all the concerned persons and filled the questionnaires, then your next task would be to identify a series of critical skills which would be useful for young people wishing to remain in their nomadic community. The most commonly identified skills may be, for example:

- Basic health and midwife skills.
- Training in conservation of the environment.
- Veterinary.
- Farming skills.
- Bee keeping skills.

Other skills such as accountancy, engine driver, teacher, typing and computer skills may also be identified but list only those five skills which are mentioned by majority of participants.

You should also find out separately the specific interests of, for example, boys and girls and other participants. You may find that girls and women are more interested in basic health and bee keeping skills whilst boys and men prefer veterinary, farming and training in conservation of the environment skills.

Similarly, identify skills which would be useful for young men and women wishing to move to town.

The most common skills selected for nomad pastoralists wishing to move to town may be as follows:

- Tailoring skills.
- Handicrafts skills.
- Carpentry skills.
- Electrician skills.
- Mechanic skills.

You may find that girls and women are interested in gaining tailoring and handy craft skills whilst carpentry and electrician are the most valuable skills for men wishing to move into town. You may also find that many young people want to pursue learning literacy and numeracy at a more advanced level in order to become teachers within their community.

Once you have done this, prepare a summary table highlighting the preferred skills by genders and urban-rural aspirations.

- Skills which are sought exclusively by boys and men are carpentry skills, electrician skills and mechanics skills.
- Skills which are sought exclusively by girls and women are basic health and midwifery, tailoring and handy craft.
- Skills which are sought by both girls/women and boys/men are: training in conservation of the environment, farming, veterinary and bee keeping skills.
- Skills exclusively identified as relevant for those wishing to move to towns:
 - Carpentry.
 - ► Mechanic.
 - ► Electrician.
- Tailoring and handicraft (being identified as useful in both rural and urban context).
- Skills exclusively identified as relevant for those wishing to remain in the nomadic community:



- Training in basic health and midwifery.
- Training in conservation of the environment.
- Veterinary skills.
- Farming skills.
- Bee keeping skills.
- Skills identified as being relevant to both contexts (urban and rural):
 - ► Tailoring.
 - Handicraft skills.

Opinions of Community Elders

You may find that elders, in general, may agree with the young peoples' selections of various skills. But the elders and community leaders may wish to emphasise and express their preference for skills which would enable young people to improve their lives as pastoralists rather than encourage them to move to town. This might be due to the crucial importance of the work done by young people within the community.

The work of young people (which includes, amongst other things, rearing animals and helping with household chores) is essential for the very survival of their families and for the community in general. A majority of parents and community leaders interviewed may tell you this is the reason why young people should stay in their nomadic communities. The remaining may give the main reason why young people should stay in their village as they need to keep pastoralist culture alive by passing down pastoralist related knowledge to future generations.

During the focus group discussions with parents and elders, it may be revealed that various factors which might contribute to pushing young people into moving to towns were limited or non-existent education opportunities in the villages, limited and/or non-existent employment opportunities in the communities as well as the non-availability of health services in the villages or a combination of these factors.

Based on this analysis of skills needs of different groups, now your next task would be to find out which skills are currently available in your community.

After your research you may find, for example, the host of vocational skills from which beneficiaries can choose:

- Basic health and midwife skills.
- Training in conservation of the environment.
- Tailoring.
- Veterinary.
- Carpenter skills.
- Farming skills.
- Handicraft skills.
- Bee keeping skills.

Practical Implementation of Vocational Skills Courses

There are several possibilities of implementing vocational skills courses. For instance, some countries organise vocational skills training over a period of 8-12 months by giving vouchers to participants which they can use to obtain the training that they want. However, this system of delivery of vocational skills training may not be successful. The main reason is that the voucher system usually implies that students go to a centre/school where trainers are based in order to receive the training.

However, given the nature of the communities you aim to reach, it will be practically impossible to have vocational skills students to travel to the centres based in towns in order to receive training.

Further, it would be very hard to ensure regular attendance from students living in scattered communities usually situated very far away from towns. It would also be difficult for you to cover the financial costs of bringing the participants to vocational skills centres on a regular basis.



In a situation like this, it would be preferable to discuss this with local partners and community representatives. Following discussions with the community representatives, you may come up with another approach - having the trainers travel to the communities and deliver the training on site.

It will be more appropriate and practical for the trainers (rather than the participants in vocation skills training programme) to travel. For your community, it would be meaningful and doable if you chose initially two skills (one for women and one for men) to start with. The trainers should be asked to visit the communities on a rotation basis: each trainer spending 2 to 4 days a month with your community before moving onto the next one.

Mobile schools: The children of nomad pastoralists need access to primary schooling. A pragmatic solution practiced in many countries is the "mobile school". Mobile schools use collapsible classrooms that can be assembled or disassembled within thirty minutes and carried conveniently by pack bulls. A whole classroom and its furniture may be hauled by only four pack animals. Motor caravans are replacing pack animals in moving the classrooms. A typical mobile unit consists of three classrooms, each with spaces for fifteen to twenty children. A mobile unit is cheaper than a regular classroom. Some of the classrooms are equipped with audio-visual teaching aids (Boxes 5.1 and 5.2).

Radio and television education: A pastoral is a captive audience for radio and television programmes. The literate world can reach pastoralists without disrupting their herding. To improve literacy especially in rural areas, the government should introduce radio and television educational programmes. The government should supply the hardware such as radio, television and electric generator.

Box 5.1

Nomadic Knowledge of the Yak

There is no formal piece of literature that dictates how these clever humans [Mongolian nomads] survive. Their lifestyle requires a vast skill set spanning from construction knowledge, to navigational skills, to a deep understanding of their animals. One attains this knowledge through years of observation, listening, and attempting to mimic their parents. In this way, knowledge is passed on from one generation to the next. Investigating herder's knowledge of the yak provides a window into the animal husbandry practices of Mongolian nomads. The herders in the central Khangai Mountains of Mongolia rely heavily on the yak for milk, meat, rope, and labour. Herders select and breed these animals based on an informal set of criteria. For example, to produce the most milk possible, bulls used to breed these animals are not selected for one specific trait. Instead the bulls are selected based on a multitude of traits, because herders' use of the yak is based less on profit, and more on subsistence. Through examination of the yak and the oral history surrounding it, underlying connections between herders and their animals can be realised.

Source: Geary, J. (2011): "Nomadic Knowledge of the Yak: A Case Study in the Khangai Mountains, Mongolia".

Box 5.2

Nomads of the Tibetan Plateau Rangelands

Nomadic pastoralism has been described as one of the great advances in the evolution of human civilisation. It is an adaptation by men to grassland areas of the world where extensive livestock production is more supportive of human culture than cultivated agriculture. When people specialise in animal husbandry that requires periodic movement of their livestock they are known as nomadic pastoralists, or more commonly, just nomads.....



Box 5.2

Tibetan nomads, who have been herding livestock on the Tibetan Plateau for millennia, have acquired considerable knowledge about the rangelands and the animals they herd. Unfortunately, nomads' vast indigenous ecological knowledge and animal husbandry skills are often not well recognised or appreciated by scientists and development planners working in Tibetan pastoral areas. As a result, nomads have often been left out of the development process, with neither their knowledge nor their needs and desires considered by many governments and development agencies in introducing more 'modern' and 'scientific' methods of livestock production. The indigenous knowledge and skills that nomads already possess must be incorporated and built upon when designing new pastoral interventions if sustainable development is to be achieved on the Tibetan Plateau.

Pastoral development programmes must involve the nomads themselves in the design and implementation of activities. Nomads' needs and desires must be listened to and the vast body of indigenous knowledge nomads possess about rangeland resources has to be put to use when designing new pastoral development projects. Understanding the aims, purposes, and goals of the nomads is one of the keys to sustainable pastoral development on the Tibetan Plateau. Nomads must be active participants in all aspects of the development process and they need to be empowered to make decisions and to manage their own development.

Source: http://www.fao.org/ag/agp/AGPC/doc/ESSAYS/Fao12.htmSource: Geary, J. (2011): "Nomadic Knowledge of the Yak: A Case Study in the Khangai Mountains, Mongolia".

People Living in Mountainous Areas

People use mountains as climbers. Tourists visit them for scenery. Farmers graze animals. Water authorities make reservoirs and pump the water to towns and cities. Forestry companies grow coniferous forest and harvest wood on them. They are fragile reservoirs of natural resources such as glaciers, copper, wood and gas. But mountain areas are not only important sources of freshwater and global hotspots of biodiversity, they are also home for millions of people worldwide, expression of a rich cultural diversity.

It has been estimated that 12 per cent of the world's 6.8 billion people live in mountain areas. That means there are about 750 million people living in mountain areas. The Alps are the most densely populated mountain area in the world. 13 million people live in the Alps. Nearly half (340 million) of these people live in mountains in the Asia/Pacific region.

Living in mountains is not a simple task. Mountains can be very difficult to cross. They are often rugged and filled with forests and wild animals, such as bears and wolves. They may have no natural "passes" or easy places to cross the mountains. Mountains can also be hard to climb or may have ice or snow or glaciers that make travel dangerous.

All this means that crossing over mountains - to trade goods or to fight a war - can be tough to do. Sometimes, people who live surrounded by mountains feel very isolated from the world around them. It is just too difficult to cross over to other lands.

Mountain specificities must be considered in order to formulate innovative and inclusive mountain-sensitive strategies which will promote new and diverse livelihood options in mountain areas.

The focus of this section of the module is to meet the following objectives:

- Knowing mountains and mountain people.
- Understanding poverty and livelihood options of mountain people.
- Promoting and developing innovative poverty reduction practices and approaches for mountain people.



Knowing Mountains and Mountain People

 A mountain is a large landform that stretches above the surrounding land in a limited area, usually in the form of a peak.

A mountain is generally steeper than a hill. Mountains are formed by volcanic activity. These forces can locally raise the surface of the earth by over 10,000 feet (3,000 metre). Mountains erode slowly through the action of rivers, weather conditions and glaciers.

High elevations on mountains produce colder climates than at sea level. These colder climates strongly affect the ecosystem of mountains: different elevations have different plants and animals. Because of the less hospitable terrain and climate, mountains tend to be used less for agriculture and more for resource extraction and recreation, such as mountain climbing.

Most of the world's rivers are fed from mountain sources, with snow acting as a storage mechanism for downstream users. More than half of humanity depends on mountains for water.

Mountain tourism now accounts for almost one-fifth of global tourism revenues, or about US \$70-90 billion annually; yet mountain communities share little of the profits.

You know that an estimated 12 per cent (750 million) of the world's 6.8 billion people live in mountain areas. The Alps in Europe are the most densely populated mountain area in the world. 13 million people live in the Alps. Nearly half (340 million) of these people live in mountains in the Asia/Pacific region. The Hindu Kush Himalayan Region (HKH) of Central Asia includes Nepal, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Pakistan, India, China, Myanmar and Afghanistan.

Mountain people are amongst the poorest and hungriest. A majority of the people in the mountain areas live in poverty conditions. Development has not been able to reach many remote and inaccessible areas of the mountains.

Mountain people depend on natural and land resources for subsistence. They have minimal access to participation in decision-making and to education, health care, and markets. Very few technologies, policies or laws exist to promote their sustainable development or to protect the natural resources on which their future – and all of ours – depend.

The environment in which they live and work is rugged and coarse. They are the overlooked stewards of fragile landscapes. They support over 10 per cent of the world's total population. They protect the watersheds that ensure freshwater for more than half of humanity.

Food and food habits differ from one mountainous country to another. For instance, in high Tibetan plateau, the key for survival is yak. Not only is the yak an all-terrain vehicle for hauling goods, but it also furnishes the Tibetan people with meat, wool, milk, cheese and butter. The mountain people also use the yak hides to make portable tents for the herdsmen, and they burn the yak dung for heating and cooking. These people pay some of their expenses in yak's milk butter.

Mountain people are facing a host of challenges. They are:

- Geographical isolation.
- Hard weather conditions.
- Geophysical risks.
- Water management difficulties.
- Weak waste and sewage management systems.
- Rural education.
- Local cattle's impact on conservation parks.
- Lack of accessibility and connectivity with narrow and dangerous roads.
- Indigenous cultures or livelihoods under risk of extinction.



Municipalities and/or local governments do not know or they do not use truly participative methodologies to guarantee an effective participation. They do not advocate for the weakest people's welfare. Local institutions' employees do not know simple facilitation techniques.

While national governments, local communities, and other development partners in large number of developing countries are making efforts to improve mountain livelihoods and conserve the environment, the results have been varied.

Livelihood Options of Mountain People

Most of the mountain areas have not been able to adequately harness their unique resources to improve mountain livelihoods because of inadequate and unfavourable policies towards mountains. Harnessing mountain niches appropriately through better management of natural resources, application of technologies and new methods of production, and exchange do generate employment and income opportunities in the mountains. However, the cultivation of off-season vegetables, fruits, medicinal plants, and appropriate use of non-timber based forest products and other unique resources of the mountains demonstrate their high potential to provide viable bases for households to rise above poverty and subsistence.

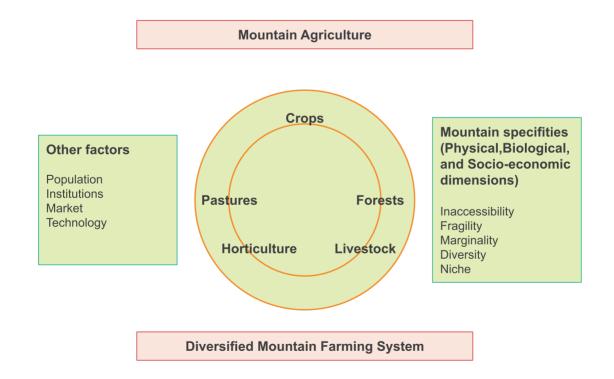
Harnessing mountain resources for hydro-electricity, tourism development and for the production of food and non-food products for urban centres and conserving resources to generate valuable environmental services, among others, can create new employment and income opportunities in these areas. Human resources development, on the other hand, is vital for all-round development of the mountain regions.

Agriculture System and Framework for Mountain Livelihood

You have seen above the problems encountered by the mountain people and how they differ from one geographical region to another and from one population group to another. A multi-pronged strategy is the vital option to address the natural, physiographic and socio-economic challenges of mountains to improve people's livelihood and food security. Figures 5.1 and 5.2 show the agriculture system and framework respectively to help you identify skills and strategies for better livelihoods of mountain people.



Figure 5.1: Mountain Agriculture System



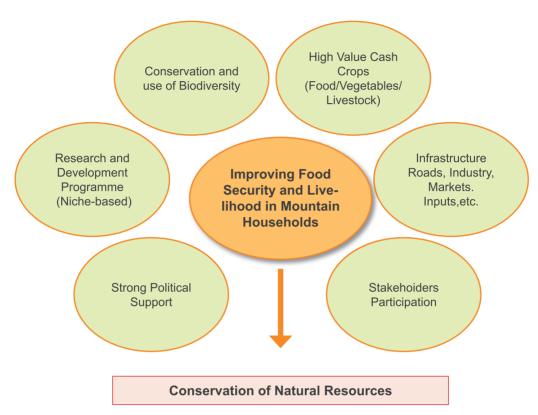


Figure 5.1: Agriculture Framework for Mountain Livelihood

Livelihoods in the mountainous areas are based primarily on:

- Subsistence agriculture.
- Animal husbandry.
- Extraction of natural resources.

Employment growth in areas other than traditional subsistence agriculture and animal husbandry is minimal in most mountainous regions. Out-migration of young men from the mountain areas is occurring at unprecedented rates, and the feminisation of mountain labour is increasing.



In mountain areas, livelihood options are often linked to a range of:

- Economic activities.
- Products.
- Productivity of cereal farming.
- Natural assets of mountains.
- Economic and human assets.

Within this context, the basic issue is: How can we motivate the mountain people in harnessing mountain resources for improving their livelihoods?

Following are three areas through which you can help improve the livelihood conditions of mountain people:

- Producing and marketing of food and non-food products for urban centres.
- Conserving resources to generate valuable environmental services.
- Creating new gainful employment and income opportunities.

Livelihood Analysis

For proposing effective livelihood interventions, it is important that a livelihood analysis of mountain people in cluster of villages under your responsibility be carried out. The following simple formula is proposed for calculating the Livelihood Sustainability Index to know the livelihood sustainability of mountain people.

Livelihood Sustainability Index (LSI) = In (Fa+Bu+Gs+La) - Ex (Fo+Sh+Cl+Ed+Ot) = Sa

Where "In" stands for income, "Fa" for farming, "Bu" for business, "Gs" for government service, "La" for labour, "Ex" for expenditure, "Fo" for food, "Sh"



for shelter, "Cl" for cloth, "Ed" for education, "Ot" for others and "Sa" for saving. The objective of the formulation of this index is to understand the level of sustainability in livelihood. Based upon this formula, you can calculate Livelihood Sustainability Index at both village level and household level. Higher the savings (Sa), higher will be the livelihood sustainability of mountain people.

Following are some critical areas where you can work in close participation and involvement of your mountain people to improve their livelihoods.

Conservation of natural resources: The vast amount of natural resources available in the mountain plays a key role in the livelihood of people. In almost all the mountainous regions of developing countries there has been a significant loss of natural resources that have affected people's livelihood. There has been a reckless exploitation of natural resources in the mountain.

With the participation of local people you can promote the introduction of new agricultural technologies that do not distort environment and product quality and correct the causes of unsustainability.

Agriculture on marginal land: The vast amount of marginal sloppy land provides a big hope for future. Marginal lands have been over exploited and misused leading to increased poverty, soil degradation and loss of natural resources. Suitable agriculture and forestry enterprises and their technologies need to be developed and implemented for increased income, employment and sustainability. It is equally important that necessary infrastructure, logistics inputs and marketing system are in place to bring about desired impacts.

Management of soil: There is a large amount of soil and nutrient loss in the mountainous regions. Necessary on-farm soil conservation and fertility management approaches are vital to sustainable agriculture and innovative technological breakthrough. It is important to develop high yielding varieties of crops and technology that do not aggravate the problems.

Management of agro-biodiversity: The mountain farming communities have evolved strategies for harnessing their rich source of local agro-biodiversity for food security and for improving livelihoods.

Conservation of the available agro-biodiversity and their careful utilisation for economic and environmental benefit to the mountain community provide a strong hope for long-term sustainability (Box 5.3). They provide an important source of genetic resources for crops, herbs, species and floriculture. Further, the indigenous skill on management and use of these valuable assets is another dimension of science and technology for research and development.

In China success stories for the production of eucalyptus oil, anti-cancer drug, steroid hormones and many other medicinal plants as well as valuable forest products have helped transform the farming system while promoting the agro-biodiversity for economic and ecological benefits.

Box 5.3

Fruit Farming on Marginal Farms

Rapid economic transformation has taken place on marginal farms in India through apple faming. Majority of the farmers (80%) have small farms 0.5-2.0 ha of sloping land, produce a net return of US\$ 2,700/ha/year. The farming system has changed from subsistence crop-base to fruit farming including livestock component. It has increased food security and living standard. The adoption of the niche friendly production system on large areas of marginal farms in the temperate region made a huge economic and environmental impact. There are sufficient evidences to show that fruit farming on marginal lands is a superior production option both economically and ecologically.

Similarly, fruit farming has brought economic transformation in Pakistan (Gilgit) supported by Aga Khan Rusal Support Project. In China, west Sichuan, the biophysical condition suitable for apple and pear farming, had very limited programme due to lack of transport and research and development programmes. With priority programmes and support from the Government, the state has now commercial production system and has transformed their livelihood.



Cardamom and ginger cultivation: Cardamom and ginger farming on the forest floors of Sikkim and Eastern hills of Nepal present an example of technical feasibility of developing economically productive and ecologically sound and stable production system on the marginal and sloping areas.

Off-season vegetable production: Off-season vegetable production has brought economic transformation in many mountain areas (Box 5.4). Necessary technological breakthrough, transportation and marketing systems are vital to bring impacts for their commercialisation and impact on economy.

Box 5.4

Off-season Vegetable Cultivation

In Sichuan Basin of China, off-season vegetables have covered an area of 3,933 hectare with a production of 94,000 tons valuing US\$ 8.48 million. Similar examples are available in India and Nepal where utilising the mountain niches, off-season vegetable production is getting highly remunerative in recent years, to improve livelihood and economy of mountain farmers through direct and indirect effects in income and employment. In certain mountain niches of Nepal, off-season vegetable production has gone on commercial scale and transformed their livelihood. A good crop of tomato or cucumber can bring up to US\$ 5000/hectare net return in 120 days.

Vegetable seed production: Mountain agro-environments provide an excellent avenue for quality vegetable seed production. Several national and international companies are attracted to seed production in the mountains. Vegetable seed production has become a very attractive enterprise, but due to lack of suitable varieties, production, processing and marketing system, farmers have faced several constraints. However, several international companies have made concerted efforts to correct this situation. This has helped to make a shift from subsistence to semi-commercial farming to improve living and food security.

Other potential enterprises: Tea, coffee, citrus and dry-fruits, honey, mushrooms could be other potential enterprises. Also, identification of suitable livestock enterprises for milk, meat, skin and fibre could be potential alternatives that suit well in the system without environment and natural resource degradation (Box 5.5).

Development of necessary infrastructures, input supplies, industries and marketing system and other logistic supports are vital to bring sustainable impacts. Strong national, regional and global commitments are vital with priority research and development programmes for improving food security and livelihood of mountain people through a collective participatory approach.

Box 5.5

China: Women's Income-generating Activities in the Wuling Mountains

A 1996 IFAD study provides detailed information on the lives of the Miao and Dong minority groups in the Wuling mountains of China. This is a poor area, with little in the way of infrastructure or services. People grow subsistence crops and raise a few pigs and cows when they can afford them. Fuel wood, water, health services, education services and many other things are in short supply. Poverty in the area is aggravated by the land-to-population ratio: the study estimates that there is only 0.0041 acre of land per person. Lack of effective irrigation and the inability to afford fertilisers or other inputs limits yields. Increasingly, people turn to other sources of income, such as wage labour, to survive. Many younger women are engaged in part-time work. But wages are low, especially for the uneducated women. The women interviewed often said that they would prefer to have small income-generating activities that they could carry out at home, and combine with their child care and other domestic responsibilities. The two main areas of skills and interests among women are handicrafts and livestock-raising.



Box 5.5

Handicrafts

Miao women are highly skilled in such handicrafts as embroidery, wax printing and gold and silver jewellery making. Except for peak seasons in agriculture, women spend all their free time on handicrafts, working long hours after housework is done.

Their skills in embroidery are particularly notable, as evidenced by their own elegant clothing, even among the poor. Girls learn to embroider at an early age, working on children's hats, clothing and items for their dowry, and sewing clothing for the dead. The researchers estimate that one suit of clothing takes about two to three years to make, from the point of raising silkworms, spinning, making cloth and dying, sewing and embroidering it. The embroidered motifs are rich in traditional symbols. Embroidery skills are important for girls' marital chances, but do not bring corresponding financial rewards, if many hours of labour are taken into consideration.

However the study notes that in some villages, where there is access to regular local fairs and fairs held on national holidays, women are actively marketing handicrafts and earning some income from them. Estimates are not available. The study indicates that women do the marketing themselves. Some women even travel to cities such as Beijing or Kunming for marketing purposes.

Livestock raising

Both Miao and Dong women raise livestock, such as cattle, pigs, sheep and chickens. Raising pigs and chickens is seen as women's responsibility, and women play a leading role in decision-making in this area. Pigs are particularly popular. Many Miao and Dong women told the researchers that they felt they could raise four pigs a year, in addition to carrying out their agricultural and domestic responsibilities, which would result in a net income of RMB 2,400 in 1996. The study found Miao and Dong women to be

Box 5.5

enthusiastic about livestock-raising.

Where access to credit is available for raising cattle or pigs, livestock loans can be repaid within a year. However, the study found that the complex and lengthy procedures involved in credit application can undermine the profitability of the livestock enterprise because of market fluctuations in the price of livestock.

Women's Other Income-generating Activities

While the study did not detail other income-generating activities, it noted that in one village that was fairly close to a main highway, some women had jointly established a shop. Women's ability to earn an income from raising vegetables or other crops was found to be restricted by their lack of access to land. Even when a woman inherits a portion of her parents' field, she often has to leave it behind when she marries. And in any case, family plots are too small to permit market production.

Women's skills and interests in handicrafts and livestock-raising could create the basis for income-generating activities. Miao and Dong women have an active interest in obtaining loans, especially for livestock.

Source: Adapted from He Zhongua and Xi Yuhua 1996. The Investigation Report of IFAD about Miao and Dong Nationality Autonomous Prefecture in Southeast Guizhou Province, Rome: IFAD.

Migrant and Seasonal Farm Workers

Pockets of fragile natural resources and low agriculture production have become large-scale exporters of labour, forcing people to move to better-endowed regions. Often the only resource the rural migrants bring to urban settings is their physical labour and a desperate quest to earn and return. Sectors such as construction, mining, transportation, vending, hotel and restaurants, small manufacturing and food processing are their major employers.



Migrant workers earn poorly. They have few prospects for advancement. They are routinely subject to unfair labour practices. Not surprisingly therefore the labour and employment opportunities available to the migrants are usually short-term and highly prone to fluctuations in the market.

Wages tend to remain poor in the case of casual labour in cities or farm labour in rural areas. Working and living conditions are appalling and the incidence of disease and injury is high.

Coming from a background of low quality rural schooling that has provided few basic skills, tribal and rural poor migrants are unable to enter those sectors of the labour market that require at least some minimum level of education. Therefore the large employment opportunities in urban services are largely unavailable to rural migrants.

Yet migration is inevitable for the very survival of millions of rural communities. Land offers little scope for employment. Non-farm, industrial growth is hugely imbalanced thus making it almost essential for the rural poor to leave their villages to find work in distant locations.

What is the meaning of sustainable development for those regions for whom the potential of natural resources is nearly exhausted? What skills and knowledge enhancement can concurrently improve the livelihoods of migration dependent households? These are some of the questions for which all of us are seeking a solution.

You will find in this section of the module skills development programmes and activities for achieving significant improvement in livelihood opportunities of migrant and seasonal farm workers. It explores techniques for identifying new opportunities for skills up-gradation and employment of migrants.

Understanding Migrant and Seasonal Farm Workers

Migrant and seasonal farm worker are two terms generally used interchangeably because of the commonalities they have between them. Generally their life style and the problems associated with it do not differ significantly. However, there is a slight difference between the two terms.

- A migrant farm worker (MFW) is an individual who is employed in agriculture of a seasonal or other temporary nature and is required to be absent overnight from his permanent place of residence. He is required to be absent from a permanent place of residence for the purpose of seeking employment in agricultural work.
- The term seasonal farm worker (SFW) means an individual who is employed in agriculture of a seasonal or other temporary nature and is not required to be absent overnight from his permanent place of residence. SFWs are individuals who are employed in farmwork but do not move from their permanent residence to seek farm-work; they may also have other sources of employment.

MFWs and SFWs work during the prime agricultural season to help plant, maintain harvest or process produce. In some countries migrant farm workers are also known as seasonal agricultural workers, temporary workers, or guest workers. Migrant farm workers generally work at a place other than their origin for up to eight months a year working up to seven days a week.

These workers work and live on one farm throughout their stay. The majority of the workers are male, and all of them have wives or dependent families in their home countries who do not travel with them but who depend on the money they send home from their current place of work.

For example, the Chinese government has tacitly supported migration as means of providing labour for factories and construction sites and for the long term goals of transforming China from a rural-based economy to an urban-based one. Some inland cities have started providing migrants with social security, including pensions and other insurance. In 2012, there were a reported 167 million migrant workers in China, but most of them working closer to their homes.



In this module the two terms are used interchangeably. The strategies for improving their livelihoods are similar unless otherwise indicated.

Challenges Facing the Migrant and Seasonal Farm Workers

MFWs and SFWs are very poor. They remain one of the most marginalised, oppressed, and exploited groups in the world. Their children drop out of school prior to the completion of primary education. Their risk taking abilities are very limited. They depend on what they earn for themselves.

Skills development for this category of migrants who have no resources to invest in acquiring skills means that they need to be trained fast without compromising quality and rigor. Most training organised for them are residential. They are carried out in urban areas at costs that are beyond the means of virtually all participants.

Keeping in mind the very limited time that migrants can find, the training has to be short and on a fast track. You have to make sure that the emphasis of your training programmes and counselling should be on practical rather than on theoretical skills. It has to be oriented to getting good site practice and experience for seeking gainful employment.

Of all the services offered, placement services and employment counselling to migrants are an absolute must. In the absence of this support the trainees will have little chance of finding a suitable position and are likely to relapse into unskilled modes of employment or return to their villages to continue living in poverty.

You will find that informal labour markets are commonly exploitative of migrant labour. In this setting, you will be required quite often to assist victimised migrants through arbitration, legal aid or even police intervention.

The training should be organised to provide migrants with skills that will enable them to operate more effectively. In all training programmes your focus should be on improving migrants' basic competences. Their sacrifices range from separation from their place of origins and families. They navigate a foreign land where little is known about them and whose customs, language, food, and ways of life are different from what they know.

In many instances the new place brings about feelings of alienation and isolation. There is no central gathering place for them in town for community interaction and fellowship. Instead loneliness creeps in for many as they are limited to the boundaries of the farm due in part to limited access to transportation and also to their lack of legal status which reduce their access to neighbourhood businesses, services and community activities in general.

Fear of being picked up by Immigration Authorities due to their undocumented status causes many farm workers to go into hiding in the communities they work. It further contributes to the isolation that farm workers routinely experience. So in many ways, MFWs work in settings that do not mirror those of the majority of the nation's working populace.

Lifting Migrant and Seasonal Farm Workers out of Poverty

Agriculture will not be viable while the vast majority of its workforce lives in poverty. Innovative changes can break the cycle of poverty.

MFW and SFW programmes and strategies generally fall into four broad categories:

- Service provision.
- Advocacy.
- Organising.
- Enterprise development.

While addressing the issues related to the livelihoods of MFW, you need to develop a strategy with a particular emphasis on the following two critical aspects:



- An integrated and thoughtful approach to each of their programmatic areas.
- An increased attention to promoting larger change in the conditions MFWs face rather than focusing solely on providing necessary services.
- The ways in which you can help them improve working conditions should include:
 - Determining standards at the workplace like improving safety or job security.
 - Offering on-going educational opportunities for workers to increase their prospects and productivity at work.

Let us now discuss each category:

Service Provision

Here you have to work closely with like-minded community-based organisations or partners in providing services to MFW ranging from education and training (such as general education development and education for sustainable livelihood courses), computer classes, and vocational training to direct services such as job placement, food assistance, day care, or legal services.

Another area where you can help them significantly is finding a safe, secure, and stable job together with a set of necessary social and legal services. Services here refer to a wide range of direct assistance that the community-based organisations provide to individual workers in community. The essential services that need to be provided to MFW include:

- Employment training.
- Language (generally English) classes.
- Legal services.
- Access to health clinics, bank accounts, loans, and worker rights education.

Advocacy

Your advocacy efforts should include some elementary knowledge of how to:

- Improve workplace rights.
- Enhance access to social services.
- Guarantee workforce development.
- Ensure provision of healthcare.
- Create an awareness on immigrant rights.

Community Organising

This includes base-level work to improve community voice, including worker organising, neighbourhood organising, ethnic specific organising, popular education and leadership development.

Enterprise Development

MFW schemes are most likely to benefit countries of origin if they have the opportunity to gain new work experience and develop skills which can usefully be employed on their return.

Vocational training plays an important role in circular migration. For example, migrants who receive vocational training are more likely to return to their home countries than those who had received no vocational training. They also have higher probability of repeat migration.

Some organisations have developed successful enterprise development strategies in order to move workers into owners of their own.

Innovations to lift MFWs and SFWs out of poverty can simultaneously promote sustainable agriculture and development.



Support Organised Labour

Labour unions play an important role in minimising exploitation among agricultural workers by advocating for higher wages, improved living conditions, and safer work environments. You may notice that MFWs and SFWs are one of the most disempowered groups within your community and village (Box 5.6). They lack access to basic health care, education, and participation in government. Unions advocate for worker rights and fight to stop the exploitation of children.

Box 5.6

General Agricultural Workers Union (GAWU)

In Ghana, for example, 70 per cent of the country's 23 million inhabitants are involved in the agricultural sector. The General Agricultural Workers Union (GAWU) is the largest union in Ghana and represents many marginalised agricultural groups. The union supports rural communities by providing support in training, learning new skills, and microcredit. GAWU is currently investing in a youth development centre, and organises training workshops for union members. The union has campaigned for better farm wages, so that families don't have to send their children to work in the agricultural sector.

Source: ILO

By supporting community-based organisations you can help ensure that farm-workers' rights are recognised and enforced.

Include Women in Agricultural Development

Innovative technology solutions can help MFWs and SFWs ease their work burdens and increase productivity. Women are one of the most vulnerable groups among these workers (Box 5.7). Female agricultural labourers form an invisible workforce, as they often work on the fringes of the formal economy assisting

their husbands with manual labour or producing food to feed their families as opposed to food for sale.

Box 5.7

Innovative Technology for Indian Agriculture

In India there are more than 258 million people working in the agricultural sector, and up to 70 per cent of rural women are engaged in the agricultural workforce. There have been some noteworthy success stories in India around the creation of innovative technology solutions for agricultural workers. An Indian midwife, ArkhibenVankar, became known as the pesticide lady when she developed an herbal pesticide that was efficient, lowcost, and toxin-free. This innovation provided Indian women an opportunity to engage in agricultural work with an alternative to harmful chemical pesticides.

Another technological innovation was designed by Subharani Kurian, who developed a bicycle-operated duplex pump to draw up ground water. The innovation assists women based on the idea that leg muscles are more powerful than hand muscles, making a bicycle pump more effective to operate.

Source: Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India.

Lack of communication, education, and access to technology among women, particularly in developing countries, has often prevented women from receiving the same benefits and opportunities as men in the agricultural sector. According to USAID, "by empowering women farmers with the same access to land, new technologies, and capital as men, we can increase crop yields by as much as 30 per cent and feed an additional 150 million people".

Support Worker Advocacy Organisations

Another area where you can help farmers in general and MFWs and SFWs in particular is undertaking periodic surveys as a useful tool to identify and ex-



amine the risks associated with the agricultural industry and how to mitigate them in the future (Box 5.8). With such surveys you can ensure that MFWs and SFWs (vulnerable workers) do not risk losing their livelihoods. Agriculture is one of the most dangerous industries to work in due to hazardous machinery, livestock, extreme weather conditions, dehydration, and exposure to pesticides.

Box 5.8

Mitigating Agricultural Hazards: The Chinese Case

In China there are an estimated 225 million agricultural workers, but farms are increasingly worked by the youngest and oldest residents of rural communities, as many middle-aged wage workers seek employment in cities. Injuries are relatively high due to use of heavy machinery and result in several deaths and disabilities among farmworkers each year. A collaborative research project between the Colorado Injury Control Research Centre, the Centre for Injury Research and Policy at The Ohio State University, and the Tongji Injury Control Research Centre was undertaken between Chinese and American researchers to find solutions to reduce agriculturally related injuries in China. The programme has trained more than 80 researchers, published studies on agricultural injuries, and opened a centre for injury prevention in China. The project aims to provide insights on how to train agricultural workers to safely handle new machinery to avoid future injuries and deaths.

Source: IOM/ILO.

Get Involved

Local initiatives that invest in the well-being of MFWs and SFWs can effectively help change the conditions of agricultural workers. Farmworkers are often described as hidden people, usually subjected to impoverished living conditions, with limited access to basic services like water and electricity (Box 5.9).

Box 5.9

Wine and Fruit Industry: South Africa

South Africa's wine and fruit industry alone generates \$3 billion a year for the South African economy. Yet, according to a Human Rights Watch report, farmworkers benefit very little from the profits, and are often forced to live in sub-standard housing. Solms-Delta is an example of a South African wine estate that has established its own initiative, the Wijn de Caap Trust, to break the cycle of poverty among farmworkers on the Solms-Delta estate. The trust receives 33 per cent of profits from the estate's wine sales, which aims to improve the lives of farmworkers by providing quality housing, investing in education facilities for children, and providing medical care to families.

Source: USAID

Consumers can also become directly involved in community farming enterprises by volunteering or working at local farmers' markets, participating in volunteer days at nearby farms, or even apprenticing on a farm for a season.

Promote Universal Education

Education can be used from a grass-roots level to dispel ignorance and empower local communities. Agricultural workers often migrate in search of seasonal or temporary work and can be unaware of their rights due to poor education, isolation within rural areas, and fragmented organisation (Box 5.10). Education programmes can also help inform consumers on ethical considerations of food production and educate young leaders on policy formulation and advocacy.



Box 5.10

Student Action with Farmworkers – United States

For example, Student Action with Farmworkers (SAF) is an innovative non-profit organisation that uses popular education to raise awareness of issues around farmworker conditions in local US communities. SAF works with farmworkers, students, and advocates alike, and has provided support to over 80,000 farmworkers to gain access to health, legal, and education facilities.

Fair Trade USA

Fair Trade USA is an international movement that allows customers to buy products from all over the world that support poverty-reduction projects, relieve exploitation, and endorse environmental sustainability. The Fair Trade standards enable agricultural workers to work in safe and inclusive environments, follow economic trade contracts with fair pricing, improve their own living conditions, and avoid child labour. There is a growing demand from consumers for socially responsible food production; North America will soon implement its own Food Justice label. This label will also help lift American workers out of poverty by guaranteeing fair wages, adequate living conditions, and reasonable contracts.

Source: USAID.

Vote with Your Money

Consumers can choose products produced in environmentally friendly and socially responsible ways. By purchasing products that are not linked to the exploitation of agricultural labourers, they send the message to agricultural employers that consumers do not support abusive labour conditions and that they are willing to pay an often-higher price for ethically produced goods. This helps ensure that workers are paid fairly and do not work under poor conditions.

Agriculture will not be viable while the vast majority of its workforce lives in poverty around the world, and innovative measures to break this cycle of poverty, along with your contributions, are crucial to fostering a healthier food system.

Refugees and Internally Displaced People

There were 43.7 million refugees and displaced people within their country (IDPs) by events such as war and natural disasters in 2010 (UNHCR). More than half of the total refugees are children.

The figure breaks down into a global total of 15.4 million refugees, 27.5 million IDPs and a further 840,000 people waiting to be given refugee status.

Understanding refugee livelihood strategies is a prerequisite to improved interventions. Hence, this section will describe some of the most notable success stories and limitations to the mechanisms and strategies in order to stabilise and enhance their situation.

Humanitarian assistance often neglects the local context of development. Here we will have a closer look at the living conditions of host communities and their relationships with refugees followed by an overview of livelihood issues in the refugee lifecycle.

The purpose of this section of the module is to enhance our understanding of the problems faced by refugees and the solutions created to attain a greater self-reliance and better livelihood. It provides an overview of terminology and some relevant definitions and an idea of how the nature of assistance provided to refugees and other people of concern.

The section also contains an overview of the major difficulties encountered by refugees in recreating and sustaining their livelihoods, what type of interventions offer potential for success and what are the factors leading to success/failure of strategies.



Refugee

 People who are forced to flee their homes due to persecution, whether on an individual basis or as part of a mass exodus due to political, religious, military or other problems, are known as refugees.

The definition of a refugee has varied according to time and place, but increased international concern for the plight of refugees has led to a general consensus. Thus a refugee is someone who:

- is outside his/her country of origin.
- has a well-founded fear of persecution because of his/her race, religion, nationality, membership in a particular social group or political opinion.
- is unable or unwilling to avail him/herself of the protection of that country or to return there, for fear of persecution.

Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs)

• IDPs are people who may have been forced to flee their homes for the same reasons as refugees but they have not crossed an international border.

Internally displaced persons, or IDPs, are among the world's most vulnerable people. Even if they have fled for similar reasons as refugees (armed conflict, generalised violence, human rights violations), IDPs legally remain under the protection of their own government — even though that government might be the cause of their flight. As citizens, they retain all of their rights and protection under both human rights and international humanitarian law.

In 2011, some 14.9 million people became internally displaced due to natural disasters, the great majority of them across Asia (UNHCR). The three countries which have the largest IDPs populations were Colombia, Iraq and South Sudan.

Millions of other civilians who have been made homeless by natural disasters are also considered as IDPs.

The two concepts apparently look similar. But they are not. Then, what is the difference between refugees and internally displaced persons?

A person becomes a refugee only when he/she crosses an international border. In contrast, an internally displaced person remains inside the boundaries of his/her own country. Thus, the difference between refugees and internally displaced persons is technical and legal, and has little to do with their reasons for flight. Both categories of persons are often affected by the same causes of displacement. They often have identical protection and material needs that deserve equal attention of the international community.

Most humanitarian agencies have the operational flexibility to address the needs of both refugees and internally displaced persons. UNHCR, whose statutory mandate is to protect refugees, has been authorised on an ad hoc basis by the United Nations to act on behalf of internally displaced persons.

Refugees' Protection

It is, first and foremost, the responsibility of states to protect their citizens. When governments are "unwilling" or "unable" to protect their citizens, individuals may suffer such serious violations of their personal rights that they are willing to leave their homes, their friends, maybe even some of their family, to seek safety in another country. Since, by definition, the basic rights of refugees are no longer protected by the governments of their home countries, the international community then assumes the responsibility of ensuring that those basic rights are respected.

When refugee situations occur, individual states must work together to resolve the cause of the refugee flow and to share the responsibility of protecting refugees. When internal disputes cause an international refugee problem, it is the responsibility of all states, especially neighbouring states, to help restore peace



and security within the conflicted country.

Agencies Responsible for Protecting Refugees

- United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR): UN-HCR is the focal point for refugees. Its mandate is to provide international protection to refugees and promote durable solutions to their problems.
- World Food Programme (WFP): WFP is the principal supplier of relief food aid.
- World Health Organisation (WHO): WHO acts as directing and coordinating authority on international health work and is active in, among other things, immunisation and AIDS campaigns.
- United Nations Development Programmee (UNDP): UNDP coordinates all development activities undertaken by the UN system,
- United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (UNHCHR): UNHCR plays the lead role on human rights issues.
- International Organisation for Migration (IOM): IOM is an inter-governmental body which helps transfer refugees, displaced persons and others in need of internal or international migration services, also cooperates with UNHCR.
- International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC): ICRC is an independent agency that acts to help all victims of war and internal violence, and tries to ensure the implementation of humanitarian rules restricting armed violence.
- Non-governmental organisations (NGOs): NGOs operate under mission statements that commit them to providing protection. In doing so, they perform an urgent and valuable service that can make a critical difference in the effective protection of refugees.

Asylum Seekers

These are people who are seeking refugee status in another country due to fear of persecution. The host country decides if she/he qualifies for refugee status. International law recognises the right to seek asylum, but does not oblige states to provide it.

Voluntary Repatriation

It refers to those refugees who are able to return to their home countries because their lives and liberty are no longer threatened.

Local Integration

It takes place when the host governments allow refugees to integrate into the country of first asylum.

Resettlement in a Third Country

It means repatriation is unsafe and the first-asylum country refuses local integration.

Understanding Refugees and IDPs and Their Problems

The UNHCR says that "by the end of 2010, three quarters of the world's refugees were residing in a country neighbouring their own". For instance, neighbouring Pakistan and Iran were the refuge for over 2.7million Afghans in 2010. Table 5.1 shows the distribution of world's total refugees by major geographical regions.



Table 5.1: Refugees by Major Regions of the World in 2010

Region	Where refugees come from ('000)	Where refugees go to('000)	Returned refugees ('000)
Africa	2,947	2,408	43
Asia	6,442	5,715	153
Europe	500	1,606	2
Latin America and the Caribbean	4,701	373	1
Northern America	3	430	0
Oceania	2	34	0
Total		10,550	197,626

Source: UNHCR, 2011.

Developing countries host four fifths of the world's refugees.

- Pakistan, Iran and the Syrian Arab Republic are the top hosting countries globally for refugees.
- Pakistan hosted the largest number of refugees in relation to the size of its economy with 710 refugees per \$1 of GDP (PPP) per capita. The Democratic Republic of the Congo and Kenya came in second and third respectively (UNHCR).
- Women make up 47% of refugees.
- Afghanistan, Iraq and Somalia were the three major source countries of refugees in 2010.
- 15,500 individual asylum applications were lodged by unaccompanied or separated children throughout 69 countries in 2010 (Box 5.11).

Box 5.11

A Tale of a Refugee

Rosa is a 41-year-old mother of five children - a three-month-old male infant, four-year-old boy and girl twins, and two sons aged eleven and twelve. Her husband Juan is 42 years old. They both have been working as migrant workers for the last 21 years, and have been coming to a Midwestern U.S. camp in lower western Michigan with their family for the last-three years in a row, travelling together from Florida in search of work.

Both Rosa and Juan work picking and packing squash. Soon the squash season will be over and they will start sorting other vegetables. Their combined weekly earnings for the last week were \$175. While this may not seem like a lot, Rosa says: "It is early in the season and the grower is expecting more work later in the season".

Rosa does not know exactly how much she makes per hour, but comments that "Some people say that "he" (the grower) takes taxes out of our pay checks". Rosa and Juan work very hard, and despite these conditions, Rosa is quite positive and thankful for the opportunity to work. Rosa and Juan's school-age children attend the Migrant Summer School and their pre-school children attend Migrant Head Start. Even though Rosa is a new mother, she must work in the fields with her husband. The family cannot afford for her to stay home (in the temporary housing provided by the grower) to care for the new baby. Rosa is happy with the care they are giving her children at the Migrant Head Start, but she is concerned because her baby is so small, and has not started eating solid food yet. She is glad that her children have a place to go and learn and be taken care of while she and her husband work. It is really too hot for them out in the field. Rosa completed the 5th grade in Mexico. After that she started working in the fields.

Source: USAID.



Challenges Faced by Refugees and IDPs

Refugees and IDPs have been facing several challenges. Most of the world's refugees wait for durable solutions for their predicament. While a majority of them have been granted provisional or temporary asylum in neighbouring countries, they are not able to regularise their status or integration. Their rights to move and work are often highly restricted, and educational and recreational opportunities are often non-existent or severely lacking. These refugees may also be subject to attack, either by local security forces or by cross-border incursions from the country of origin (Box 5.12).

Box 5.12

Outflow of Refugees

The massive outflow of hundreds of thousands of Iraqis in recent years to cities in neighbouring countries, notably Damascus and Amman, underscores the scope and speed of the urban refugee phenomenon. The Middle East provides the most dramatic but far from the only current example of large-scale displaced populations in urban areas. Khartoum, Sudan, is believed to host 1.7 million displaced people and refugees. Abidjan in Côte d'Ivoire, and Bogotá in Colombia have both absorbed hundreds of thousands of victims of armed conflict, swelling slums which were already poorly serviced. Former Afghan refugees returning from Iran and Pakistan and those displaced by violence in rural areas of Afghanistan have joined the even larger number of people migrating to Kabul for economic and other reasons, resulting in a several-fold increase in Kabul's population since 2001.

Source: UNHCR.

Often with no assets, and without basic skills and knowledge required to survive daily city life, many urban refugees desperately need help for:

- Securing housing and social support networks.
- Obtaining basic identity documents which could help get them food rations, schooling and health care.
- Procuring legal entitlement documents to work.

As a result, they are soon exposed to risk:

- Women, children and the elderly particularly vulnerable.
- Xenophobia (intense or irrational dislike or fear of people from other countries) and violence.
- Forced eviction.
- Expulsion.
- Harassment.
- Extortion.
- Arbitrary arrest and detention.
- Refoulement (forced return).
- Discrimination.
- Rape.
- Human trafficking.
- Prostitution.

All these risks figure in the dangers refugees can face.

How can we help them? It will require the cooperation of governments and municipalities because they are already grappling with the growing urbanisation of the general population.

While the issue is global, conditions vary greatly from region to region and so much depends on a local response. That's why, your role as representative of



local government responsible for your community development becomes pivotal. Refugees and IDPs of your community look at you to help build understanding and cooperation between them and the local population on the ground. Your role and active participation and involvement can make a big difference.

Addressing Empowerment of Refugees and IDPs

We have seen above that refugees and IDPs suffer from limited freedom of movement due to the threats of petty crime and violence, armed gangs and police harassment. For female youth, especially, the threat of gender-based violence (GBV) looms large in public spaces. Thousands of female refugee youth are employed as domestic workers, where they say their rights are trampled.

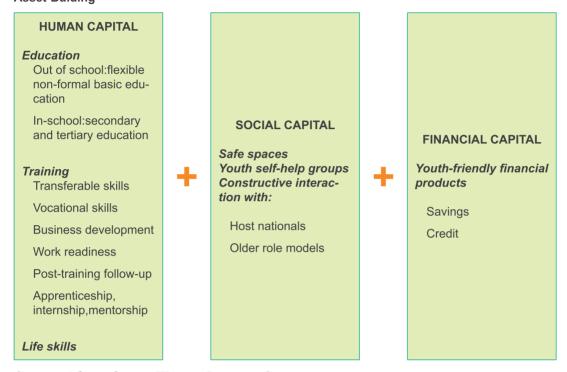
These forces limit young people's ability to socialise, earn a living and access services. Most refugee youth are at a major educational disadvantage in their host country and many never manage to return to school, as they face various barriers. Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) is largely out of reach. Beyond technical skills, refugee youth are said to lack important work readiness skills.

Social networks are seen by young refugees as the key to accessing economic opportunities, but refugee networks are often weak. Since self-employment in the informal sector is the main available livelihood option, lack of capital is seen by would-be micro-entrepreneurs as the major constraint. Young refugees seem to have little contact with banks or informal savings or lending. Managers of education and training programmes for refugee youth cannot hope to meet the scale of the need for their services. Only a small number refugees and IDPs have access to any programme besides government education. Organised youth-led or youth-serving organisations are scarce.

Figure 5.3 shows the combination of essential assets that you together with local agencies and NGOs should concentrate on building to improve the lot of refugees and IDPs.

Figure 5.3: Asset Building

Asset-Building



Source: Adapted trom Women Retugee Commission

Education

For out-of-school youth, non-formal basic education offerings should be designed in consultation with a diverse group of young women and young men, who can help ensure maximum relevance and inclusion. While developing programmes, you should make sure that the programmes are flexible and contain some combination of accelerated learning, online and distance learning, and catch-up courses, all scheduled around their busy schedules. To maximise attendance, programmes may need to offer onsite after-work classes, evening and weekend programmes. Evening classes for young mothers have proven successful, especially where female graduates act as role models to younger peers.

For in-school youth, you should mobilise all agencies for promoting access to secondary and tertiary school on an equal basis. In addition to working with government schools, you should explore partnerships with low-cost private



schools (LCPS). Working in close cooperation with local agencies you can assist schools in reorienting toward helping learners make the transition to work, adding work readiness and business components to curricula and career guidance services.

Skills Training and Business Development

For vocational training to be effective, it must lead to improved income in the short term. Programmes should measure results by their ability to help trainees secure and maintain employment or self-employment, rather than the number of persons trained.

Fields for training should be linked to the national strategy for youth employment, where one exists. They should also be based on an assessment of local demand for goods and services.

Selection of fields for vocational skills training may require counselling of the trainees. Those who have grown up in a refugee camp may tend to choose from the limited number of trades they have been exposed to and may need help in broadening their horizons. Wherever feasible, young women should be empowered to pursue trades that are not traditional for women, as these tend to pay more than traditional female trades.

The most successful approaches to skills training are those that include post-training follow-up services. To help young people's transition to employment, service providers must be able to provide necessary networks and linkages especially experiential learning opportunities such as business mentorship, internships and apprenticeships. You may need to persuade employers for paying part of the apprentice's salary until the refugee men and women working with them gain the skills and experience to do a job.

Beyond the vocational component, skills training should focus on providing transferrable skills, such as customer service, computer literacy and education in UN languages (English, French, Spanish and Arabic), which will be in de-

mand regardless of where refugees ultimately settle.

Non-profit social service agencies are not necessarily the best choice to teach business and trade skills. Where feasible, you should partner with private firms to conduct training. Promoting competition among training providers is a recognised best practice. Partnership agreements should be extended to training firms that best demonstrate they can connect young people to sustainable employment or self-employment. Their staff should be trained on the UNHCR urban livelihood guidelines (UNHCR, Promoting Livelihoods and Self-reliance: Operational Guidance on Refugee Protection and Solutions in Urban Areas).

As with non-formal education, training should be tailored to the unique needs of youth with children, which may mean providing childcare, connecting them with home-based income generating activities or helping them identify training institutes within the close vicinity to where they live.

Micro-franchising: It has shown great potential to offer employment and non-formal learning opportunities for out-of-school youth. This involves the creation of scaled-down versions of existing successful businesses using their proven marketing and sales techniques. With supplies and training from major firms, and with support from NGOs, young people work in teams to sell food, household products and other goods. Agencies have also empowered mixed groups of host-country and refugee youth by helping them to set up their own cooperative firms.

You can also help refugee young women and men to identify niche markets for their unique talents as foreigners, such as translation, traditional handicraft production and production of country-of-origin crops and foods.

Financial Capital

You should make sure that programmes have been designed to facilitate access to flexible savings and loan products are youth friendly. This may entail supporting the development of informal savings and credit associations, approach-



ing banks and/or partnering with microfinance institutions, engaging youth in the design of financial products (Box 5.13). Depending on the context, agencies may also have to engage in policy advocacy to ensure that refugee youth are legally allowed to hold bank accounts and take out loans. Savings accounts may be more appropriate than credit products for many youth, especially at younger ages.

Social Capital

Social capital component, such as group deliberation, to a livelihoods programme can help to build the beneficiaries' agency and make the programme more successful. Peer-to-peer networks and group activities are also a natural platform upon which to deliver a host of other services.

Box 5.13

Promising Practice: Enterprise Development with Vulnerable Youth

Among youth-focused service providers in Nairobi, Youth Initiatives Kenya (YIKE) may have the largest client group, numbering in thousands, including some displaced youth. YIKE's innovative approaches to economic empowerment include engaging youth who work as trash pickers to manage and operate proper recycling plants, and establishing public bath houses in informal settlements that even collect methane gas for use as fuel.

Source: (WRC).

You should help youth for exploring opportunities and spaces for safely interacting with their peers and adult role models from your own and other displaced populations, allowing them to receive and exchange information and learn new skills. Female youth domestic workers will require special attention to ensure they can access these safe spaces. Such spaces do not always need to be "created" but are often well established through local churches, schools and youth-led and youth-serving organisations.

For leisure activities for refugees and IDPs, you should see that basic sport facilities are available in your community. Annual sport events should be organised as the main leisure activity, especially for young refugee males.

Volunteer work also has great untapped potential to create bridges between host-country and displaced youth and can be a platform for engagement around life-skills education, post-disaster reconstruction, disaster risk reduction and peace-building programmes and activities.

Informal Small-business Incubation

Some migrant-run businesses use an informal small business incubation system to expand into new markets and increase self-employment. Established small businesses train and employ fellow migrants, usually young newcomers, to start their own businesses. The business owner withholds a portion of an employee's salary and trains the employee in how to run the business. Once enough money is saved and the employee's capacity is built, the employee is supported to start a satellite business in a new location. Typically the original owner maintains shares in the new business. There may be potential for service providers to encourage or incentivise business owners to follow this model.

Who Should be Involved in Designing and Implementing Activities?

The first question that comes to our mind is: Who should be involved in designing and implementing programmes and activities for people with special needs. In other words, who should protect them and design livelihood interventions to improve their socio-economic status?

For answering this question, it is important to identify, first, the livelihood strategies for refugees. UNHCR lists the following livelihood strategies:



- Seeking international protection and migration as a livelihood strategy
- Receiving humanitarian assistance
- Relying on social networks and solidarity
- Rural refugee livelihoods falling back on subsistence farming
- Urban refugee livelihoods
- Engaging in trade and services
- Investing in education and skills training
- Falling back on negative coping strategies
- Adopting new gender roles

Looking at the above list, you may notice that the livelihood promotion strategies for refugees are diverse and as such no single organisation and/or agency can handle all of them. Thus, you should know your role in promoting the livelihood of both refugees and IDPs in your village. There will be other service providers which can play a significant role as well. They are:

- Development agencies
- Microfinance organisations
- Banks
- Private sector
- Civil society institutions
- NGOs national and international

At the national level, more coherent coordination between ministries of development, home affairs, and foreign affairs, including the creation of new inter-ministerial budget lines for "development assistance and refugees" is determined by theses ministries. For instance, the governments design funding integrated services in areas such as health and education, investing in livelihood opportunities for refugees, training refugees to become "agents of development" rather than burdens on their host countries, and developing infrastructure in refugee-hosting regions (Box 5.14).

Box 5.13

The Zambia Initiative: In pursuit of Sustainable Solutions for Refugees in Zambia.

A good example of combining the principles of a livelihood approach – people at the centre, holistic approach and the importance of partnerships – is the Zambia Initiative (ZI).

In recognition of the positive role refugees can play to alleviate poverty in refugee hosting areas, and to create an environment conducive for refugees to become productive members of the host community, the Zambian Government embarked on the Zambia Initiative.

UNHCR has been active in supporting the efforts of the Government to conceive and implement the Zambia Initiative. It is a long-term process envisaging the involvement of partners to improve the quality of life of local host communities and refugees.

The aim of the Zambia Initiative is to contribute towards a more development oriented rural programme for the local population and refugees who are not likely to repatriate in view of their high degree of integration in Zambia.

The sectors that are targeted through community development processes are: agriculture, health, education and infrastructure. The Zambia Initiative aims to contribute to enhancing food security in the province through the introduction of new simple agricultural techniques and provision of inputs as well as bringing development to the refugee hosting areas by way of improving the health, education and vocational training sectors through local development committees.

To effectively implement the programme, the Zambia Initiative uses the strategy of involving local and refugee communities, organised as local development committees.



Box 5.13

Whilst the voluntary repatriation of Angolan refugees is progressing, the Zambia Initiative is providing opportunities and creating grounds for local integration for those refugees who will remain in Zambia. The programme is also preparing refugees who wish to return to acquire enough skills to rehabilitate and rebuild their societies and hence facilitating for a quick reintegration in their societies.

The ZI not only illustrates the protection angle (looking for durable solutions, good relationships with host community), but also illustrates the interaction/involvement of all functions within UNHCR.

Source: UNHCR.

However, education in exile is often less than adequate at promoting either present or future stability. Around the world, children, parents and teachers face numerous educational challenges in situations of displacement. These challenges include lack of schools and trained teachers; confusion over curriculum and language of instruction; and difficulty in coordination among service providers.

An area where you can play an important role is the organisation of advocacy workshops. You should ensure the participation and involvement of stakeholders in planning the way forward for refugee settlement. In such advocacy workshops, participants should include parents, pupils, teachers, community leaders, UNHCR staff, implementing partner staff, Office of the Prime Minister (OPM) staff, and Ministry of Education representatives (District Education Officers and District Inspectors of Schools). The aims of these workshops should be to:

- Collectively analyse the challenges identified with a focus on advocacy.
- Train stakeholders in advocacy strategies.
- Develop a way forward for education and skills development training for refugees and IDPs.

From these advocacy workshops, you can identify critical priority areas. The stakeholders should work collaboratively to chart away forward with the goal of activating local, community-based resources to make education better for all children.

Following are ten areas where you can play a significant role to help refugees and IDPs.

Access: Education does not come without its costs to families. In rural areas, families are asked to contribute money for school feeding, construction and top-up for teachers' salaries. Displaced people often do not have the means or livelihoods that allow them to contribute money. As a result, many children are denied access to schools. Communities can increase access to education for refugee returnees and displaced children by thinking creatively. Instead of chasing children away from school for lack of payment, why not ask families to contribute firewood, water, cups of beans or their own labour.

Communication: There is often inadequate communication between schools and families. Parents and teachers may not speak the same language. Displaced parents may be unfamiliar with the curriculum and school operation styles. Teachers, most of whom are nationals, may not understand the situations in which the displaced pupil live. Schools can better serve their pupils if parents and teachers interact well. Frequent meetings and one-to-one conversations as well as teachers' visits to pupils' homes can foster these interactions.

Stakeholders' responsibility: You have seen that many stakeholders are involved in education for refugee returnees and displaced children: UN agencies and their implementing partners, national and international NGOs, the national Ministries of Foreign Affairs, Home Affairs, Women Welfare, Education, Health, teachers, parents, pupils, and community members. What is the role of each actor? Lack of clarity about who is responsible for providing which services often leads to confusion, blame, and inaction. You can define the role of each stakeholder and encourage them to play their parts once their roles are clearly defined and well disseminated.



Teachers: Teachers are the cornerstone of education. When they are trained and competent, pupils can expect high quality teaching. In displacement situations, it is difficult to attract and retain qualified teachers. Teachers' salaries are relatively low and the "incentives" contributed by the international agencies are seldom coordinated with government salary scales. Reallocation of budgets by funders – both international agencies and national governments – to place priority on the training and remuneration of teachers would greatly contribute to educational quality.

Language: The choice of selecting the language of instruction in schools that cater for refugees and displaced children is always contentious. A pupil from Sudan, for example, may have grown up speaking Arabic at home thus cannot understand instructions in Kiswahili in Uganda. One language of instruction is critical in this type of situation in order to provide stability for children.

Infrastructure: Displaced children often attend schools that lack basic necessities like classrooms, benches, latrines, and water. In the common situation where displaced children are integrated in government schools, parents are unsure of whom to lobby about these problems. The government has responsibility for the construction of school structures that serve both nationals and refugees. UNHCR and UNICEF both assist in some cases. There could be better coordination between the two actors. Some communities have taken matters into their own hands and called upon parents and pupils to contribute blocks, sticks, and labour to build new classrooms.

Vocational education: There is always a serious lack of vocational education available in situations of displacement. Many pupils see potential benefits from studying trades: carpentry, metalwork, tailoring, etc. There are often displaced people who have the skills to train others in these trades, but they do not have the necessary equipment. Possibilities for collaboration among the private sector, educational NGOs, microcredit providers, banks and income-generating activities should be sought.

Educating girls: Rates of school attendance among displaced girls are low.

In situations of extreme poverty, parents often make a decision to keep their daughters at home to look after young children or do domestic work. The incidence of early marriages is also high for girls and frequently tied to family need for income. Here you have an important role to play in raising awareness about the social and familial benefits of girls' education and in intervening to prevent forced early marriages.

Values and behaviours: Values and behaviours shape how people deal with and understand an issue. These values may be influenced by religion, custom, class, gender, ethnicity, or age. Often changes in values and behaviours are necessary in order to address the challenges of education in displacement. Schools can play a central role in educating parents, pupils, and community members about the value of sending children to school or of educating girls, for example, while taking care to respect individual cultures.

Physically Handicapped and Mentally Retarded People

Data on persons with disabilities are hard to come by in almost every country. Specific data on their employment situation are even harder to find. Yet persons with disabilities face the same predicament everywhere. These data, culled from the media and from reports, provide an anecdotal picture of the current situation.

In developing countries, 80 to 90 per cent of persons with disabilities of working age are unemployed, whereas in industrialised countries the figure is between 50 and 70 per cent. Disabled still face hurdles in job market.

In the Asia-Pacific region, there are 370 million persons with disabilities, 238 million of them of working age. Their unemployment rate is usually double than that of the general population and often as high as 80 per cent or more.

In the European Union, there are approximately 40 million persons with disabilities, and of these 43 to 54 per cent were of working age in 1998. Persons with disabilities are two to three times more likely to be unemployed than others (EUROPS, "The ability to work", 1998).



In Latin America and the Caribbean, about 80-90 per cent of persons with disabilities are unemployed or outside the work force. Most of those who have jobs receive little or no monetary remuneration (World Bank).

Persons who are mentally disabled oftentimes find it difficult, if not impossible, to journey through life without some type of assistance. Developmental disabilities, commonly referred to in the medical community as retardation, are normally present at birth and are marked by a lower-than-normal intelligence.

In the following paragraphs we introduce you to the general principles that apply when trying to place persons with disability (PWD) in employment. It provides several concepts related to physical and mental disability, their causes and symptoms and proposes various best practices adopted by local governance institutions, self-help group facilitators or organisations engaged in the economic independence of PWDs.

The section also provides an insight into the different ways you can solve skills development and then unemployment problems of disabled people. It deals with preparing local enterprises to accept, recruit, and retain PWDs on an on-going basis. It also deals with how we can better prepare candidates to perform competently at their jobs. It is a win-win situation, because the employer gets appropriately skilled, trained candidates, and candidates get jobs.

Finally, the section ascertains the opportunities and challenges for disabled people in your community. After the completion of this section you will be able to understand the key aspects of livelihoods interventions for disabled people, such as employment, education and training, self-employment, income-generation and social security. It will also help provide a deep insight into various social, attitudinal and environmental barriers faced by diversified groups of disabled rural people. Furthermore, it looks at the gender dimensions of challenges faced by disabled people in accessing their livelihoods.

Knowing Physical Disability

Disability

People with physical disabilities, also known as disabled people or physically disabled people, have a physical impairment which has a substantial and long-term effect on their ability to carry day-to-day activities. Someone with a moderate physical disability would have mobility problems, e.g. unable to manage stairs, and need aids or assistance to walk. Someone with a severe physical disability would be unable to walk and dependent on a carer for mobility.

• **Disability is** the consequence of an impairment that may be physical, cognitive, mental, sensory, emotional, developmental or some combination of these. A disability may be present from birth, or occur during a person's lifetime.

Causes of Physical Disabilities

According to the Association for Retarded Citizens (ARC), in about one-third of all cases of mental retardation, the exact cause is not known. The other two-thirds are thought to be brought about by one of the following four factors:

- Prenatal problems: some prenatal conditions can be prevented by the expectant mother refraining from smoking or drug use, but other causes, such as prenatal infections, are difficult to control.
- Heredity: in a small percentage of cases, mental disabilities are caused by defective genes inherited from the parents. These genes interfere with the normal development of a child's brain. Down syndrome is an example of a genetic defect that causes lifelong mental retardation.
- Childhood illness: when infants experience serious infections, the brain can become swollen and the brain can be damaged.
- Environmental factors: otherwise normally developing children can become mentally challenged if their living conditions are seriously



sub-standard. Inadequate medical care, poverty, unhealthy conditions in the home or malnutrition can cause development problems. Lead-based paints have also become a major concern.

Symptoms

Children who suffer from mental disabilities oftentimes develop much slower than others. Learning to sit up, walk or perform other simple skills take longer than with the non-challenged. Usually, if the disability developed prenatally, the results are noticeable at birth. When the disability is the result of malnutrition, for example, the affects will not be recognised until a later age.

Diagnosis

Diagnosing mental disability begins with a complete physical examination. If medical causes are ruled out, the diagnosis continues by giving intelligence tests. There are several commonly used intelligence tests that can accurately determine a child's intelligence level.

Prognosis

There are different levels of mental disability. Persons with mild to moderate retardation can oftentimes become somewhat self-sufficient and lead a fairly normal life. The mildly disabled are usually able to develop some social and communication skills and motor coordination is only slightly impaired. Those, however, with profound disabilities are faced with a lifetime of assisted living. For the severely impaired, full-time supervision is needed and the affected person can only contribute to their self-care in the most limited sense.

Types of Disabilities - Terminology

- Visual impairment: This is an impairment of vision, which, even with correction, affects a person's functional performance. Visual impairment includes both partial sight and blindness.
- **Hearing impairment:** This is a condition that impairs a person's ability to process information through hearing, with or without amplification.
- Intellectual impairment: This refers to significant sub-average general intellectual functioning, existing along with deficits in adaptive behaviour and manifested during an individual's developmental period, which adversely affects a person's functional performance. It is commonly referred to as mental retardation.
- Orthopaedic impairment: This refers to the limitations of movements of any part of our body, caused by diseases, injury, any deformity in the bones and muscles or any injury caused to the nerves, the spinal cord or the brain.
- Multiple impairment: This is used to describe the existence of more than one impairment, such as intellectual impairment combined with orthopaedic impairment, deaf, blindness, cerebral palsy and other syndromes caused due to developmental delays.
- Mental illness: This is a term that describes a broad range of mental and emotional conditions. It is different from mental disabilities such as mental retardation and learning disabilities. The term psychiatric disability is used when a mental illness significantly interferes with the performance of major life activities, such as learning, thinking, communicating and sleeping, among others.
- Autism: This is a disability significantly affecting verbal and nonverbal communication and social interaction. The person with autism often engages in repetitive activities and stereotyped movements, resists environmental change or changes in daily routines, and has unusual responses to sensory experiences.



• Specific learning problems: This is a condition that affects the way an individual takes in, retains processes and expresses information. It may affect only certain learning processes.

Helping Disabled People of your Community – Income-generation interventions

In this section we provide you some possible income-generation and other interventions which you can develop to help the disabled people of your community. These interventions include strengthening small businesses, diversifying sources of income, accumulation of productive and non-productive assets and accumulating money for regular meals, medical expenses, and reinvestment in other IGAs, house repairs and construction of small houses.

Very small businesses (such as tea stalls, nut businesses, cloth businesses, snack businesses) are viable livelihoods options for people with disabilities. These require minimal physical effort and mobility and allow disabled people to earn a regular income. Most of the disabled people can run shops, cloth or firewood businesses from their home.

For those with visual impairments, handicrafts, such as mat weaving, are very meaningful. These activities benefit from technical and vocational training on different items to enhance their skills.

People with psychological disorders, behavioural problems and learning difficulties are more likely to be involved with unskilled work such as day labouring. Since these disabled people are likely to face a range of exclusionary attitude in their daily life, they need more protection and support that will enhance their ability to cope and give them a sense of self-worth and belonging.

Families and communities also need awareness raising on psychosocial care and support to reduce discrimination and stigmatisation and improve positive caring. The following are further details which you can use for your disabled people for transforming their livelihood.

Strengthened Businesses

Disabled household face serious difficulties in running their businesses smoothly and hence increase their profits. You can help by identifying and contacting agencies and institutions for seeking grants, microcredit and other forms of philanthropic support for enabling them to undertake income-generating activities more efficiently and on a wider scale. This intervention will help them consolidate their business and increase profits (Box 5.15).

Reinvesting Money in Existing Businesses

Due to asset transfer and capacity building, you can help a number of disabled household heads and engage them in enterprises that help them to earn for their family. Moreover, with the profit that they will earn, you can suggest and help establish several small-scale enterprises or expand existing enterprises through reinvesting their profits (Box 5.16).

Box 5.15

Save the Children Bangladesh

Babar Ali [Bangladesh] had worked as a wage labourer. Three and a half years ago he had an accident when he was lifting a heavy load and injured his spinal cord. Although he got better he never fully recovered and could not return to day labour. One year later he borrowed 2,000 taka (US \$20) from his relative and started a snack business (selling nuts, various types of peas and chickpeas). However he was unable to earn a sufficient profit due to his lack of capital.

In September 2010, Babar Ali received 10,000 taka from Save the Children International (SCI) to strengthen his snack business and 3,000 taka for poultry rearing. Within 2 years of the SCI intervention he had started profiting significantly from his roadside snack shop. He had set up his shop



in front of the Union Parishad [Board] complex on public land and did not need to pay rent. During the weekly hut (market) he was earning 900 to 1,000 taka and on normal days he earned 700 taka. This was giving him an average profit of 200 to 250 taka per day. Previously he could only purchase a small quantity of food items, but now with working capital of about 16,000 taka he can afford to buy 50 kilogrammes of nut, 114 kilogrammes of chola [grams] and various types of peas and firewood at one time.

Source: Save the Children International, Working Paper 12.

Diversifying Income Sources

There are multiple sources of income earnings for a large number of disabled household heads in rural areas which in turn increase their household income. From initial support in starting a tailoring business you can help households to cumulatively expand into other small enterprises and increase their incomes and quality of life. As an example, you can help a disabled woman to find support in

Box 5.16

Non-formal Education for Disabled People Thailand

Despite Pavinee's [Thailand] visual impairment, when she was 8 years old, she learned mat weaving using wheat straws. She received a grant of 5,000 Baht for from an international NGO to buy raw materials and equipment for mat weaving. This was followed by another credit of 4,000 Baht from the village cooperative bank. With the profit from her mat making and the second round of support, she leased out a part of her wheat farm for 12,000 thousand Baht for a year. Now she is able to store dry wheat straws worth 8,000 baht that can be used for the next six months.

Source: Non-Formal Education Department, Ministry of Education

the form a sewing machine, unstitched cloth to start a new business and organise small business training and vegetable gardening training courses (Box 5.17).

You can also help others in buying productive assets such as motor-driven rick-shaw vans, livestock or poultry.

Increased Ability to Afford Children's Education Costs

The majority of children of disabled parents do attend schools and those who attend hardly complete successfully schooling. They recognise the value of education. They have strong intentions to send their children to government primary or NGO schools. You can help them attend schooling and organise non-formal education and literacy programmes in your community.

By involving them actively in self-help groups you can create in them a sense of confidence in knowing and claiming their rights and entitlements and a sense of group solidarity.

Box 5.17

Developing Entrepreneurship among Women with Disabilities (DEWD)

The ILO DEWD project which operated in five African countries (2001-2007), provided training to women with disabilities in micro-enterprise and vocational skills and improved their access to credit and business development services. The beneficiaries took part in the training programmes run for non-disabled women under another project - Women's Entrepreneurship Development and Gender Equality (WEDGE). Through DEWD some 450 women with disabilities gained new skills and enhanced their businesses. The project also pilot-tested an innovative inclusion approach that is now endorsed in the ILO strategy for Promoting Women's Entrepreneurship Development.

Source: See: http://wedgeilo.weebly.com/dewd.html



Assessing the Livelihood Opportunities for Disabled People in Your Community

Figure 5.4 shows the basic needs of disabled people



There are some skilled and many semi-skilled jobs available in your community with local enterprises and in non-farm sector (Figure 5.4). Some of them can easily be performed by PWDs. However, you will notice several obstacles that might prevent you from happening. Some of these obstacles could include:

- Lack of awareness on the part of local entrepreneurs: Local entrepreneurs are sometimes not even aware that some of the jobs in their organisation can actually be performed competently by PWDs.
- Lack of sensitisation in entrepreneurs: Even though companies might be aware that they can recruit PWDs, they are not sure of the requirements and methods to handle disability-related issues.

 Lack of trained PWDs: Many PWDs do have the requisite educational qualifications but are not ready for jobs because of lack of awareness and training.

In order to solve these problems you have to have complete knowledge of sustainable livelihood approaches for disabled people in your community. You should know the techniques for identifying the available employment or other productive opportunities to ensure that people are recovering from mental disorders, their care-takers and families have the best possible chance of accessing them. For this, you need the information on:

- Local facilities and services available.
- Skills shortages in the area.
- Organisations offering employment opportunities.
- Microfinance organisations.
- Vocational training institutions.
- Locally-based work schemes run by local or national government.

It is frequently assumed that persons with disabilities cannot or do not want to work. This is incorrect. Disabled persons, like non-disabled persons, want to work. They can perform several tasks if given opportunity. Disabled persons want and need to work to:

- Earn a livelihood.
- Enjoy social contacts.
- Gain self-esteem.

Earning a livelihood: Work provides income to disabled persons to meet their basic needs. Work provides the means to meet the additional costs associated with having a disability.



Social contact: Disabled persons have limited opportunities to meet people. Work provides such opportunities. People with disabilities find that having a job reduces frustration and loneliness. Not having a job reinforces social isolation. People with disabilities tell how getting a job has changed their lives; those without a job talk of misery and despair.

Self-esteem: Work, particularly paid employment, provides disabled persons with an opportunity to show they can contribute. People with disabilities tell how work builds positive attitudes. Those without jobs lack pride and confidence in their own ability.

Economic activity is thus important for people with disabilities. It offers them the opportunity to be recognised as contributing members of their communities. People with disabilities usually have a higher rate of unemployment than the rest of the population. And when they do work, they tend to do so for longer hours and lower incomes, face a greater risk of becoming unemployed for longer periods, and have fewer chances of promotion.

Vocational training plays an important role in the participation of disabled people in mainstream programmes or self-employment. It is the preparation for jobs that call for extensive practical experience and training. The training can provide basic skills, upgrade current skills, develop new technical skills and improve language skills.

Developing Livelihood Framework for Disabled People

People with physical and mental disabilities do not live in isolation. Their quality of life is greatly affected by the attitudes of the communities in which they live and by the decisions made by the state that govern them. Therefore, we have to develop a framework which addresses the prevalent negative practices, beliefs and behaviour towards people with physical and mental disorders.

Such a framework should place people with physical and mental disorders at its core and mental health firmly within a development context. Holistic in nature,

it should create an environment enabling them to address not only the illness, but also their economic and social situation.

Feasibility Study

In order to know how best to start and run a programme, the first thing that we have to do is to collect data on the numbers of people with physical and mental disorders, the types of illnesses and their prevalence, possible programme partners and potential fundraising opportunities. The study should be undertaken by an individual who has an understanding of disability and development issues.

Identifying Donors and Securing Funding

Funds should not be solely drawn from donors having an interest in physically and mentally disabled people. Other donors with the mission of reducing poverty, empowerment of marginalised communities, community development, advocacy or research may also be contenders.

Capacity Building

Capacity building should start by inviting partner organisations, general and mental health workers, people with mental disorders, their families and the wider community to identify their needs and participate in the programme. Activities should then be initiated that build on their skills and abilities in order that all are empowered to work towards achieving a better quality of life for people with mental disorders.

Training, group development, consultation and awareness-raising measures should be organised and be stimulated by powerful animation techniques. The following simple but effective measures could be tried:

• Field consultation: This activity brings together people with mental disorders, their care-takers and families, and partner organisations. What comes out of it shapes the future work of a programme according to identified needs and demands at the grassroots level. The next activ-



ity involves listing and discussing the issues of concern for participants and their needs, as perceived by group members. The concluding activity looks to the future, and asks the question "What Next"? From the findings, a concrete action plan should be drawn up.

- Self-help groups: Self-help groups play multiple-roles and are established for a range of purposes. For example, care-takers and people with mental disorders may come together to form or join a group to encourage better integration; others may start or join a group to provide peer support to better manage their illness; still others may meet to share information and raise awareness in the wider community.
- As a self-help group develops and grows in confidence, it often goes on to advocate for the rights of people with mental disorders. Furthermore, individuals often start a group as a means of generating income via such economic activities as farming, livestock and business.
- A key principle of self-help groups is that the individuals who form the group collectively decide on its purpose, structure and activities. This, in itself, is a form of capacity building.
- Animation: Animation is that stimulus to the mental, physical, and emotional life of people in a given area which moves them to undertake a wider range of experiences through which they find a higher degree of self-realisation, self-expression, and awareness of belonging to a community, which they can influence.
- The primary tool of capacity building is animation. Trained animators act as a catalyst, mobilising and breathing life into a situation, so that people first realise then assess their own reality, identify the problems and gain confidence to act. The animator continues to fuel this cycle of reflection and action, which in turn leads to social change. The group or community grows in understanding, in awareness and in confidence, and moves from being passive recipients to active contributors in their own development.

- Awareness-raising and sensitisation: Awareness-raising and sensitisation campaigns should be used widely to challenge preconceptions, change attitudes and share information about mental disorders. A variety of methods are used to get the message of mental health and development across including street people take to the streets to raise awareness of mental disorders in Uganda, theatres, personal counselling, sensitisation workshops, consultations and media campaigns.
- Many awareness-raising activities are targeted at specific groups, such as teachers, the police and judiciary, health professionals or school children. Other awareness-raising measures take place in public places, in towns and villages and aim to attract a large audience. Depending on the situation any number of people can participate in these activities including community workers, primary health care workers, people with a mental disorder and partner organisations.
- Games and songs: Bringing an element of fun to activities frequently proves worthwhile. Games and songs, also known as energisers, should be introduced in many group activities within a programme. They are a means of helping a group of people, possibly strangers, to get to know each other and bond.
- Community mental health services: The model demonstrates that effective community mental health services can happen in a variety of ways. Once resources have been committed, services begin to be provided on a regular basis, in areas where there is most need and where possible, in a community setting. In some cases, clinics may be held at existing health facilities, such as hospitals or health centres and are wholly provided for by the state.
- Assessment of livelihood opportunities: A central feature of the sustainable livelihood should be to identify available employment or other productive opportunities to ensure that people are recovering from mental disorders, their care-takers and families have the best possible



chance of accessing them. The type of information collected could be on local facilities and services available, skills shortages in the area, organisations that offer or could provide employment opportunities, microfinance organisations, vocational training institutions and locally-based work schemes run by local or national government. This inclusive approach ensures that all available and potential opportunities are recorded and links with stakeholders are established. Furthermore, these stakeholders often become more receptive to the needs of people with mental disorders as they are exposed to the difficulties faced by them in achieving a sustainable livelihood.

- Home visits: Home visits facilitate a culture of work and self-sufficiency amongst people recovering from mental disorders and their families by providing encouragement and support, guidance and mentoring and information on opportunities. Home visits should focus on assisting people recovering from mental disorders, their care-takers and families to improve their economic status and secure sustainable livelihoods. This is achieved through a process of consultation to establish the choices, aspirations and needs of the individual; providing information on skills and training opportunities; and ensuring that suitable occupational therapy is accessed (where necessary).
- Making links with development organisations: In pursuing a sustainable livelihood, a person recovering from a mental disorder may opt to return to a previous occupation or decide to pursue other options that require additional skills or capital. To maximise possible avenues for gainful employment, you have to build links with stakeholders such as local development organisations, microfinance and enterprise groups and local and national government agencies and schemes.
- Income-generating and productive activities: There is a real diversity of employment and productive work for physically disabled and mentally retarded people. At an individual level, people recovering from mental disorders can return to their previous occupations, develop

new skills, start businesses and enter into new professions and livelihoods. At a collective level, self-help groups and cooperatives have been formed enabling people to access opportunities and pursue income-generating activities. These groups provide members with mutual support and encouragement, access to microcredit schemes, capital at favourable repayment rates, security, information and a more powerful voice.

Box 5.18 below illustrates some examples of income-generating and sustainable livelihood activities.

Box 5.18

New Business

Before he became ill, Venkatesh worked for thirty years in the weaving industry. He gave it up and concentrated on overcoming his illness with the support of his family. Following the treatment and on-going assistance from one of Basic Needs' partners, Grameen Abyudaya Seva Samsthe (GASS), Venkatesh decided to set up a small business – supplying snacks to travellers using the bus shelter in his village. He starts preparing the food at 4.00 a.m. and sells from 8.00 a.m. until noon. The trade has been good and he turns over about Rs.300 [\$7.50] each day, a modest sum but comparable to incomes of many people in the area. Most importantly, Venkatesh, describes himself as having a completely new beginning. He is confident and contented, enjoying the relative freedom of the work that he does now. Notably, the local panchayat has been instrumental in allowing Venkatesh to use the bus shelter, which is a favourable situation for his business (India Programme, 2006).



Box 5.18

Therapy and Income-generation

Manal is a woman who has suffered from depression and a widow with children. Home gardening built up her confidence to work. She commenced pot cultivation of chillies, tomato, cabbage and carrots. She said "this beautifully growing garden gives me pleasure when I see it every morning". As a consequence of improving her confidence and skills, she started another income-generation activity. She was given training in making metal brooms which she has taken up as a livelihood. She sells these brooms at Rs. 50 [US \$1.20]. She has carefully collected the money. She spends Rs. 2,500 [US \$63] for purchasing a tractor-load of metal for building her kitchen" (Sri Lanka Programme, 2006).

People with HIV/AIDS

Since its first known victim around 1980, HIV/AIDS has spread in almost all the countries of the world. The worst affected victims of the pandemic are the people in poor countries especially of the Sub-Saharan Africa region. HIV/AIDS not only affects human beings, its effects on productivity, output and the socio-economic development are equally alarming. The pandemic killed more people than any armed conflict.

As of 2009, it is estimated that there were 34 million people worldwide infected with HIV/AIDS. Table 5.2 makes clear of Sub-Saharan Africa's unfortunate position in the worldwide with HIV/AIDS pandemic with more than 24.5 million and more than 60% of the HIV-infected population.

South Africa hosts the largest population living with the disease, at well over 5 million people infected, followed by Nigeria and India.



Table 5.2: Regional Comparisons of HIV in 2011

World region	HIV prevalence (ages 15–49)	Persons living with HIV	Annual AIDS deaths	Annual new HIV infections
	(%)	(in thousand)		
Worldwide	0.8	34,000	1,700	2,500
Sub-Saharan Africa	4.9	24,500	1,200	1,800
South/South- east Asia	0.3	4,000	250	280
Eastern Europe/Central Asia	1.0	1,400	92	140
Latin America	0.4	1,400	54	83
North America	0.6	1,400	21	51
East Asia	0.1	830	59	89
Western/ Central Europe	0.2	900	7	30
Middle East/ North Africa	0.2	300	23	37
Caribbean	1.0	230	10	13
Oceania	0.3	53	1	2

Source: CIA World Fact Book, 2011.



This section offers a counselling and education strategy for dealing with issues related to HIV/AIDS. It explains the meaning; factors responsible for transmission; and the overall consequences of HIV/AIDS; and tools for creating a safe environment.

What is HIV/AIDS?

As the name suggests, there are two aspects of HIV/AIDS: HIV and AIDS. HIV stands for Human Immune Virus whereas AIDS stands for Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome. In simple language it can be explained as follows:

Human	means male or female.
Immune	means deficiency or lack of protection against infection.
Virus	means germs that cause the disease.
Likewise, AIDS means	
Acquired	means something you get. You can only get AIDS from someone else.
Immune	means protection against infection, our body has cells which protect us from AIDS.
Deficiency	means lack of. A person having aids lacks protection from diseases.
Syndrome	means a rare state of human body in which the production of red blood cells (RBC) is damaged.

HIV/AIDS pandemic is sexually transmitted in the following ways:

- Sexual contact.
- Using infected blood (direct contact).
- Sharing instruments like razors and syringes.
- Mother to child transmission at birth, or through breast-feeding.

The four vulnerable groups who get HIV/AIDS are:

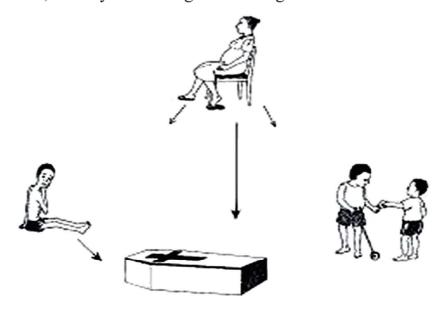
- Sexually active people.
- Intravenous drug users.
- Blood transfusion recipients.
- Mother to child transmission through childbirth or breast-feeding.

Understanding the Effects of HIV/AIDS

The HIV/AIDS pandemic affects the economy, education, family and health. Its adverse effects are not only on children but also on adolescents and adults.

Rural economy: Most people who die and suffer from this pandemic are youth and adolescents. They are the ones who contribute to the growth of the economy. Once they become its victims they become so weak that they can contribute little or on many occasions nothing at all.

Other people who are not affected spend valuable time looking after their relatives who are sick with AIDS. The problem becomes more serious for subsistence farming households whose members live from hand to mouth and whose survival requires the contribution of the young people. The pandemic paralyses the workforce, thereby slackening economic growth.





HIV/AIDS affects agriculture in many ways. This is shown in Figure 5.5.

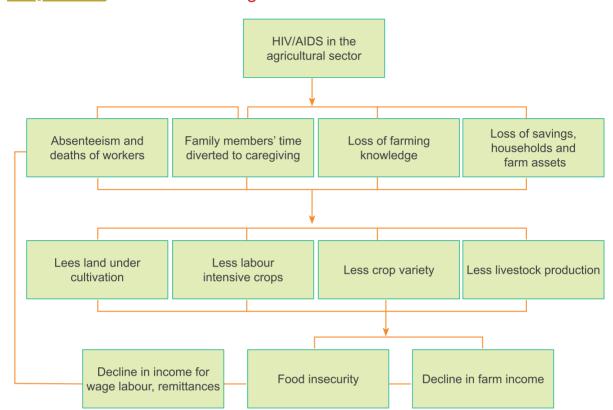


Figure 5.5: HIV/AIDS and Agriculture

Source: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division.

Absenteeism caused by HIV-related illnesses and the loss of labour from AIDS-related deaths leads to the reduction of the area of land under cultivation. Agricultural production declines. It leads to reduced food production and food insecurity.

The loss of labour also leads to declines in crop variety and to changes in cropping patterns, particularly a change from more labour-intensive systems to less intensive systems. Livestock production becomes less intensive and weeding and pruning is curtailed. A shift away from labour-intensive crops results in a less diverse and less nutritious diet.

The reduction in labour supply through the loss of workers to HIV/AIDS at crucial periods of planting and harvesting reduces the size of the harvest and thus affects food production adversely.

Loss of knowledge about traditional farming methods and loss of assets occur when the members of rural households are struck by the disease and are not able to pass on their know-how to subsequent generations.

Loss or reduction of remittances is likely to occur in areas where agricultural workers send money home while working abroad. When the workers become sick, they can no longer earn money to send home.

The important impacts of the HIV/AIDS epidemic on agriculture are food insecurity caused by the reduction of production and loss of income from household members employed in the sector.

Health: The sector most directly affected by HIV/AIDS is the health sector. HIV/AIDS increases the number of people seeking health services, the costs of health care for patients, and the need for health care workers. People living with HIV/AIDS need a wide range of health care services often for many years. This increased demand puts pressure on the limited health resources in many developing countries.

Over 50 per cent of most hospital beds, at least in referral hospitals, are occupied by AIDS patients in many Sub-Saharan African countries. The costs involved in treating HIV/AIDS victims are enormous. Many hospitals are short of essential drugs, and their facilities are over extended.

Education: HIV/AIDS affects both students and teachers. Three categories of students need particular attention.

- Students orphaned by AIDS.
- Students responsible for the care of parents and guardians having HIV/ AIDS.
- Students who are themselves HIV positive.

The effects of HIV/AIDS on the above-mentioned children result in a gradual decline in enrolment, low attendance, high absenteeism, repetition and dropout rates, and a decline in school performance.



Sick teachers pose a variety of problems, for example, absenteeism, low morale and financial pressures. Sick teachers are generally discriminated by colleagues in school.

In the event of HIV/AIDS victim in the family or household, teachers face the intolerable burden of both costs and other requirements of sick relatives. Sometimes they are also needed to look after the victims for weeks together.

Firms and the private sector: By affecting adults during their prime working years, HIV/ AIDS has the potential to impact the labour supply and therefore, businesses and firms in the private sector. AIDS-related illness and death among employees may increase costs, reduce productivity and change a firm's operating environment.

Public sector: Governments face some of the same issues as the private sector. Illness and death of workers increases costs and reduces productivity. The pandemic increases demands for public services. HIV may also erode the tax base of government by increasing mortality among adults in their prime productive years.

Helping HIV/AIDS Victims in Your Community

In many developing countries of Sub-Saharan Africa, commercial sex workers, truck drivers and soldiers were groups with high risk behaviour contributing to the early spread of HIV infection. The general population, especially young females, have become increasingly infected during recent years. There are several constrains in HIV/AIDS prevention. The important among them include:

- Persistence of inadequate human resources and managerial capacity at all levels.
- Poor coordination of anti-HIV/AIDS activities among government, NGO and other agencies.
- Increasing urban-rural spread of HIV.
- Weak surveillance system.

- Inadequate community participation.
- Discrimination (stigma) and lack of care and support for people living with HIV/AIDS.
- Inadequate voluntary counselling and testing services and information, education and communication.
- Lack of operational research.

Various HIV/AIDS programmes show that decentralised, multi-sectoral, participatory planning and implementation are more effective than the rural development programmes that rely on central sectoral agencies. Community-based-programmes have been particularly effective in HIV/AIDS prevention, care, support and treatment in almost all the developing countries.

Community-based Organisations (CBOs)

CBOs can be involved in building clinics, schools and other social infrastructure. Through their traditional birth attendants (TBAs) and community health agents (CHAs), basic healthcare services can be provided to mostly poorer people in rural areas. However, their involvement in HIV/AIDS prevention and patient care activities at the community level, including control of harmful traditional practices, HIV/AIDS awareness campaigns, patient home care and referral to voluntary testing and counselling centres will require the mobilisation of considerable resources.

Partnerships between CBOs, NGOs, and the private sector and government agencies can provide much-needed technical assistance, information and knowledge through partner networks and thus better services, participation, best practices and monitoring and evaluation of the patient care and support programmes.

Traditional Birth Attendants

Although traditional birth attendants (TBAs) and community health agents



(CHAs) usually function through the CBOs, they are discussed here separately to highlight their strengths and weaknesses.

In a large number of developing countries, particularly in African countries, most rural women deliver babies at home with the help of untrained midwives. Trained traditional birth attendants (TTBAs) may play a significant role in HIV/AIDS prevention by reaching pregnant women not currently receiving formal antenatal care and by assisting with the delivery of primary prevention services. With the greater availability of rapid HIV tests in local primary health care centres and mobile clinics, trained birth attendants could be instrumental in overseeing the provision and administration of anti-retroviral drugs to HIV-infected mothers and their new-born infants. They may also counsel women and their partners in HIV risk reduction.

Community Health Agents

Community health workers (CHAs) may be particularly effective in teaching males facts about HIV/AIDS and the concept and need for behavioural changes. However, programme deficiencies, lack of remuneration of CHAs, absence of refresher courses and supervision facilities impede their functionality.

Health Extension Workers

The health extension workers carrying HIV/AID prevention and control programmes in rural areas are community health workers who can be selected from high school students and speak the local language. They can be trained in basic primary health care activities (environmental sanitation, domestic water supply, latrine construction, solid waste disposal, personal hygiene, food safety, family health, communicable diseases and first aid) and in HIV/AIDS prevention and care. This may be possible especially if the issues of technical support, refresher courses and supervision are addressed.

Community-based Reproductive Health (CBRH) Agents

CBRH agents are generally unpaid trained volunteers who provide contraceptive information, distribute condoms and oral contraceptives and refer to patients. CBRH agents are considered as the frontline health workers with the

strongest community base. They can also provide knowledge about family planning, antenatal and postnatal attendance anchovy/AIDS prevention.

Women Associations

The need for active women participation in local councils and committees (including the AIDS committees), along with changes in attitudes facilitating greater female representation is increasingly required. Similarly, women's associations can make a significant contribution to and benefit from essential political and economic participation of women. Through these associations women may be able to gain access to technical and credit services that can empower them, and to HIV/AIDS services.

This relationship can also enable women to advocate against traditional harmful practices, including violence against women, and fight for gender equity and the rights of other women. Women can also facilitate the planning and implementation of gender-sensitive patient care and support services.

Youth Associations

Youth associations, another youth groups with adequate guidance and support, can play a major role in information, education and communication activities and peer education among youth in rural areas where most children are out of school. Youth associations can work in unison with religious organisations and schools. However, provision of technical support to youth organisations in project conceptualisation and design is critical to the success of programmes. Hard-to-reach vulnerable youths who can benefit from peer education are street children whose numbers are swelling by AIDS orphans. Orphans are still neglected by relatives, neighbours, health services and schools. Recognising that failure to provide necessary assistance would have a severe social and economic impact on society. The youth association can work jointly to support AIDS orphans through anti-HIV/AIDS efforts beyond peer education, advocacy and behavioural change.

Similarly, the teenagers can organise forums to discuss among peers HIV/AIDS-related problems they face and on how to motivate young people to avoid risky behaviour and to prepare an action plan. These forums can be organised



as regular events. They can set up community-based youth clubs with the objective of peer educating primarily illiterate rural villagers. By using public mural painting, theatre, dance and drama, folk music and song, and plays, the groups can educate the villagers about the pandemic, social stigmas and myths regarding the virus, condom use and testing.

Anti-AIDS Clubs and the Schools

The community schools can be approached for looking into the possibility of including information and skills training in the curriculum as well as preparing guidelines and training for teachers. Youth-oriented programmes that have proven effective in some African countries involve national strategies, not just projects, as well as supportive communities and parents.

These clubs facilitate individual behaviour change and national leadership, AIDS education in schools and access to condoms, voluntary counselling and testing (VCT) and employment. The cultural barriers in many Asian and African countries do not allow parents to discuss HIV/AIDS and puberty sex-related issues with their children. The utilisation of teachers in health education topics aimed at HIV/AIDS prevention should be given priority in all HIV/AIDS discourses.

Radio Programmes, Street Theatre and Traditional Plays

Outside the school environment, one of the few opportunities for children and adolescents to learn about HIV/AIDS risk and prevention are radio and TV programmes and occasional street theatre or musical concerts. The radio programmes are particularly promising.

Interpersonal and community communication networks are encouraging and reinforcing attention to the drama, by endorsing and supporting the goals and behaviours of specific characters in the drama, by distributing health-related materials, by linking individuals to community services, and by advocating for other community-level changes. In this way the national broadcast serial drama can become a useful tool. NGO can produce scripts of dramas based on the life histories of HIV infected people and disseminate through newspapers and brochures.

Faith-based Organisations

A recent analysis of the significant decline of both multiple partnering by Ugandan adults and HIV prevalence in Uganda indicates that teaching abstinence among youths and monogamy in combination with condom use were major factors in this achievement. It has been estimated that the Ugandan prevention model has the potential for reducing the AIDS rate in Africa's worst stricken countries by 80%. The widely advertised government ABC slogan in Ethiopia to prevent AIDS is a guide of the current prevention programmes of the Ethiopian Orthodox Church, the Islamic Supreme Council and other faith-based organisations. However, congregations and their leaders remain largely opposed to condom use. Leaders of Christian and Moslem religious institutions are well respected and trusted all over and have large numbers of followers, making them particularly suitable to address the silence, stigma, discrimination and misinformation problems.

Other Mutual Assistance Organisations

Traditional mutual assistance organisations may provide a model for closer health services/community interaction, including expansion of rural health insurance schemes, sustainable patient care and participatory HIV/AIDS prevention. The insurance schemes in particular promise to contribute to providing a more enabling environment. They are characterised by high commitment, participation, constructive dialogue and cooperation among members. They engage themselves in security, development issues and social issues.

Home-based Care

The increasing AIDS cases, the inadequacy of the health services system, hospital bed occupancy rates and difficulties of reaching all organisations and informal groups taking care of AIDS patients point to the urgency for national coordination to foster patient care and psychosocial support in the home. There are very few home-based care service providers in rural areas of developing countries. Extended family structures and social networks can play an important role. They have been proven to be highly useful in many African countries.



Although not cheap, home-based care tends to be less expensive than institutional care and may also be appropriate for multiple chronic and terminal illnesses. Strong extended family ties and community commitment are major components in viable home-based programmes that not only include people living within/AIDS but also orphans and vulnerable children. Neighbour women, volunteers from faith-based organisations and private organisations, and NGOs' support through food and materials have been major actors in home-based care.

Poverty Reduction Programmes

Poverty alleviation holds considerable promise in AIDS prevention and control at the community level in Ethiopia due to widespread poverty and its role in promoting risk behaviour.

Alternative income-generating activities and economic self-sufficiency can reduce high-risk activities of commercial sex workers and also permit many women and children to obtain better education and life skills that are essential for socio-economic progress, promotion of preventive behaviour and poverty alleviation among HIV/AIDS victims and their families.

In this regard, there is a feeling that out-of-school youth are engaged in high-risk behaviours not because of low awareness of the problem but largely out of desperation due to poverty, joblessness and lack of vision and hope. Conversely, poverty together with the associated gender inequality, environmental degradation, social conflict, lack of participation and civil unrest, are both barriers to these goals and factors in fuelling their HIV/AIDS epidemic.

The fact that the majority of poor households in rural areas are dependent on food and cannot afford any type of health care during food crises indicates the urgency for poverty alleviation.

Agricultural Extension Workers

Agricultural extension workers can be deployed in information, education and communication activities due to the nature of their work in rural areas where

they are in frequent contact with populations who may not have other means of access to HIV/AIDS services. Especially they should be employed in teaching farmers about HIV/AIDS within the setting of peasant associations.

Traditional Healers and Traditional Medicines

In Sub-Saharan Africa, traditional healers participate in a wide range of activities related to HIV prevention and AIDS patient care and support, including community education, condom distribution, counselling, herbal treatment of opportunistic infections, patient referral to modern health services and home care and management of patients. Healers enjoy a high social status in their communities, and the cultural appropriateness of their treatment methods, material and medical are instrumental in their popularity to the point where many communities prefer their treatment of AIDS patients over that by modern health services.

Through training, many healers have been able to integrate biomedical concepts into their traditional healing systems, and it has been suggested that traditional healers may provide a critical link in the continuum of AIDS patient care from hospital to home.

Helping HIV/AIDS Victims in Your Community

There are different ways in which you can help these needy people of your community.

Peer counselling: Peer counselling involves identifying well-adjusted young people, equipping them with basic skills in counselling and encouraging them to provide counselling to their peers. One useful approach is to organise young people into peer counselling clubs.

Self-help projects: For young people who have lost both parents, the young people have to fend for themselves. In many cases the oldest child becomes the head of the family. One way to help them is to identify self-help income generating projects. To facilitate this, HIV/AIDS affected children can be organised into self-help groups.



Home visits: HIV/AIDS affected youth quite often left alone. They need guidance and emotional support. You can mobilise teachers and those responsible for the welfare of young people to help them through home visits.

Sponsorship programmes: Often, when young people lose their parents, they lose all means of earning a living. The projects they undertake may sometimes be unable to raise sufficient funds for their daily requirements. You can help them by linking them to individuals and agencies for sponsorship.

Foster care and adoption: Community members who are not relatives of HIV/ AIDS affected children, can be encouraged to foster and adopt them. This helps to provide such children with a stable home, and a parental figure to look up to.

Children's homes: Children that have lost their parents can also be recommended for children's homes. There are many types of children's homes in different countries. One thing common to all of them is that children move from their homes and become full-time residents in these homes. They are placed in the care of people employed for this purpose. Some homes allow the children to visit their homes of origin from time to time. This helps such children to continue to maintain ties with their relatives, fostering a sense of cultural identity.

Preventing HIV/AIDS

Mass media campaign: The mass media can be used for the prevention of HIV/AIDS. There are different kinds of mass media: TV, radio and newspapers, etc. At your community centre you can invite community people to watch TV and radio talk shows on HIV/AIDs. Knowledgeable and experienced personnel can be used to disseminate information related to HIV/AIDS. These include medical personnel. The general public is allowed to telephone and ask various questions concerning HIV/AIDS.

In areas where this method of communication is not available, as in rural and remote areas, the public is invited to write letters asking questions about HIV/AIDS. Responses to those questions can be transmitted.

Spot adverts and warning messages can be sent out by TV and radio. These messages are most effective at particular peak hours.

Street drumbeaters can, for example, be used for warning messages. The national and local newspapers can be an effective tool of communication in the prevention of HIV/AIDS. Warning messages, notices, or "pull outs", are all potential means of conveying information on HIV/AIDS.

Posters and billboards: Posters and billboards are structures made of paper, metal or any other material to display information in public places. They can be used to display information on HIV/AIDS. Major facts, figures, pictures on HIV/AIDS, can be displayed on these boards and charts. They can then be placed strategically in located places, for example in school compounds, road junctions, etc. Also, messages and information can be printed on T-shirts, exercise books, pens, and other scholastic materials.

Seminars/workshops: Seminars and workshops are major avenues for disseminating information on HIV/AIDS. These can be used to target age groups that are most vulnerable. Prominent personnel in the field of HIV/AIDS prevention meet to share information and experiences. These include governmental and non-governmental organisations, voluntary organisations and religious bodies.

Campaigns: Campaigns against HIV/AIDS in places of worship, school assemblies and local community meetings can be highly effective. These gatherings should be organised mainly for young people and their guardians. Places of worship can be used as places where information on HIV/AIDS prevention can be passed on to the parents/guardians and young people. School assemblies have also been cited as good avenues for the dissemination of information. Messages against unsafe sex and risky behaviour can be passed on.

Cultural activities: These are good tools by means of which information for the prevention of HIV/AIDS can be passed on. School-based competitions can be arranged covering all schools in primary, secondary and tertiary education. The themes for these competitions can be related to HIV/AIDS prevention.

Life skills education: Life skills have been known to bridge the gap between information exposure and real behaviour change. They need training in life skills. These include: effective communication, decision-making, understanding self, living with other people and critical thinking.



Peer education clubs: Peers are persons of almost the same age group. Peer clubs are effective in conveying messages on the prevention of HIV/AIDS. Through peer clubs, a lot of information can be obtained and shared by peer groups.

To sum up, people with disabilities often encounter common fears and misconceptions held by employers and human resource professionals. Your role is to review each of the commonly held myths about employees with disabilities to reveal the true facts and statistics about this group of employees.

You can play an important role in providing a series of tailor-made skills for improved employability and for harnessing opportunities for income-generation activities to these people. Skills training programmes offering support to micro and small enterprises (MSE) in the informal sector, traditional apprenticeship and value-chain oriented training programmes need to be developed for such people.



Rural people are the most deprived people in any country. But within each rural population there are minority rural population groups who are further marginalised. They fall within the trap of abject poverty. Each minority groups have their special needs. In this module common characteristics, deprivation and strategies to mitigate deprivation of the six minority and disadvantaged population groups have been discussed. They are: (i) nomad; (ii) people living in mountainous areas; (iii) migrant farm workers; (iv) refugees and displaced people; (v) people with disabilities; and (vi) people with HIV/AIDS.

Marginalised people are facing many challenges. They are facing migration pressure, trouble with jobs, challenges and barriers in schools and political marginalisation. The well-being of marginalised rural people (MRP) depends upon many factors. Most important is the availability of good-paying jobs for them. There are other equally important factors and challenges such as: access to critical services such as education, health care, communication, and a healthy environment. They need typical skills to meet their special needs in addition to those which they commonly share with their fellow friends.

Within this context of rural deprivation, several tools and resources are needed to meet the special needs of MRP. By identifying the specific skills need and then to adapt appropriate strategies and activities for the marginalised groups can help mitigate their sufferings and offer livelihood options.



Please discuss your learning from reading the contents and information of this module with your colleagues and relate it to your experience. Identify activities and make a plan which you can individually or jointly implement.



In the next module "Transformative Role of Local Government Representatives" we will focus the following major topics:

- What is micro enterprise development?
- What are microfinance institutions and their functions?
- What is microcredit?
- What is the role of ICT in business development?
- What are self-help groups and their functions?
- What are public and private sector, NGOs and civil society organisations and their role?
- How to assess capacity of LGR?
- What are roles and responsibilities of LGR?



ANNEX 5.1 Assessing opportunities and challenges in livelihoods of disabled people

The essential information on the socio-economic condition of disabled people in your community is not readily available in your community. For proposing relevant livelihood interventions this information is vital. Here we suggest some important tools for collecting and analysing this information. The two methods proposed here are:

- Focus group discussion
- Semi-structured interview.

Both methods will help you know people's ideas and feelings, and will answer the questions "how" and "why".

Questionnaire 1: Guidelines for focus group discussion

- 1. What is the present status of livelihoods of disabled people?
 - What are the major sources of income for the people in your village?
 - How many disabled people might be there in your village? What are the major sources of income of disabled people?
 - What kind of wage employment activities disabled people do in your village (farming, agriculture labourer, formal employment, labourer in private house, etc.). How many of them might be engaged in wage employment?
 - What kind of self-employment activities disabled people do in your villages (small business, livestock, and micro enterprises). Sources of seed money (loan, self- help groups). How many of them might be engaged in self-employment?
 - How many disabled people have accessed to any kind of social security scheme? What are they (pension, free ration, loan, housing support, aids and appliances)?

- How other disabled people manage their livelihoods?
- How many disabled people have received any kind of vocational training? How did it help in getting any employment or self-employment?
- Are there differences in earning of disabled men and disabled women? Who are the disabled people to be deprived from any kind of income-generation activity?
- Is there any additional expenditure for their disability such as cost of treatment and aids appliances? How do they manage that additional expenditure?
- 2. What are the opportunities and challenges for disabled people in accessing their livelihoods?
 - What are government and non-government schemes and facilities available for disabled people in your area?
 - Wage employment
 - Self-employment (Bank loan, microcredit, technical support, marketing)
 - Social security
 - ► Capacity building (Education, Vocational training)
 - Whether disabled people in your village are less likely to be involved in any income generation activities. If so, what are the challenges in availing existing facilities?
 - Wage employment
 - Self-employment
 - Capacity building
 - Social security
 - What are the challenges from the society, officials, family, self or in environment?
 - Is there any particular group such as disabled men or women or specific disabled group who is facing more challenges in availing these facilities? If yes, what could be the reasons?



- 3. How disabled people can overcome the challenges to sustain their livelihood?
 - How disabled people can secure their livelihoods in your village?
 - How are the barriers in accessing the existing facilities of education, vocational training, employment, and self-employment and social security schemes can be reduced?
 - Are existing facilities sufficient or any additional support needed?

Questionnaire 2: Guidelines for interview with disabled people

- 1. What is your name?
- 2. What is your age?
- 3. Who are the other members in your house?
- 4. What is the major source of income of the family?
- 5. Who is the major bread earner of the family?
- 6. What is your education background? What prevented you from further study or vocational training?
- 7. What income generation activity do you do?
- 8. How much is your income per month?
- 9. Whether the impairment has affected your income and how?
- 10. Have you undergone any treatment? What prevented you from undergoing treatment?
- 11. What is your average expenditure (including treatment cost) per month and who provides that?
- 12. What type of family support you get to for your livelihoods?
- 13. Is there any specific challenge from family that prevent in accessing your livelihoods independently?
- 14. What are the challenges from community and other stakeholders for accessing education, employment, self-employment or government schemes and facilities for safety nets?

- 15. Have you faced any challenges from the stakeholders in accessing the existing entitlements?
- 16. As disabled men or women do you face any specific challenges?
- 17. What kind of income-generation activity you and other disabled people can do in the village?
- 18. What are the government and non-government facilities available for employment and self-employment or social security of disabled people? What are the challenges in availing those and how access to these services can be improved?
- 19. What should be done to enhance the income of disabled people like you?

Questionnaire 3: Guidelines for interview with family members

- 1. What is your name?
- 2. What is the name of the child with impairment?
- 3. Who are the other members in your house?
- 4. What is the major source of income of the family?
- 5. Who is the major bread earner of the family?
- 6. What is the educational background of disabled child? What prevented him/her from further study or vocational training?
- 7. How is the disabled member involved in any income generation or any other activities?
- 8. How much does she/he earn per month?
- 9. What is her average expenditure (including treatment cost) per month and who provides that?
- 10. How does the family support disabled child to become independent in life?
- 11. What are the government and non-government facilities available for employment, self-employment, social security and treatment of disabled people?



- 12. What are the challenges from community and other stakeholders for accessing these facilities?
- 13. Is there any specific challenge for disabled men or women?
- 14. What kind of income generation activity your child or other disabled people can do in the village?
- 15. How can they better access the existing facilities?
- 16. What should be done to enhance the income of disabled people in the village?

Questionnaire 4: Guidelines for interview with stakeholders

- 1. What are major sources of income in the village?
- 2. How is your institution involved in enhancing the livelihoods of people?
- 3. What are the facilities available in your institution for that?
- 4. How is your institution involved in improving the livelihoods of disabled people?
- 5. How many disabled people have been benefited and in what way?
- 6. What are the major challenges for involving disabled people in any income-generation activity?
- 7. In your opinion what can disabled people do to secure their livelihoods?
- 8. What are the facilities available within the village or in local government for income-generation programme (employment, self-employment, social security) for disabled people?
- 9. What are the challenges for disabled people in availing these facilities?
- 10. How your institution can improve the livelihoods of disabled people?

ANNEX 5.2

Part I: Questions asked to young men and women

1. How long have you lived as a Nomad in this comm	nunity?	Years
2. Would you prefer to remain in your nomadic life?	Yes	No
3. If no, would you prefer to go and live in a town?	Yes	No
4. For how long would you want go to town?		
	6 months	
	12 months	
	For ever	
5. What would you miss the most if you did that?		
6. Whose permission would you need if you were to short time?	leave the con	mmunity for
	Wife	
	Father	
	Friends	
7. Have you ever left the community to live in town?		
	Yes	No
8. If yes, how long for?		
Less	han 6 months	S
	6 - 12 months	S
More th	nan 12 month	S
9. Who do you see as the most valuable man or wom community?	an living in y	our

a

10. What does he/she do?	
11. Do people in your community admire	her or his work?
	Yes No
12.Did s/he train in the work he does?	
	Yes No
13. If so where did s/he train?	
14. What would you like to be as a result of	of your studies?
15. If you were to stay in the community like to develop?	after training, which skills would you
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
16. Which skills would be most useful to	your community?
1	
2	
3	
4	
5.	

Part II: Questions asked to elders and community leaders

1. How many boys between the ages of 16 and 25 live in your community?
2. How many girls of the same age group live in your community?
3. How many youths have left to go and live in the towns for a year?
4. About how many of these were: (a) Boys (b) Girls
5. Would you prefer the youth to stay within the nomadic life or go and work in towns and why?
6. What might persuade young people to stay within your community?
7. How could they benefit your community if they stayed?
8. How could they benefit your community if they moved to a town?
9. How important is it for the youth to learn to read and write?
10. How important is it for the youth to learn numeracy?
11. What are the most useful tasks that the youth can perform for the community when they can read and write?
1
2
3
4
5

12. What are the mosnumerate?	t useful tasks that the youth can perform when they are
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
-	g men or women have learnt to read, write and can do bado you think it would be useful for the community if they YesNo
14. Which skills wou	ald be most useful for the youth to study?
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
15. What skills would	d be beneficial to your community?
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	

16. How would	the youth in your community acquire these skills?
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	